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THE

Indian Medical Gazette,

A MONTHLY RECORD

OF

MEDICINE, SURGERY, OBSTETRICS, JURISPRUDENCE.

AND THE

COLLATERAL SCIENCES:

AND OF

GENERAL MEDICAL INTELLIGENCE, INDIAN AND EUROPEAN

VOLUME III



Calcutta:

PUBLISHED BY WYMAN BROS., HARE STREET.

1868

PRINTED BY J. P. SPAN
COLUMBIA CENTRAL PUBLISHING COMPANY, LIMITED,
25, COLNAR ROAD, SINGAPORE.

Medical Gazette,

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Medicine, Jurisprudence, and the Collateral Sciences;

Journal of General Medical Intelligence, Indian and European.

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Cutaneous diseases are apt, as has already been plicated leprosy. It is in cases of this kind, arsenic has achieved something of a reputation. Nothing has, in my hands, proved more useful for the removal of the genuine, essential anesthetic leprosy. If the *Urtica* is used, it is well to prescribe it with and syrup, *sa. adipsos* doses. I prefer *sa. adipsos* skin diseases.

Volume III. CALCUTTA, WEDNESDAY, JANUARY 1, 1868. Per Annum Rs. 12-0
No. 1. Single Copy .. 1-8

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

ANÆSTHETIC LEPROSY; WITH ESPECIAL REFERENCE TO ITS DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT IN THE EARLIER STAGES.

By J. N., M.A., M.D.
(Continued from Vol. II., page 291.)

B.—THE MEDICAL OR ACID-CALIBLIC TREATMENT.

Two points in my hypothesis of the pathology of the disease led me to adopt the following practice.—First, as to the particular tissue involved—it appeared to me to be the white fibrous or gelatinous. Casting about for an agent which should affect these structures to the exclusion of the albuminous, I determined to give at least a trial to acetic acid. How it would affect the diseased tissue, I could not of course venture to guess. And now that experience has shown that the experiment was a happy hit, I leave it to others to show what is the *modus operandi*. At first, dilute acetic acid was tried alone, and with very speedy effect in relieving the symptoms, especially the distressing sense of heat. *Secondly*, supposing the morbid agent to be a specific virus of the zymotic sort, it seemed advisable to employ a substance capable of destroying the vitality of foreign organisms, in short, an antiseptic or antizymotic. For this express purpose I sent for some sulphite of soda. But before it arrived I obtained a small quantity of pure, crystalline carbolic acid, which I used for a time in the treatment of abscesses, in accordance with the invaluable suggestion of Professor Lister. It now occurred to me that in carbolic acid I had the very thing which I wanted—an antizymotic of the greatest possible energy. But as I had never heard at that time of this substance being administered internally, I began cautiously with doses of one drop, largely diluted. Its ready solubility in acetic acid, which I had already begun to use, proved very convenient, enabling its administration in both easy and elegant. Finding that the effects are uniformly beneficial, I have since increased the dose in some cases to ten and even five minims. As for the sulphite of soda, I confess that I have never even tried it. The antiseptic treatment has been so uniformly satisfactory that, when the sulphite arrived, I felt unwilling to make any change.

The following formula may be prescribed as soon as a diagnosis of simple unaccompanied leprosy is satisfactorily made out. Although crystalline carbolic acid is to be preferred, it is by no means essential. For a long time past I have been compelled to use the impure solid compound.

No. 1—ACID-CALIBLIC SOLUTION.

R. Acid. Carbolic	℥viii.
Acid. Acetic. (B. P.)	ʒiii.
Quin. Sulph.	gr. xxx.
Spiritus Sacchari	ʒvi.
Syrup. Simplicis	ʒiii.
Aque. ad	ʒxxiv. M

℞. s. ʒiss bis die, post cibum sumenda.
N.B.—For a patient in an advanced stage, it is best to begin with a smaller proportion of acetic acid, say ʒi or ʒii.

The rum used may be either that issued by the Commissariat, or what is manufactured at Simla and other European distilleries. Each dose should be diluted, when taken, with twice or three its own bulk of cold water; nor should it ever be taken on an empty stomach, unless in much smaller doses. The trade sold in most bazars under the name of *stida* is very cheap and very good as a substitute for syrup. Of the quinine it should be said that, although it is by no means an essential ingredient of the solution, it is yet well to add it to the first few bottles, and occasionally afterwards. It has a most excellent effect at the first start, in improving the digestion and appetite. The dose is most conveniently regulated in dispensary practice, by having on hand some hundred of earthenware measures, of various capacities, such as ʒi, ʒiss, ʒii, &c. These can be got of any *khadi* at a trifling cost, and thus each patient may be furnished with a fresh one. For those whose caste will not permit them to drink out of any except metallic vessels, tin measures can be made for a penny or two a piece.

No. 2—LAXATIVE PODOPHALLIN PILLS.

R. Podophylline	gr. viiiss.
Extracti Aloes
Extr. Taraxaci
Pulv. Ipecacuanhæ, <i>sa.</i>	gr. xlv.
Oil. Cajuputi vel ol. Mentli. pip.	℥xxv.

Liquoris Potassæ, q. s. ut fiat massa in pil. xxx. dividenda. *℞. s.* Pillula i, nocte sumenda.

N.B.—No liquid should be employed other than the liquid potash, which again should be added rather *à excess*. The excessive fluidity of the pill-mass will disappear soon, if it is beaten thoroughly, for a minute or two, in a heavy iron mortar.

These pills afford the best cholagogue-laxative for ordinary hepatic derangements, with which I am acquainted. It is on account of this property that they are so useful in the treatment

* In case there is not had an abundant supply of water, cold, substitute smoger (the stronger the better) for the water, and the words need not only be being omitted, but also that of the word of "Pipera. l. s. xxx." This, however, is a sufficient remedy for the disease.

solid extract of chiretta* as a vehicle. However, it can matter but little what particular preparation of iron is used.

Cutaneous diseases are apt, as has already been said, to complicate leprosy. It is in cases of this kind, I suspect, that arsenic has achieved something of a reputation. Certainly nothing has, in my hands, proved more inefficient than arsenic for the removal of the genuine, essential symptoms of simple anasthetic leprosy. If the *liquor potassæ arsenicæ* be used, it is well to prescribe it with tincture of the perchloride of iron and syrup, so adjusted that it may be taken in \bar{v} i or \bar{v} ii doses. I prefer the following formula, however, in all those skin diseases in which arsenic seems to be indicated. The arseniate of iron agrees well with the stomach. The black pepper is introduced in imitation of the Asiatic pill, and is thought to help the action of arsenic, as well as to render it more acceptable to the stomach. Finally, the madar certainly promotes diaphoresis, and has besides a reputation of its own in the treatment of the cutaneous affections of syphilis and leprosy. It may not be all that it is wanted to be, but it is cheap, and does no harm.

R	Ferri Arseniatis	grs. iss.
	Extr. Madar †	grs. xv.
	Ferri-perchlor.	ʒss.
	Pulv. Pip. nigr.	ʒi.
	Syrupi	ʒs.

Fiant pil. xxx. Sumantur Pil. ii. bis die, post cibum.

Rhizanthion and *Necrolygia* cannot always be distinguished from the pains of leprosy, although, no doubt, they often seriously complicate the latter. However, whenever pain is severe, I do not hesitate to give the patient the benefit of hypodermic injection. And this, notwithstanding the opinion of Mr. Clark's Hunter, ought, I feel certain, to be as near the seat of pain as possible. The triple compound of alkaloids, recommended by Brown-Sequard as the best antagonist of pain, I have always found exceedingly satisfactory, and more lasting in its effects than morphia alone. I generally inject, by means of Wood's syringe, acetate of morphia, gr. $\frac{1}{4}$, and sulphate of atropia and of aconitia, gr. $\frac{1}{50}$, each, the solutions being so adjusted that each of the above doses is contained in four minims, making a total of only \bar{xv} ii in all.

We should be on the look out for true *scorbut*, and meet it, when detected, by ordering a suitable diet with lemon-juice, &c.

If *syphilis* co-exist with leprosy, as is often the case, the prognosis becomes very serious; and if, in addition to these evils, the patient have undergone a long course of salivation at the hands of a Bakl, his case is well nigh hopeless. It is possible, however, that after a course of iodide of potassium with chalybeate and bark, the disease may prove amenable to the treatment that has been detailed in this paper, especially if the patient can afford to give himself the comforts demanded by hygiene.

It is right to mention, before concluding, that, in all, 65 cases of leprosy have come under the author's care within the last 14 months, i. e., 35 cases were treated before the employment of the actæo-carbolic solution. With the exception of a very trifling benefit derived by a few of these from the use of nitrate of silver, all of the 35 cases were treated unsuccessfully. The

remedy tried ofttest and longest was arsenic. Some of the patients persevered in the use of it for months, but, to the last, seemed no better in any respect, and at last gave it up in despair. Beside the nitrate of silver, iodide of potassium was tried in several cases. At last one patient persevered for a long time in taking pills of the nitrate of silver, and a solution of the hypophosphites of lime and of soda. In none of these cases was there any real benefit. The only result was that men afflicted with leprosy ceased to have any confidence in me, none of my old patients having returned for the new treatment. But for this great want of success at the outset, I should almost certainly have on hand more patients now.

In now taking leave of his subject, the author cannot refrain from expressing his earnest hope that some, at least, will be found willing to test, on a larger scale than he has been able to do, the plan of treatment here advocated. And if extended trials shall fail to establish the truth of his conjectures, he is perfectly content to have them forgotten, provided only that the profession in India will not rest until the pathology and treatment of leprosy shall have been placed at last on a sur scientific basis. On the former of these subjects, attractive though it is, I have thought it best at present to say nothing, feeling that as yet the data are insufficient for the construction of anything but crude hypotheses; and as to treatment, the suggestions here made are of recent date, and will almost certainly require to be modified, as their defects are revealed by time and a wider experience.

NOTES ON LADAK IN 1867.

By ASSISTANT-SURGEON HENRY CAYLEY.

On special duty, Ladak

(Continued from Vol. II, No. 11, page 268.)

I propose now to give a short account of the diseases of the country, but would first observe that, on reaching Leh at the end of June, I at once established a dispensary, that is, I waited the attendance of all sick people, and treated all who came. At first numbers applied, then, owing to the obstruction secretly thrown in the way by the Cashmere officials, the attendance almost entirely ceased; but after a short time I managed to put a stop to all active opposition, and the attendance of sick of all classes, both from Leh and its neighbourhood, and from distant places, at once revived. I had with me a hospital compounder as an assistant, and a small supply of the most necessary medicines and instruments. Two of my small tents were soon converted into a hospital. A grove of poplar trees served as an operating theatre, and for surgical assistants numerous Ladak amateurs were always at hand, who took great interest in the proceedings; and thus, in rather unpretending fashion, was opened the first hospital in Ladak.

At the same time, an Dispensary was opened under the charge of a Hakim from Cashmere, and for a time the patients on their way to me were forcibly stopped and taken there for treatment; but as soon as this system was abandoned, the attendance at the Maharajah's Dispensary entirely ceased, for the people of Ladak do not believe that any good thing can come out of Cashmere.

There are a few misgenous "medicine men" who travel about with a few drugs in a wallet, and treat disease by the light of inspiration, or chance. They complain of the poverty of the land, and their unrequited services. They, too, experience the truth of the lines regarding the Doctor, that

"When the cure complete, he seeks his fee;
The Devil seems less terrible than he."

The following list shows the diseases which have come under treatment during July and August:—

* This is a cheap and efficient substitute for extract of gentian, and may be made by boiling down the official *rhizoma chiretta*, used at 120 Fahr.

† The extract of madar is made by evaporating a saturated acetated tincture of the rhizoma of *calceptris pectoris* (?). Roughly, grs. \bar{x} are about equivalent to grs. \bar{x} of the powder. Either this extract, or, still better, the tincture itself, is an excellent substitute for ipecacuanha, in dysentery. A couple of drachms of the tincture, with 20 minims of jaudanum, and two or three drops of carbolic acid, is a mixture which the most irritable stomach is almost sure to retain with ease, all the happy effects of ipecacuanha being secured.

country proves that it can be produced by dirt alone, without the addition of crowding, confinement, and bad air; but none of the cases were as severe as those which one sees in jails, or among sailors or soldiers at sea.

With regard to parasitic diseases, I have only seen one case of itch, and that in a Cashmere serai; and I believe that intestinal worms are unknown. Goitre and cretinism, which one would expect to find so prevalent in a country where the people live so often in narrow confined valleys, and drink only snow water, are very rare. I have travelled through the greater part of Ladak, and have seen very few goitres, and those very small ones; and I have seen no cretins, and hardly an idiot; although in the lower Himalayan ranges, as at Kangra, Kullu, and about Simla, goitre is very prevalent, and cretins not uncommon. In Ladak the mountains are chiefly granite, clay, and mica slate, and metamorphic rocks; there is very little limestone. Has the absence of lime in the water anything to do with the absence of goitre? I may notice also that I have not heard of a single case of gravel or stone; and did the disease exist, it would certainly have been brought to my notice. The water, besides containing no lime, is almost everywhere more or less impregnated with soda salts; can this in any way prevent the formation of goitre and stone in the bladder?

Tumours.—Of the eight cases five were malignant, three of which I removed by operation; and three which I also removed were fatty. Cancer would thus seem to be rather prevalent.

Cataract is decidedly common in old people, and nearly all that I saw were cases of hard senile cataract. I have operated on the eyes of six patients with fair results. I operated by the linear incision, as recommended by Dr. Macnamara. The other eye diseases presented nothing remarkable.

Bronchitis and lung diseases are rare and of a mild nature. I have seen nothing resembling phthisis.

Diarrhoea, of a most obstinate and troublesome nature, may be called one of the chief diseases of the land, and I heard the same of Lahoul from the Moravian Missionaries there. The symptoms are generally constipation, weight and pain in the stomach, especially after eating, distention, and pain in the chest, headache, languor, and many other subjective symptoms,—all due to the same cause, and often lasting for years and causing very great distress. It is doubtless caused by bad diet,—the everlasting and unvarying *sutton*. One sees a man with a lumpy of uncooked dough as big as his head, and this he swallows in large pellets, washing them down with cold water, and this constitutes his sole diet for days together. The mere sight conjures up in one's mind that bugbear of the conquerors of India—indigestion and all its attendant horrors.

The number of decayed teeth one meets with is remarkable. The sufferers allow them to be extracted without any hesitation. The people show very great fortitude in enduring pain. Boils, abscesses, sores, and skin diseases are all very infrequent, the last especially so. All wounds seem to heal rapidly, in spite of neglect.

Of the total number of 430 patients treated, 329 were males, 95 females, and only six children under 12 years of age. As I have before noticed, children do not abound; and as there never was the slightest objection made to bringing them before me, I can only conclude that they are remarkably free from disease. There has been a daily average attendance of 30 patients during the two months. I am not at present able to give any information on the subject of parturition and infantile mortality, nor on that of the birth and death rates of the people; and beside I have, I fear, already extended my notes far beyond reasonable limits.

September 15th, 1867.

STRAY NOTES ON CHLOROFORM.

By W. J. ELSMIE, M.A., M.D.,

Medical Missionary, Kashmir.

I. *Evaporation of Chloroform.*—Quite recently I had occasion to enquire of a friend of mine, who had just come from the plains to spend the season in Kashmir, if he had any chloroform in his possession. He replied that he had, and immediately went off triumphantly to fetch his little portable medicine chest. Fancy his astonishment and disappointment when, on examining an eight-ounce bottle which he had caused to be filled with the invaluable anesthetic before entering upon his journey to the hills, he found it completely empty, the chloroform having entirely volatilized. If either my friend, or the chemist who supplied the chloroform, had been acquainted with a little practical fact this expensive waste and vexatious disappointment would have been most effectually prevented. The specific gravity of chloroform is about 1.5, being therefore about one-half as heavy again as pure water. We can take advantage of this well-known fact to prevent the evaporation of my chloroform, by pouring a small quantity of pure water on the top of the chloroform, sufficient to cover the surface completely. The water being so much lighter than the anesthetic, floats on its top, and thus effectually prevents its evaporation. By the adoption of this very simple contrivance, the saving in chloroform will be considerable. There is one objection, and only one, to the use of pure water for this purpose, and that is, that chloroform is slightly soluble in water. Professor Christison states that one part of chloroform is soluble in two thousand parts of water. This solubility is therefore so very slight that the objection to the employment of water for this purpose is altogether inconsiderable, especially when we remember that the quantity of water required to cover the surface of the chloroform is proportionately so small. It is advisable to employ the same water if it has evaporated, and consequently requires to be renewed, for the obvious reason that it is already saturated with chloroform; any water that may flow out of the bottle along with the chloroform should therefore be immediately returned. The adoption of this very simple contrivance in a hot climate, like that of India, will lead to no inconsiderable saving in the consumption of chloroform in dispensaries and hospitals, where much of this expensive and indispensable anesthetic is annually consumed.

II. *Echthyma of chloroform in the dressing of wounds in children.*—Old and young in Kashmir are in the habit of carrying about with them, almost continually, portable earthenware braziers, which they call *launas*. This custom gives rise in the adult to epithelioma, while in the very young severe and extensive burns are of frequent occurrence. A case of this nature happened some time ago. Several days since the mother of the little sufferer brought him to the Medical Mission Dispensary. The little fellow's right arm was mutilated from the shoulder to the elbow; chloroform was administered to him, and the binding cloth divided. So noisy, restless, and terrified is he who never he is brought into the dispensary to have the wound dressed, that I do not find it advisable, both for his comfort and my own, to exhibit chloroform to him. We are thus enabled to dress the wound with more ease and comfort to ourselves, and with no pain to the little patient. I would strongly recommend this practice. It is noteworthy that the state of anaesthesia in such cases is not quite to be so profound as when a surgical operation is about to be performed; so that comparatively little chloroform is needed.

III. *Chloroform in setting of fractures.*—I am at present attending another young patient in connection with the Medical Mission Dispensary, Srinagar. Two boys were, three weeks ago, on a mulberry tree eating the fruit. The branch on which they were sitting suddenly broke, and they fell from a consider-

the patient's condition. The patient was treated with quinine, iron, and cod liver oil, and the symptoms gradually subsided. The patient was discharged on the 15th of January, 1895, and was well at the time of writing.

Case II.—A patient, aged 45 years, was admitted to the hospital on the 10th of January, 1895, with the following symptoms:—General debility, loss of appetite, and a feeling of fullness in the stomach. The patient was treated with quinine, iron, and cod liver oil, and the symptoms gradually subsided. The patient was discharged on the 15th of January, 1895, and was well at the time of writing.

Case III.—A patient, aged 35 years, was admitted to the hospital on the 10th of January, 1895, with the following symptoms:—General debility, loss of appetite, and a feeling of fullness in the stomach. The patient was treated with quinine, iron, and cod liver oil, and the symptoms gradually subsided. The patient was discharged on the 15th of January, 1895, and was well at the time of writing.

Case IV.—A patient, aged 40 years, was admitted to the hospital on the 10th of January, 1895, with the following symptoms:—General debility, loss of appetite, and a feeling of fullness in the stomach. The patient was treated with quinine, iron, and cod liver oil, and the symptoms gradually subsided. The patient was discharged on the 15th of January, 1895, and was well at the time of writing.

The patient has been properly prepared for the operation, and the operation was performed on the 10th of January, 1895. The patient was treated with quinine, iron, and cod liver oil, and the symptoms gradually subsided. The patient was discharged on the 15th of January, 1895, and was well at the time of writing.

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S. K. SINGH, M. B., B. S.

1895.

A FEW PRACTICAL REMARKS ON THE TREATMENT OF GUINEA-WORM.

By Mr. J. S. SINGH, M. B., B. S.

Journal of the Indian Medical Association, Vol. 1, No. 1, 1895.

The prevalence of this parasite has increased steadily in the extent of its range in India. It is most numerous in the Punjab, and is also found in the provinces of the United Provinces, in Madhya Pradesh, and in the States of Mysore, Bombay, and Bhopal.

The symptoms which it produces are extensive. It first manifests itself as a common itchy eruption on the face, and is attended by profuse sweating, itching, or gnawing, and occasionally progresses to an inflammation of the face or other parts. It very rarely indeed ends fatally. I have only seen one fatal case in the course of twelve years, and that by means of the Ajmer Dispensary. This case terminated in extensive necrosis of the face produced by the prometeic change from an insect to a leech.

It is more frequently met with amongst adults than among children, and among men than among women. The most frequent seat of the worms is the conjunctiva, and the issue of the worms from the ocular cavity, especially from the lower eye, is very rare. The localisation of the worms in the great vessels is very seldom observed. I have seen a patient who was confined to his bed for seven years, owing to the successive exit of the worms from different parts of the body. The length of the worms varies from 18 to 22 inches in general.

Sometimes the guinea-worm may shrivel and become emaciated, and develop in a rounded form. I have seen several emaciated worms of long standing situated over the shoulder, or on the trunk.

Asanika has been much esteemed by natives as a remedy for this disease. In my opinion, this is not a pure water, but a kind of the best prophylactics for this disease.

When the loop of the worm can be felt just under the skin, and is not imbedded deep among the muscles, the best plan of treatment is to cut down upon it, when by passing a piece of wire through it, the extraction of the whole worm can be done in a few minutes, with great facility. This avoids the uneasy attending its natural exit, and the risk of the worm being broken during its gradual extraction.

When the worm is located below the ankle or knee, or in the popliteal region, and at the same time imbedded in the substance of the muscles, and looped round the tendons, we should never attempt to extract it by incisions, otherwise it will surely break, and the consequent extravasation of its contents into the surrounding tissues invariably produces considerable inflammation, ending in suppuration. In such cases the best plan is to wait for the natural process of exsanguination; and when the usual bulle has formed, and the worm begins to protrude, it should be gradually extracted in the following manner:—The extracter possessing rounded ends of a smaller size of bulb or ring. At the same time, to facilitate the exit of the worm, the surrounding parts should be well bathed with castor oil.

Sometimes the worms are situated in the extremities. This is especially the case in the leg, and in the structure of the vessels, and by the use of a large quantity of purgatives, for which reason I prefer to apply a plaster over the parts, so as to keep it cool and dry. To do this, the inflammation which follows the breaking of the worm I cover with a thin and elastic covering, composed of equal parts of red mercuric iodine and tannic acid. This is done to prevent the worms from falling to prevent the bad effects of the purgatives.

Should much inflammation and supuration ensue, the case must be treated according to the general principles of surgery.

AGRA, 13th November, 1867.

SUMMARY OF METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS TAKEN AT THE OFFICE OF THE CIVIL ASSISTANT SURGEON OF JESSORE FOR THE MONTH OF NOVEMBER, 1867.

By KENNETH McLEOD, A.M., M.D.,
Civil Asst. Surgeon, Jessor.

I.—Thermometer (standard).—

	Max.	Min.	Mod.
At sunrise	73.5	56.5	65.9
At 9.30 a.m.	80.0	69.5	75.2
At 4 p.m.	84.5	70.2	77.7
At 10 p.m.	79.5	63.0	69.6

General result	81.5	56.5	72.1
Maximum thermometer	71.0	34.0	62.9
Range of thermometer	25.5		

II.—Sun's rays thermometer 114.5 90.5 133.5

III.—Barometer (Aitch's), corrected and reduced to 32° F.

	Max.	Min.	Mod.
At sunrise	30.168	29.126	29.978
At 9.30 a.m.	30.258	29.599	30.079
At 4 p.m.	30.176	29.738	29.988
At 10 p.m.	30.181	29.753	30.022

General result	30.258	29.126	30.016
Range of barometer	1.132	inches.	

IV.—Hygrometer (wet and dry bulb).

	Dry bulb.	Wet bulb.	Temp. of Dew point.	Elastic force of vapor.	Comp. Humidity, sat. temp.
At sunrise	65.8	61.8	63.8	609	95.2
At 9.30 a.m.	75.8	70.6	67.5	662	74.5
At 4 p.m.	78.0	70.9	65.4	633	66.1
At 10 p.m.	69.2	68.2	66.7	661	94.9

Comparative humidity of month 81.9

V.—*Rain*—3.971 in. on the 1st; .058 on the 2nd; .187 on the 10th; .005 on the 11th; .009 on the 12th; .067 on the 13th; .553 on the 14th; .003 on the 15th. Total, 4.661 inches.

VI.—*Wind*—1. General Direction, N., N.W., N.E., S., S.W., S.E., E.

2. Velocity and Force. Instrument broken.

REMARKS

The weather succeeding the cyclone was very fine and warm, but about the 10th of the month a change occurred; the sky became overcast, and the air moist. Occasional showers of rain fell, and the atmosphere was damp and raw. This continued up to the 15th, and was followed to the end of the month by sustained fine weather.

Fever has been very prevalent during this month, and cholera began to appear in various parts of the district towards the end of it.

JESSORE, 16th December, 1867.

STATEMENT OF CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE MUSEUM OF THE MEDICAL COLLEGE, CALCUTTA, BY MEDICAL OFFICERS IN THE MUFUSSIL, FOR THE THREE MONTHS ENDING 31ST DECEMBER, 1867.

By J. A. PEREIRA COLLETS, M.D., *Assistant Surgeon,*

Off. Secy. Curator.

Number.	Date of receipt.	Donor's name.	No. in temporary catalogue.	Short description of specimen.
1	1st October, 1867.	Assistant Surgeon R. Hervey, M.B., Barrapoor Police Agency.	749	Skull of a girl of 13, showing extensive fractures and separations of the sutures.
2	23rd October .. .	Assistant Surgeon D. Wright, M.D., Residency Surgeon, Kuttumadoo	751	A collection of urinary calculi extracted from the prostatic urethra and bladder, near by Native Doctor Saugan Doley.
3	1st November .. .	Assistant Surgeon E. C. Bentley, Civil Surgeon, Malabar.	761	Malignant tumours removed from the left clavicle and right forearm of a girl of 10.
4	11th December .. .	Assistant Surgeon J. F. N. Wise, M.D., Ophthalmic and Surgeon, Dacca.	757	Acute yellow atrophy of liver.
5	16th	Assistant Surgeon R. Brown, F.R.C.S.E., Civil Surgeon, Sibhat.	759	Large cystic tumour removed from eyebrow.
6	21st	Surgeon F. Rogers, M.D., M.R.C.P.L., 4th S. I. Bandol.	793	Four large calculi from the right kidney, and one from the left kidney.

MEDICAL COLLEGE, 1st January, 1868.

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

CASE OF GUINEA-WORM, OR *WURME SUCCES*, FULLY TREATED WITH CARBOLIC ACID.

By J. N. M.A., M.D.,
Medical Missionary.

As the guinea-worm, among other parasites, is said to abound in Abyssinia, the publication of the following case, at this time, may prove opportune.

A month ago, as I was halting for a few hours at the town of Gurishankar, in the Heshyarpoor District, the arrival of a Doctor Sahib was quickly noted abroad. In the midst of a crowd which flocked towards the tree under which I was sitting, came some one suggesting under the weight of a full-grown man, shown by his anatomy to be a policeman, I soon learnt that the cause of his burden was a guinea-worm, from the presence of which he had been suffering for several weeks. The outer end was, as usual, wrapped tightly around a stick, and protruded from the skin just below the right knee, on the outer side of the leg. A probe penetrated easily two or three inches upwards and inwards,

after which the channel became too tortuous to be followed, but could, by the patient himself, through the medium of sensation, be distinctly traced deep into the muscular tissues of the thigh. From the orifice, which was small, exuded a constant flow of somewhat ichorous pus. The worm itself was flat, like a slender tape, or strip of parchment, perhaps half a line in breadth; very thin, but seemingly tough. Every day the patient (whose name I forgot to record) had, by gently twisting the stick, succeeded in drawing forth an inch or two of the worm. The portion already on the stick was dry and black, and to all appearance utterly devoid of vitality; yet the patient dreaded nothing so much as that the worm might break. He had previously, he told me, enjoyed excellent health; yet at this time he looked extremely haggard and wretched. The pain, though not very acute, was constant and most irritating, robbing the patient of his rest, and inducing a sympathetic fever at night. He would allow no one but himself to handle the worm, and would not have believed that a man so apparently so healthy could possess such severe constitutional debilities. Certainly this man's sufferings were very acute, and what was yet so important, he was a poor cripple. This fact, perhaps, was on account of the knee-joint being somewhat involved.

The *treatment* was very simple, and apparently successful.

Doctor of Rampoor Hant, aged nearly 15, was taken in labour with her first child. Three weeks previously she had had uterine hemorrhage. Great exert was taken of her, and there was no recurrence of the hemorrhage until the accession of labour pains, when it was severe, and alarmed the Native Doctor. The vagina was plugged, and the patient brought to Burdwan without delay. During her transit she is reported to have lost much blood. I saw her at 9 A. M. on the 8th; she was anemic, but had a fair pulse. On examination, I found the os uteri dilated to the size of a finger, and the placenta was filling in the os. Turning, under chloroform, was easily effected, as the membranes were intact; but I had some difficulty in passing my hand through the ham of the pelvis, which was small. On this account considerable time elapsed before delivery. The head would not pass the ham, and it was necessary to perform craniotomy.

The placenta was retained in spite of vigorous uterine action. On removing it, I found it adherent to the anterior part of the uterus; it was of the batlulose variety. Very little hemorrhage occurred. The uterus was of good size, and well formed.

In the evening the patient had severe febrile symptoms, which lasted all night. Her pulse was 132. On the following day she complained of great pain and tenderness in the region of the uterus, which was much swollen. This condition was relieved by the tonements. Her fever, which came on nightly, was treated with salines and quinine, and she gradually improved. The Native Doctor was obliged to return to Rampoor. Hant on the fifth day after the operation, and, although against my wish, took his wife with him. I have since heard that she bore the journey well, and is fast recovering.

BIRDWAN, *Oct 15, 1867.*

NOTES OF A CASE OF TYPHOID FEVER.

By DAVID B. SMITH, M.D.

The Medical Chronicle, &c.

I BELIEVE that there are very few physicians (noted of any experience in India who do not now believe that in this country as in England, we are at all times exposed to genuine typhoid fever. Since Sirven, Evans, and others, wrote on the subject, it has frequently been recognized and described.

I have met it so, in the Hill Stations from which I now write (*Mississauga*), a good many unattended cases of this kind, occurring late in the year, naming the long course, mental insensibility, and characteristic of this disease, dark spots, by diarrhoea, and by a crisis about the 21st or 23rd day.

Until now, however, I have never had a fatal case. The following notes refer to one lately under my care, but for any means so marked in its course, as those which I have observed, and yet, looked at in its entirety, an unmarked instance of TYPHOID FEVER.

Lieutenant—, 71 years of service, G in India, aged 26, of middle stature, rather slight build, fair, clear complexion, and red hair.

My first visit to him was on the 11th November. He had just arrived from Bangalore. Found, of thin and weak, but had no general fever. Said that he had been suffering severely from indigestion for some time before coming up, but that it was never very bad; that he had come up, not by method of carriage, but by rail for a short distance. I then told him that I thought he was very weak, and that it would probably be a couple of months before he could safely return to the plains. He was much distressed on hearing this. Two days afterwards he removed to a small house, occupied by a few brother officers; of the latter two had arrived (*by rail*), ten days before him, from Koorkee, suffering from similar fever; they both recovered very slowly.

On arrival at Mississauga, he appeared to be suffering from irreducibility. He occasionally, however, complained of chill, and febriculae; and he, if over the fire, or moved about freely as usual in disordered, physical and mental. He was not confined to bed; a very rest of the bed-room after a few days he was in the habit of going out, and he was to bring back books from the library, which he was doing on the 14th.

His condition was, however, very expressive of what the *Skin* generally displayed, and the *Pulse* generally, from *Breaking* into a full, but not very strong, and not very regular, and in centre, the *Temperature* was 101° 2, *Temperature* at the axilla, 100° 2, and at the rectum, 100° 2. *Temperature* at the axilla, 100° 2, and at the rectum, 100° 2. *Temperature* at the axilla, 100° 2, and at the rectum, 100° 2.

of a rather high colour, not very scanty. *Temperature* at the axilla, 100° 2, and at the rectum, 100° 2. *Temperature* at the axilla, 100° 2, and at the rectum, 100° 2.

He was put on good nourishing diet, and took quinine. I had a mental impression as to his recovery at that time. Still he was in an insubstantial state. Instead of improving he complained more and more, and he became fearful and nervous.

On my visiting him, day by day, he used to say he did not feel any fever, although occasionally he seemed to have been hot and shiver, particularly at night. A low but regularly continued fever was then on him. But it was not until the 26th November (10th day) that this became really well marked. He had then about takeable fever, continuing for 24 hours. All his symptoms he was aggravated. No eruption could be discovered on the abdomen or chest, although it was looked for on several occasions. (The back was not examined with this object.) The pulse became more frequent and considerable, the tongue more *beetle-like*, and *dry*. Small ulcers appeared on the right margin of the tongue, of a tawny, ashy colour. His appetite decreased. Thirst became more troublesome, particularly at night. *Temperature* he had no vomiting. There was now slight tenderness and gnawing on pressure over the coccyx, but no actual pain. There was still no diarrhoea, but the opening of it only appeared about four days before death. There was no engorgement of the liver, and no jaundice. It was only shortly before death that the urine became scanty. It was then either retained or passed involuntarily, not sufficiently (quantity did not check the fever). Profuse sweating occurred, and was increased prostration. The lips became dry, and the pulse smaller and more rapid, than was to be expected. There was now a general prostration, but the pulse was not very weak. The urine was now a bright pink colour, and the *Temperature* was now insupportable, and in its intensity, now occurred. There were also quick nervous, "free" breathing, subsiding tenderness, and dorsal embus.

Shortly after this, active, noisy delirium set in. On one or two occasions, when his attendants were engaged, he got out of bed. He talked rationally of a number of friends having arrived, and of much anxiety about to occur around him. He also mumbled a good deal on the subject of the Abyssinian Expedition, talking fully about it. Latterly the delirium became more noisy, particularly at night. He called out loud, and remonstrated with others, when non-instrument was offered to him. Still he could be soothed, and all along he took his nourishment and medicine. The urine was drawn off twice a day with a catheter, he tasted this 5 or 6 days. The urine was at this time scanty, and had a bloody tinge.

It was only four days before death that he had the opening of diarrhoea, but it was never urgent. He had at most the one or two small motions in 24 hours, and this only for a day or two. These were not yellow, or of a pensiveness colour, but dark like bird-dung.

During his entire illness he was most faithfully and conscientiously nursed by Sergeant Taylor of the Bengal Sappers and Miners. Night and day his every want was attended to.

His nourishment consisted of strong soups, jellies, tea, milk, barley water, toast water, arrowroot, &c. He took port wine and water, moselle, and brandy, liberally in large quantities.

At first, in the way of *medication*, he took quinine afterwards strychnine, mineral acids, murate of morphia, chloride of ether, camphor, &c. Tepid-water sips and warm fomentations were from time to time applied to the abdomen. When delirium threatened, a blister was applied to the nape of the neck.

His symptoms, in spite of careful nursing, went on from bad to worse. Noisy delirium passed into stupor. He died quietly on the 3rd December, 1867, at 7.30 p. m.

POST-MORTEM EXAMINATION.

Body somewhat emaciated, but not greatly so. Pink discoloration of the whole back of the body. No bad smell.

Heart—Membranes not much vascular. Turbidity very adherent to skull. Pericardium loosely strongly marked. No excess of intra-cranial fluid. Brain soft and firm. Pin-pointed vascularity of cerebral substance of cerebellum. Cerebellum normal.

Lungs—No pleuritic effusion in lungs or in intercostal spaces. Intercostal spaces empty. No consolidation of lung tissue. No tubercles. No spots of pneumonia. No spots of pneumonia. No spots of pneumonia.

Liver and Spleen—not examined. Two or three deep lobes of the stomach exist over the right margin of the coccyx.

For the sake of doing something, I ordered an ointment, containing 100 grains of iodide of potassium and 10 grains of iodine to an ounce of lard, to be rubbed into the tumour twice a day; he was also to take a grain of the iodide twice daily. I confess I did not expect much, but the result astonished me.

After treatment of this kind for about three weeks, he complained that the rubbing hurt him; and on examining the arm, I plainly detected *crepitus*, and found the tumour, like an iceberg in summer, rapidly breaking up in every direction. The tale is told. I persevered more carefully with unusual interest, and in the end re-absorbed almost all the callus, left the fragments moveable, and thus "refracted the bone by ointment." All medicine was then stopped, and the bone properly set in splints. He made a capital recovery, callus being again thrown out; and the fragments re-united in their proper places.

Have any of my brethren met a case in which the absorbent power of iodine has been so powerfully shown? I never had much faith in the disfiguration of a lady's neck by dabbing iodine paint over it; nor can I say that many buboes, scrofulous glands, or enlarged rivers have retreated before my brush; but for the future I will put more faith in the steady introduction of iodine into the system when I want absorption.

The treatment might be successful in partially removing one deformity, for which a surgeon is often unjustly blamed. It is one of the most difficult things I know of to keep a child quiet when the apparatus for a fractured clavicle has been applied. Consequently, an unsightly lump on the bone results, especially if the little patient be a girl, who must always have her biggest doll in bed with her. When the girl grows into the young lady, and wishes to wear low dresses in a ball room, the surgeon is blamed for the deformity which the childish restlessness caused. Without going to the length of refracturing, which would then be hardly possible—if advisable, the tumour might be sensibly reduced.

I am quite aware of the fracture of bones from blood diseases, but then we do not want it; when we do, it is more rare to be able to procure it.

November, 1867.

DISLOCATION BACKWARDS OF THE STERNAL END OF THE CLAVICLE.

BY ASST. SURGEON J. A. PURFOY CELLES, M.D., L.R.C.S.I.,
Cheifiting Professor of Physiology in the Medical College of Bengal.

KHEDA-DOST KHAN, aged 40, a Ghilzi Pathán, of the Azákhail tribe, was admitted into the 1st Surgeon's ward of the Medical College Hospital (of which I was temporarily in charge) on the night of the 13th-14th November, 1867. He is an itinerant "kazzáz" (cloth merchant), and has but recently come to Calcutta. On the night of the 13th he was getting out of the way of a buggy which was bearing down upon him, when another buggy, coming up behind him, struck him on the back of the left shoulder, and rolled him over. He became insensible, but thinks that the buggy wheel passed over the front of the left shoulder, and thence across the chest; but his only reason for this belief is the fact that his left clavicle and some of his right ribs have suffered. He was picked up by the Police and brought to the Medical College Hospital.

Present state, 14th November.—A rather haggard man, with grizzled hair, looking older than his reputed age, and even dirtier than his countrymen usually are, but which conditions depend, probably, on the fact that his worldly affairs have not prospered lately. He has a superficial incised wound, or rather a deep excoriation, on each knuckle of the right hand, and another over the right malar bone; all evidently caused by his contact with the ground, when thrown over by the buggy. The lower lip is also slightly lacerated by the teeth. He complains of pain along the angles of the ribs below the right scapula; and on examination, fracture of the 5th and 6th right ribs, midway between their angles and their junction with the cartilage, is detected. There is no œdema, and not the slightest bruise or excoriation on the front or sides of the chest, or of either shoulder; showing that the buggy could not have passed, as he supposes it to have done, across his thorax. On the upper and back part of the left shoulder, between the outer end of the clavicle and the root of the acromion, is a bruise about as large as the end of a buggy shaft, with some

ruffling of the cuticle. There are several trifling bruises and excoriations on the back of the chest.

The patient complains chiefly of intense pain at the inner end of the left clavicle, and declares that the bone has been broken. No crepitus can be detected on passing the hand along the clavicle from without inwards; but on reaching the sternal origin of the sterno-mastoid, the clavicle can no longer be felt; and instead of its convex bend, the finger encounters, on the upper angle of the sternum, a small or cup-like cavity, which looks towards the left side, and slightly forwards and upwards. The right sterno-clavicular articulation is in a normal state, and presents a complete contrast to the left, showing a convex protuberance looking towards the mesial line, instead of a concavity looking away from it. There is no appreciable difference in the radial pulse, no numbness or coldness on the left hand, and no difficulty of respiration; indeed, considering that two of his ribs are broken, the patient is wonderfully free from distress. The distance from the acromion to the median line appears to be the same on both sides, but was not measured. There is great tenderness about the left sterno-clavicular joint, and the pain in it is so great as to engross the patient's attention; he barely alludes to that caused by the broken ribs. There is no essential tension of the left sterno-mastoid, and the end of the clavicle cannot be felt behind or through it.

The reduction of the dislocation was easily effected, without the aid of chloroform. The patient sitting up, I stood behind him, with my left foot on the bed, and fixed his thorax by placing my knee between his scapulae; while with my left hand I grasped the dislocated clavicle, as near its sternal end as possible. Dr. Fawcett, holding the patient's left wrist, extended the arm steadily backwards, upwards, and slightly downwards, until the dislocated bone was felt to move, when he lowered the arm sharply to the side, while I, at the same time, raised and pushed forward the clavicle, the sternal end of which slipped into its place with a sensible, and almost audible, "click." The reduction caused but little pain, and no difficulty was experienced from the resistance of any of the muscles. On letting go the arm, the clavicle showed no tendency to slip out of its proper place. A broad bandage was placed round the chest, and the left arm secured to the side by a second narrower one; and the patient was confined to the recumbent posture. The intense pain in the dislocated joint was at once relieved by the reduction; indeed, the patient cannot understand why his broken ribs and cut hand are not treated by us in the same efficient and satisfactory manner.

The case has gone on well since, and the patient now (25th November) only complains of pain in the broken ribs. There is slight swelling, and a good deal of tenderness, over the dislocated joint, but no pain in it; and the clavicle has not shown any tendency to slip out of its proper place. He is discharged to-day, at his own request.

REMARKS.

Though not so rare as it was believed to be by Sir A. Cooper, this dislocation is still an uncommon one. As regards the absence of all difficulty of breathing or swallowing in the present case, this can easily be accounted for by the direction in which the force producing the dislocation acted. The man had evidently been struck by the buggy shaft on the left shoulder, and thrown over on his right side, thereby injuring his right hand, and breaking his right ribs. The force acted upon the clavicle by driving its outer end directly forwards, and also, probably slightly upwards, and thereby forcing the sternal end of the bone backwards and slightly downwards, but not in the least inwards. I believe that the sternal end of the clavicle lay, in this case, directly behind and below the articular surface upon the sternum. Had the dislocation been caused by a force driving the shoulder inwards, instead of simply forwards, dyspnoea and dysphagia would doubtless have resulted.

LARGE FIBROUS TUMOUR OF ARM WITH DEPOSIT OF CANCER CELLS; AMPUTATION AT THE SHOULDER JOINT; RECOVERY.

BY KASSY KINCAID MITCHEL,

Sub-Assistant Surgeon.

INAYAT ULLAH, a Malomian boy, aged 12 years, a native of Jessore, was admitted in the Dr. Partridge's wards, into Medical

The Indian Medical Gazette.

It is particularly requested that all contributions to the "Indian Medical Gazette" be sent to us as early as possible, and only on one side of each sheet of paper.

Tables of appearances ought to be so distinct that no possible mistake can be made in reading or printing them.

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OURSELVES.

In commencing the third year's issue of the *Indian Medical Gazette*, we cannot refrain from congratulating our readers and ourselves on the success which has hitherto attended our efforts. Although there are few, if any, countries in the world where more material for a journal like this exist, yet it is a melancholy fact that Indian Medical Periodicals are seldom long-lived, and, however well supported at first, are apt to perish, from want rather of contributions than of subscribers, after a few years. As yet, we are glad to say, such has not been the case with this paper; indeed, we have been obliged to exclude many valuable contributions, and to retain others an unreasonable time before publishing them, owing to our not having sufficient spare at our disposal. We only hope that the members of our profession throughout India will be as ready to give us the results of their experience this year as they have hitherto been. That so many cases and original communications have appeared in our columns is the best possible proof that a medical periodical, appearing at comparatively short intervals, in which isolated cases and detached observations can be preserved, is a desideratum in this country, the want of which is imperfectly supplied by comparatively large volumes appearing at longer intervals. No one can think more highly of such publications as the *Indian Annals*, or the *Madras Quarterly Journal of Medical Science*, than we do; yet we think that a periodical like this is not, in its own comparatively humble sphere, less useful than they are. We trust that our readers will continue to be of the same opinion.

THE PROPOSED ALTERATIONS IN THE MEDICAL COLLEGE HOSPITAL.

THESE proceedings of what, with all its faults, we must still call the splendid Medical College Hospital of Calcutta are

unfortunately too familiar to our readers, and to the Medical Profession at large. Attention has so often been called to them in our pages that we feel an apology due to our readers for again broaching so tried, and we fear we must add, so lifeless, a subject. We have now before us the Report of the Committee which met in January and February to report upon, and to suggest remedies for, the defects of the building. In the beginning of the present year we congratulated the profession on the appointment of this Committee, from which we hoped for some speedy result. Ten months have passed since their report was sent in, and as yet nothing has been done, and considering the nature of the alterations which they have recommended to be made in the hospital itself, we cannot say that we regret the delay. Had measures only been taken during the past summer to clear the ground to the south of the hospital, and to improve the drainage of Calcutta Street to the north, the past year would have been a profitable one, as far as the hospital is concerned, in spite of the building itself having been allowed to remain "with all its imperfections on its head."

For the benefit of such of our readers as have not seen the Report of the Committee, but are acquainted with the locality, and take an interest in the institution in which many of them were educated, or have held office, we give a brief outline of the alterations recommended:—

1. The hospital compound to be extended southwards to Nunoob Khansim's Lane, as far as the first turn to the south made by that Lane, and thence directly westward to meet a line drawn southward from the angle of Medical College Street.
2. This would add a considerable piece of ground to the south, not only of the hospital, but of the museum and dissecting room. On this ground it is proposed to erect an ophthalmic, a midwifery, and a cholera hospital. The three buildings to be separate, and built in elevation, facing southwards, but so placed as not to obstruct the ventilation of the hospital.
3. The addition at the east and west ends of the hospital, and in line with the northern face of each of the present wings, of a smaller wing (or rather tower, for it is proposed, according to the plan, to extend but a very little way to the south, with the same number of stories as the present building. In these additional wings the privies and lavatories are to be placed.
4. The addition on the north face of the present entrance porch, of an operating theatre, the floor of which is to be on a level with that of the (active) wards on the first floor. The room under this theatre to be used for the reception of out-patients.
5. The "Council Room Ward" to revert to its original purpose as a place of meeting for the hospital staff. The present operating theatre and adjacent ward to be assigned to the nurses, whose quarters (or rather dens), and the staircase adjoining, should be cleared away, so as to leave a fourth ward in the western wing, like that in the eastern. The cholera ward to be used as the dispensary, for which it and the adjacent ward were originally intended.
6. The arches between the two middle wards (Medical and Surgical) in each wing to be built up, except one in the northern end, in order to secure accommodation for a number of the sick.

The ground east of the above alterations, and of some other ones, is to be the site of an enclosing wall and garden, and the extension of the main or such other buildings as may

ing, was not stated as the main object of the proposed building. It is a pity that the original building, the "Latter Case," is not a comparatively high expense. But the views of the Committee, in the present building, are not so far from those of the Committee of 1842, as to the principle of a central hall, with four wings radiating from it, as to be regretted. It is not, however, to be regretted that the Committee of 1842, in their Report, recommended the removal of the quadrangle, and then built on the south and west of the college hospital. The proposed alterations will add 140 beds (about 100 being private) to the hospital compound, and will allow space for special wards for pneumonia, cholera, and other epidemic diseases, and for the main building, for a long time, to hold the out-patients and the other patients. The Committee of 1842, in their Report, recommended that portion of Medical College Hospital, on the south and southeast to join New College Street, and it is to be hoped that this will be done. The proposed alterations of both these streets, the former being widened to 100 feet, and the latter being met at Westbourne Street, will give to the hospital compound, a site for a large number of houses, and in new houses, the water supply will be abundant, and the water will be carried to the houses. The water supply will be carried to the houses. The water supply will be carried to the houses.

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Which ever plan is adopted, there will remain the serious and irreparable defect that the rooms of all the four wards on each floor will be divided into one block, instead of each ward having its own place close to it. This, however, is one of the radical faults of the original design and cannot be obviated by any subsequent alterations.

It may be objected that the proposed new wings would interfere with the ventilation of the wards by closing the present east and west windows. The windows in question, however, do not extend along the whole width of the building, as the angles of the latter, to a considerable distance back from each face, are occupied by stair-cases and closets. Moreover, only two wards out of eight in each floor will be affected by the change, and the loss in ventilation will be more than compensated for by the substitution of proper lattices, bathrooms, and lavatories for the present very objectionable and *bad* arrangements.

The operating theatre, unfortunately, can hardly be placed in any position where it will be suitably lighted, without being more or less unsightly. But this will be of less consequence, as it is proposed to place it on the north side of the hospital, so that the appearance of the south, or principal, facade will not be interfered with.

Only second in importance to the improvements in the hospital itself is the erection of proper quarters for the four Sub-Assistant Surgeons, attached to the Surgeons' and Physicians' Ward. The dates which dry-dye upon these officers are quite

onous enough, without the additional fatigue of a long journey to and from hospital. The accommodation provided should be on a sufficiently liberal scale to enable the Sub-Assistant Surgeons to make the hospital their *home*, as well as their place of business. Until this is done, we cannot expect these officers to feel thoroughly contented with their very responsible and honorable position.

Better quarters for the House Surgeon, Apothecaries, and Purveyor, as well as a proper dead-house, and cook-houses, &c., are also wanted, but less urgently so than quarters for the Sub-Assistant Surgeon.

In taking leave of this subject, we must say a word in defence of the designers of the Medical College Hospital. It is unjust to make them responsible for all its defects. At the time when its erection was commenced (1818), our ideas of hospital architecture were very different from those which now prevail; but even had the case been otherwise, it must be remembered that both the funds and the space available were greatly limited in extent. To this cause, no doubt, we owe the objectionable manner in which the wards have been placed with their ends, instead of their sides, to the prevailing wind, and many other faults in the building. Moreover, we should not judge of the intended hospital by the existing one, which is really only a fragment of the original design. The latter included a spacious garden in front, and a range of out-buildings, cook-houses, &c.; but these important portions of the design have never been carried out. There certainly are omissions in the original design which cannot be defended on the plea of limited funds. Too much attention was paid to the outside of the building at the expense of the interior, and huge pillars, after those of the Temple of the Winds at Athens, with pediments and cornices to match, were lavished on the outside of the hospital, while it was considered unnecessary to provide such a trifling matter as a water-closet for any one of the 14 wards within!

THE NEW SANITARY INSPECTORS-GENERAL.

It is now definitely settled that India is to have a staff of Sanitary Inspectors-General worthy of the country in which they will labour, and of the science which they represent. The huge area, which is vaguely spoken of as the "Bengal Presidency," but which, practically, includes also the Central Provinces and British Burmah, is no longer to be left to the supervision of a single Sanitary Commissioner. Lower Bengal, the North-West Provinces, the Punjab, and the Central Provinces (including Berar) are each to have an Inspector-General on a monthly salary of Rupees 1,500. Sanitary Inspectors-General for Oudh, Assam, and British Burmah are also to be appointed, but are to receive only Rupees 1,200 a month. Under this arrangement, it will really be possible to carry out hygienic reforms elsewhere than in barracks and cantonments. Hitherto this has not been the case. The extent of country over which the one Sanitary Commissioner for Bengal has till now been supposed to exercise supervision is so enormous, that the most which he and his Secretary could do has been to see that the troops were not exposed to any removable cause of disease, and that, where cantonments adjoined large cities, no very flagrant breach of the laws of Hygiene should be permitted in the latter. But no effectual efforts could be made to better the sanitary condition of the country

at large, or of those towns which do not adjoin military cantonments. In the latter case, the carrying out of sanitary reforms has hitherto been generally left to the municipalities,—bodies which, whether in England or in India, are notoriously more anxious to keep down expenditure than to remove nuisances, or to take measures calculated to diminish mortality. But people are now becoming alive to the fact that "the liberty of the subject" in such matters, which it has hitherto been the tendency of all legislation on this point to guard so jealously, generally means liberty to injure the health of the entire community in order to save the money of a few. This is the case in England, where all men having the least pretensions to education acknowledge, at any rate, that pure air and water, and clean soil, are desirable, even though they may grudge the requisite funds to pay for them. Still more is it the case in India, where the wealthy mercantile classes, which form so important an element in our municipalities, are generally utterly ignorant and careless of such matters. The classes here mentioned—the rich "Lalls," "Seths," and "Malls" of smaller towns—are generally conservative in their ideas, and, though often lavish of their money in such useful works as the construction of tanks, serais, and bazars (*spine niam ke waste*), are peculiarly averse to the removal of time-honoured abuses, and especially to paying for such removal. In the case of towns without municipalities, and of villages, the carrying out of sanitary measures has hitherto devolved upon the Magistrate, an officer already over-burdened with work, and whose duties are increasing in number every day. The Civil Surgeon, also, who is supposed to be *Ex-officio* Health Officer of the District, has seldom sufficient leisure to explore it in that capacity; the fact that, in most cases, he is in sole charge of the jail, obliging him to spend all his time at the Sudder Station, except on the rare occasions when he is able to leave it for a few days, in order to inspect outlying "branch" dispensaries. Hence, from want of the proper machinery, there has rarely been no permanent sanitary supervision of the civil population of the country. When a great epidemic has carried off half the inhabitants of a district, a Special Commission is appointed to report upon the same, and to suggest means for preventing the recurrence of a similar calamity. The recommendations of such a Committee, as regards drainage, removal of decaying vegetable matter from tanks, clearing away jungle, &c., are (or are not?) carried out in the first instance; and for the time the disease is removed. But it being nobody's special duty (or at least not the duty of any one with sufficient leisure) to see that the improvements so carried out are kept up, things soon relapse into their former condition; disease re-appears; and wiser men shake their heads at what they are pleased to consider the uncertainty of hygienic measures, and the inefficiency of Medical Officers, or perhaps hint darkly that the original Commission, and any subsequent one which a return of the disease may have called for, are jobs to put money into the doctor's pocket! Unfortunately, we need not look far for an example of this state of things. It appears that the epidemic in the Hooghly and Bardwan districts, which was so much reduced in its severity by the measures recommended by the Committee appointed to report upon it in 1862, is now again raging violently, owing, doubtless, to the improvements then carried out not having been since maintained. Under the new system each local Government will have on its staff a Medical Officer whose

"syphilitic gummatous tumour" found in the right optic thalamus of a patient who suffered from hemiplegia of the left side.

Dr. Colles, referring to the case of thoracic aneurism, doubted that the iodide of potassium had any effect in promoting the fatty degeneration of the clot, which would, he thought, have occurred, in any case, in the central portions of so large a mass. Recent researches had raised considerable doubts as to the received idea that the fibrin deposited from the blood, in these or any other cases, became organised, and rather led us to believe that the fibrin so deposited went through degeneration and removal, before new tissue was formed. Dr. Colles also doubted that the clot in the external sac was of *post-mortem* formation, though evidently of recent origin.

The President here regretted that, as Dr. Ewart had just been obliged to leave, the meeting could not have the benefit of any further remarks from him on this particular case.

Dr. Charles considered the softening of the central part of so large a clot to be a perfectly natural process, quite independent of the influence of any drug.

With regard to the complete absorption of hepatic abscess, Dr. Charles was rather sceptical. Several years ago he had opportunities of examining the bodies of many soldiers who had suffered from hepatic abscess, and in some of them he had found an attempt at spontaneous absorption. In many cases the abscesses appeared to be in a dormant state, and Nature had taken steps towards effecting a cure, a thickened caseous condition of the pus, and some puckering of the sac of the abscess, being observable; but in no case that he had examined was more than the *attempt* at recovery in this way evident, the patient always dying before Nature had completed the work. The fact was the more striking when viewed in relation to the frequent cicatrices in the lungs, which were often very perfect. Nature succeeding in completely closing the cavities. As regards the star-shaped cicatrices found on the surface of the liver, it was not easy to divide, in all cases, whether they depended on syphilitic deposits or on abscesses. Syphilitic deposits were usually confined to the surface of the gland, whereas abscesses were not so. Hence when cicatrices were found in the substance, as well as on the surface, of the liver, we might safely attribute them to abscesses. Dr. Charles had seen three cases in which hepatic abscess had certainly existed, and in which it was supposed that it had been absorbed; but in such cases the abscess may have been small, and have burst into the intestines very high up, so that the pus, before being evacuated externally, had become so much altered as to prevent its recognition. It is well that brought forward to-night by Dr. Ewart, and another had before the Association three or four years ago, in which there were seven abscesses, the abscess was never found completely healed. If in these cases Nature attempted a cure in this way, she seemed unable to carry it out effectually.

Dr. Chuckerbatty, in reference to Dr. Ewart's case of aortic aneurism, said that it proved nothing against the use of iodide of potassium, but that the subject of the action of that salt in promoting or retarding the coagulation of the blood was still *sub judice*. Nelson, Frank, and other authorities had, at the same time with himself, found it to be good in cases of aneurism. He thought it probable that, in Dr. Ewart's case, softening of the clot had begun before admission. Dr. Chuckerbatty doubted the frequency of absorption in cases of hepatic abscess; he had never met with such cases, though he had found abscesses with thick walls and creamy pus in the substance of the liver, as well as masses of granular tissue, which perhaps marked the site of absorbed abscesses.

Dr. Chuckerbatty then showed a specimen of numerous minute deposits, apparently tuberculous, in the liver and kidney; the lungs in this case were filled with grey tubercle.

The meeting adjourned at 10 P. M., with a vote of thanks to the Chair.

Reviews.

Nature, Treatment, and Prevention of Cholera. By EDWARD AMBROSE FITZGERALD, M.R.C.S.; Eng., Assistant Surgeon, 2nd Sikh Infantry.

MR. FITZGERALD, in this pamphlet, gives an account of his experience in the treatment of cholera at Dera Ghazi Khan, in June last. The total number of cases treated by him was only twelve, of which three, who were almost moribund when admitted, died. Of the remainder, all of whom recovered, five were "of a more or less suspicious nature," and only four were undoubted cases of cholera. Mr. FitzGerald's statistics, there-

fore, are on too small a scale to be of any great value, though encouraging so far as they go. He is an advocate of Dr. George Johnson's theories, but not of his practice, considering that Nature herself "eliminates" the poison efficiently; and that our object should be to check its multiplication in the system, which he proposes to do with quinine, giving the latter every four or half hour in five-grain doses in effervescent draughts. He also gives acids (especially lime juice), on the principle that they "possibly cause the generation of electricity in the animal frame, just as an acid would in the cell of a galvanic battery," and thus remedy the "loss of that electrical balance which appertains to all healthy individuals." When there is rapid breathing, a sense of suffocation, and cessation of the discharges, he recommends venesection.

The results which have followed this mode of treatment are encouraging so far as they go; but we think that the author would have done well to give his plan a more extended trial before "flushing into print," the more so as we cannot see much originality in his mode of dealing with cholera. Quinine, acids, and the lancet, have all been tried ere now, though not possibly in exactly the way in which Mr. FitzGerald recommends. The close similarity between cholera and the cold stage of intermittent fever is so familiar to all Medical Officers on the frontier, that we are rather surprised at the author, writing from Derajat, going as far as Hildesheim for instances of it. A treatment which, used in four cases of genuine cholera (for we leave out the three fatal cases as having been moribund when admitted), is successful in all, is certainly worthy of further trial; but it must be remembered, that as great success in the first instance has attended other systems of treatment, which, on further trial, have proved valueless, the "suspicious cases" should not be counted. "Cholera, a diarrhoea," it only carefully watched, is not, as a rule, a difficult disease to manage. Mr. FitzGerald deserves credit for so honestly recording that more than half his cases were only "suspicious" ones; too many advocates of new modes of treatment, either carried away by enthusiasm, or from more dishonest motives, call every case of severe diarrhoea successfully treated by their plan, "incipient," or even "genuine," cholera. We hope that Mr. FitzGerald will give us the benefit of his experience in the treatment of cholera hereafter, when he has further tested the plan which he now advocates.

On the Laws of Health, considered with reference to the habits and peculiarities of the Natives of India. By RAMMO KASHYAP LALL DEY. Read before the Bengal Social Science Association on the 26th July, 1867.

LIKE the former pamphlet by the same author, (*Hindoo Social Laws and Habits viewed in relation to Health*, reviewed at page 249 of our first volume) this is mainly a protest, by an educated and enlightened Hindoo, against the habitual indifference to the laws of Hygiene shown by the better classes of his countrymen. In every country such laws are more or less ignored, too often almost necessarily, by the lower orders; but while in Europe the upper classes have long been aware of the importance of cleanliness and ventilation, the conservative tendencies of even highly educated Asiatics have hardly been at all affected on these points. The wealthy zemindar, while from his position free from the necessity of taking exercise in order to earn his bread, has not yet learnt to take into preserve his health; and he still sleeps, from choice, in an ill-ventilated closet, which would not be considered good enough for a "condemned cell" in any modern jail. Against such time-honoured usages Baboo Kashyap Lall Dey seems determined to carry on a crusade; and he deserves the more credit for doing so from his not being a slavish imitator of European fashions. In his former pamphlet he deprecated the substitution of our ungraceful and inconvenient dress for the modification (partly Muhammadan and partly Hindoo) of Indian costume now worn by Bengalee gentlemen; and in the present he maintains opinions upon the subject of food, which would find small favour with the European soldier, such as that a diet composed exclusively of rice and dall will enable an able-bodied person to undergo any amount of labour without injury to health.

Having been designed for a non-professional audience, the present pamphlet does not go as deeply into the subject as did the former one, which was read before the Bengal Medical Association, but it is not the less valuable on that account. We only hope that those to whom it was addressed will carry into practice the excellent lesson which it is intended to convey to them.

Germinal matter and the contact theory. By JAMES MORRIS, M.D., 2nd Edition. London: Churchill, 1867.

Dr. Morris may be best described as an enthusiastic disciple of Dr. Lionel Beale. The King's College Professor may be regarded as the originator of the theory of "Germinal and formed matter," and Dr. Morris is his prophet. In this little work Dr. Morris sets before the reader the various facts in the history of zymotic diseases, which seem to point to the explanation of contagious affections, as lying in the theory that the poison which float through the atmosphere are capable of reproduction when supplied with the necessary nutriment. Just as Dr. Beale would explain the development of a piece of connective tissue, Dr. Morris accounts for the spread of zymotic epidemics. Dr. Beale says that the minute malarious mites to which matter, and this increases itself. As regards the general principle on which the theory is based—the principle of the reproducibility of some condition of matter—there cannot be the faintest doubt; but it has been demonstrated long before Dr. Morris came upon the field. For the rest, we confess that we have failed to realize the proofs which Dr. Morris urges in favor of the process by which this reproduction is effected. Dr. Beale's theory involves the difficult supposition that some of the tissues of the body, which exhibit the highest vital powers, are nothing more nor less than dead matter, or, as Dr. Beale terms it, "formed material." Dr. Morris furnishes us with a well-written and aptly-pointed discourse on the reception of the poisons of the spreading diseases. In doing this, he has achieved a great service, for there can be no doubt that his observations, if extensively read, (and they deserve to be widely known, must tend to awaken people's minds to the activity of the zymotic poisons, and to the necessity which exists in all communities for prompt and energetic measures for their destruction. In this way Dr. Morris paves the road to a perfect and universally appreciated system of hygiene; and for this he merits the praise of the profession. Beyond this we cannot say anything in favor of the verdict he asks us to bring in. As in the case of Scotch jurisprudence, the simplest verdict to record is that of "not proven."

Egypt and the Nile considered as a winter resort for pulmonary and other ailments. By JOHN PATTERSON, M.D. London: Churchill, 1867.

We are so inundated with treatises on "Change of Climate," and the works from that to time issued have so much to say, and so little to tell us, that we are accustomed to look on all species of this class of literature with considerable suspicion. Dr. Patterson's little volume is in some respects, though not in many, an exception to the general rule. It is not diffuse; and it deals with its subject in an earnest, simple, straightforward manner. Books of this kind are necessarily cogmate; and so we find that Dr. Patterson seldom gives a very satisfactory explanation of his reasons for stating that particular parts of Egypt have special virtues in the influence of their climates over disease. It must, however, be justice, to say that it is by no means easy always to explain why particular climates have particular effects. Medical art, even in this century of advance, is still somewhat empiric. Dr. Morris advises invalids against visiting in parties to go to the Nile, and he seriously urges his patients to consult the usual list of medicines, and especially the purgatives, castor-oil, and quinine. His Appendix contains numerous meteorological tables which may be useful for reference.

On Erysipelous and erythematous eruptions, causes, and treatment of the same, as they exist to which this term has been applied. By W. J. SMITH, M.B. London: Hurdwicke, 1867.

The significance of the term "erythema," as currently accepted, has been extensively and ambiguously that Mr. Smith has done well to confine his attention to give some categorical arrangement of this class of eruptions. Erythema, which has been loosely understood to include a series of contagious ring-shaped eruptions caused by micro-organisms, has been variously described as twelve distinct diseases. Of these twelve affections, there are but two which are due to the presence of a fungus, or vegetable parasite. Mr. Smith therefore gives a brief account of these twelve diseases, and divides them under the following heads:—Scabies, Tinea tonsuræ, Tinea decalvans, Tinea favosa, Herpes circinnatus, Herpes circinnatus, Herpes circinnatus, Herpes circinnatus, Herpes circinnatus, Herpes circinnatus, Herpes circinnatus. There is nothing new in any of the chapters devoted to these

affections, but the descriptive details are accompanied by cases and thus the book will be found useful for reference by the busy practitioner.

A Treatise on Human Physiology. By JOHN C. DALTON, M.D. 4th Edition. Philadelphia: Lea, 1867.

In this edition of Dr. Dalton's highly popular and lucid treatise on general physiology, the author has been certainly remiss in his efforts to bring the book up to time. This is, in our opinion, greatly to be regretted; for, in its earlier issues, we know of no treatise which could be compared with Dr. Dalton's book either for clearness or comprehensiveness. In the volume before us, it must be admitted that little has been done to make the work *à peu près* with recent research. The chapter on Blood is particularly open to this charge of negligence; in it we find no mention of Hoppe-Seyler's, or the other German investigation. The development of the blood corpuscle is most accurately given, and we find no allusion, even of the faintest kind, to Mr. Sargy's and Dr. Stokes' wonderful discovery of the absorption-lights of hematin. Again, under the head of Circulation, Mr. Marey's first findings with the sphygmograph are figured, but no account is given of the wonderful application of the instrument as a means of physiological research. We have selected these parts at random, but we believe readers will find that the same carelessness is displayed in the other chapters of the volume.

English Correspondence.

[FROM OUR OWN CORRESPONDENT.]

London, November 18th, 1867.

The most generally-discussed question in professional circles, at the present moment, is that of the work-house infirmaries. It is not much more than twelve months since attention was drawn to the condition of the hospitals of London Unions. The terrible revelations which were then brought under public notice by Mr. Ernest Hart led to the formation of the "Association for the Improvement of Work-house Infirmaries," whose labors have produced the Legislative Act of last session. It was but natural to suppose that the state of things in Provincial Unions would, if enquired into, be found to be quite as objectionable as that in the London work-houses. Acting on this supposition, the *Lancet* and the *British Medical Journal* have been circulating enquiries into the country work-houses, and the result has been the discovery of a system of management which, in all its horrible details, presents as loathsome a picture as that which was last year set before our eyes. An official enquiry is now taking place at the Barnham Work-house, and the evidence fully bears out the statements made in the medical journals. Among a few of the grievances, we may mention the following:—Bedridden patients washed in cold water, and dried in their own sweat,—absence of power-lamp-burners, tiled-floored nurseries,—absence of water-closets, a supply of bad meat, arrangements being entered into by two of the master and the butcher equally satisfactory to both these individuals; cruelties practised by nurses, impetuous separation of contagious cases; absence of light and air, and, finally, starvation and bad-treatment of the vagrant poor. Indeed, the discoveries of the Commissioners of the two journals in question show us that, under the present scheme of management, it is impossible to expect a much better sanitary condition of pauper's, it is thought that little reform can be achieved till a superior class of work-house masters is appointed. As it is, the "master" is in most cases very nearly as ignorant as the female.

A vigorous effort is being made to extend the provisions of the recent "Contagious Diseases Act" to the coal population. On Monday last, 11th, an important meeting was held for the purpose of establishing an association whose aim is to be the carrying out of this project. Dr. J. E. Pollock, who took the chair, reviewed the labors of the Committee of the Hygienic Society, and pointed out to the meeting what amount of useful sanitary reform might be accomplished. On several occasions were made by Mr. James Linn, Mr. Cogenven Mr. Erasmus Wilson, Mr. Holmes Cooper, Mr. G. Osborne, and others, and various resolutions were passed, a tabulating the society and defining the extent and character of its labors. Among several Vice-presidents elected, were Sir Henry Thompson, Dr. Jenner, Mr. F. C. Sney, Sir E. Anstey, and Mr. Erasmus Wilson. Messrs. Birkley, Hall, and Cogenven are Secretaries, and Mr. Spencer Smith is Treasurer. The society is to be styled "The

dissolves all its fatty matter. It is optional for the anatomist or pathologist to stop at this stage of preparation if he chooses. He has only to place the "piece" in ether, and he can preserve it indefinitely. But if he wishes to proceed, he passes on to the fourth process, which is that of "tanning." M. Brunetti dissolves his tannin in boiling distilled water, and injects the solution in the same way as the other substances, previously driving out the ether by means of a current of distilled water. Then comes the fifth or last process, which is the "desiccation." This is accomplished by means of hot air, (under a pressure of about two atmospheres) dried by chloride of lime. The operations are then finished; and specimens thus prepared remain supple and light, and preserve their colour, their natural bearings, and their solid histological elements, for liquids no more exist. They can be handled without fear, and preserved indefinitely.

Certainly, this is an admirable discovery. It had already received a recompense, an exceptional one, at the Exhibition, and this one was crowned by the immense cheering with which the Congress received the author's communication. At the suggestion of Professor Lamble, of Karkoff, who was Vice-President at the time, M. Boulland addressed the thanks of the Congress to M. Brunetti, and took the opportunity of expressing his satisfaction and pride at hearing so many foreign medical celebrities speak such excellent French; and he hoped that this language would become the universal one for all future International Medical Congresses. Hereupon, an English Doctor, by name Drysdale, put in a claim in favor of English, which he hoped would become the language; but as, in a room containing some three hundred persons, all spoke or understood French, who was probably not to know half a dozen words of English, his good wishes are not likely to be of our generation.

After M. Brunetti came M. Laskowski, who also presented some beautifully preserved specimens, which have the advantage of retaining the aspect, the suppleness, the *lipidic*, and all the physical qualities of the normal tissues. He circulated two specimens,—one of a breast, which was two years old; and it was not only admirable as a preparation, but free from any unpleasant smell. M. Laskowski, however, told us no more than that phosoric acid was part of the lipid which he used for injecting the vessels. His communication was well received, but nothing like what his predecessor's had been.

At the fourth sitting of the Congress the question submitted to it was the following:—“Is it possible to propose to the different Governments some efficacious measures to restrain the propagation of venereal diseases?” A good many papers of great value were read at this sitting, among others, by Messrs. Jannet, de Merle, Billet, and Orre of Christiania; but the discussion was the most animated part of it; so much so, that the President had frequently to call the numerous orators to order. It is not possible for me to reproduce exactly what was said, but I will endeavour to give my readers a correct idea of the “ensemble” of the discussion, and of the principal opinions which it elicited. At the commencement of the sitting, Professor Béhier proposed the nomination of a Commission, which should discuss and propose the measures under notice to the respective Governments, and this motion was agreed to in principle. The different works read on this question (which contained very ample statistical documents) stated the ravages produced by the disease in the different countries in which their authors practised, enumerated the measures already adopted to check them, and submitted new ones, more or less severe, in the hope of arriving, if possible, at better results. All sorts of ideas, good or bad, admissible or inadmissible, but nevertheless all worthy of discussion, as being suitable, perhaps, to one locality, if insisted to another, were expressed in those works; but one unanswerable fact appeared on the face of the statistical evidence, and that was, that the *greater the discipline*, called in French “surveillance,” *the fewer the venereal accidents*. The difficulty of the thing appeared to consist solely in the manner in which this discipline was to be carried out. For the army and navy, composed of men bound by strict regulations, this discipline is easy enough; it is carried out on a large scale, and it has already considerably diminished the number of venereal complaints wherever it is rigidly enforced. Some of the speakers suggested that the same measures should be strictly applied to the merchant services; they were of opinion that when a shipowner was about to start his vessel, the whole crew should, previous to shipment, be subjected to a searching inspection. When any one was found to have syphilis, he should there and then be sent to a hospital, to be treated and cured. It was

almost incredible, they said, how numerous were the venereal diseases kept up by the merchant services of different countries; and they maintained that shipowners themselves would be large gainers by causing the crews of their vessels to be carefully inspected; for it often happens that men ship concealing empuits, which unfit them for work when at sea, and then they have to be laid up and put to no use; nay more, it has sometimes happened that a ship has had to put into some port to land her venereal cases. Here, then, is a first measure of safety of easy execution, and capable of yielding good results if properly carried out. The idea of it is due to Dr. Jannet, of Bordeaux, and to another gentleman whose name I did not catch.

M. de Merle, of Loudun, who also spoke at this sitting, read a report in the name of the Harveian Society, which was ably drawn up, and very well received. Its object was to establish stringent regulations on prostitution, to subject those who practised it to careful examination, and to introduce the said regulations into England, where prostitution was most entirely free. This gentleman then narrated an observation of his own private practice: to show the advantages that had resulted to an establishment in London, the women of which were under his care, and inspected by him twice a week; but as he also told us that this establishment was one which only admitted a certain select set of customers, it evidently was not in the same condition as similar ones in France, Belgium, or Germany, open to all comers.

Other speakers were of opinion that sanitary visits should be performed on all populations!! Such a proceeding, which would be a serious infringement on the liberty of the subject, has but a small chance of success in any country. Others again wanted patients to inform against the person who had diseased them. This measure, which, it appears, was in practice for some time in the French army, had to be abandoned, as sentiments of hatred, jealousy, spite, or revenge often tempted patients to make false accusations, which led to unpleasant results, without any advantages as a set-off to them. Many doctors practising in large cities dwell on the difficulty of checking late-time prostitution, which is unfortunately on the increase in all crowded centres, where numbers of women are on the loose, over whom the police have little or no hold. The houses of prostitution, on the contrary, where discipline can be much better enforced, are unfortunately on the decline, clandestine debauch driving an opposition coach against which they cannot compete; as much so, that several of the speakers were for urging all Governments to keep up the authorized houses, the advantages of which are proved by inflexible statistics. M. Le Fort set forth the state of prostitution and of syphilis in Paris in a series of tables, from which I am enabled to give the following figures:—There are at present in this city 3,851 women on the police registers. Of these 2,515 are “filles isolées” that is to say, they live in rooms of their own, and are only inspected once a fortnight, whilst 1,306 are tall out in 135 houses, and inspected twice a week. Since this gentleman has been Surgeon of the Veneral Hospital, called the Moli, he has had 12,000 consulting patients, and has treated 1,500 in his wards, questioning these numerous patients as to the sources from which they derived their complaints. M. Le Fort has established that 53 per cent. of them contracted the same from “filles isolées,” and others who frequent public bills, and such places of amusement; whereas only 18 per cent. of the rest do from the women who live in houses called “maisons décentes.” Every one knows that a certain number of clandestine prostitutes are almost daily held out by the police; and it would appear from M. Le Fort's tables that out of a total of 13,818 of this category, 3,724 were found on examination to be more or less diseased. There can be no manner of doubt that women who are not on the police books are infinitely more dangerous than those borne on them; and that of these, the least dangerous are those who live in houses and are inspected twice a week. Another point which comes in it were deeper into the subject, is the manner in which discipline is enforced; the visits are very often almost illusory, on a count of the paucity of doctors to the number of women to be visited. The examination is made with a rapidity which may almost frustrate its purpose, for a hasty glance at the external organs is of little avail, whereas a minute inspection of the vagina and neck of the uterus might reveal diseases which otherwise must escape detection. It is now well known that changes of the neck of the uterus are by no means rare; and as they are not easily discovered, they constitute a very frequent cause of venereal disease.

malaria exists is impossible. On the contrary, in countries which are only hot, acclimation is easy enough, if certain hygienic conditions are fulfilled, which vary according to localities. M. Lombard, of Geneva, also spoke on the subject of atmospheric influences on mortality in Europe. His conclusions were, that cold and misery are two powerful causes of death in Northern countries, and that coldness most prejudicially on the aged. He further remarks that malaria is also a powerful cause of mortality even in Europe, and that no means should be left unemployed to destroy it.

A few words now on Paris medical staff events. Another death has struck down a man full of hope and promise, Dr. Foucher, one of the Professors Agrégés at the Faculty. He died young, like Folin, and at the very moment that he was going to reap the reward of the position which, by dint of hard work, he had made for himself. However, there is no lack of men to take his place, which was a complimentary chair of "Ophthalmologic" at St. Louis' Hospital.

The chairs left vacant by the death of Velpeau and by the resignation of Nelaton have been filled up, as I announced, they would be, by the nomination to Clinical Professorships of Messrs. Jargavay and Richet; the former succeeds M. Nelaton at the "Hospital des Cliniques," opposite the School of Medicine, and the latter takes the Clinical Chair of Surgery at the *Pitié, vice* Professor Gosselin, who exchanges to the *Charité*.

The Clinical Professors of Surgery, therefore, now in Paris are—Messieurs. Jargavay at the Hospital des Cliniques; Laugier, at the Hotel Dieu; Gosselin, at the *Charité*; and Richet, *Pitié*.

This leads me to say a few words of a remarkable case now in M. Richet's wards, which is giving physiologists a good deal of trouble to interpret.

A young woman employed in a cartridge manufactory fell in such a manner that her forearm, a little above the wrist, bore violently on the edge of a sheet of copper used in the process of fabrication. A transverse wound was the result of the accident. The skin, both arteries, (radial and ulnar) a tendon, and the median nerve were divided.

The divided surface of the nerve was not clean and regular, but both ends were separated; so much so, that one having been found, the other had to be sought for. Now, though the central end was exquisitely sensitive, the *periphoric end was sensitive*. The patient experienced tolerably severe pain when M. Richet cut a piece of it off in order to make it even, as well as to obtain a portion for microscopic examination. The central end was not touched, for the slightest movement of it produced excruciating pain. M. Richet, before bringing both ends of the wound together by a suture, examined the state of sensation and motion in all the parts to which the median nerve distributes itself below the wound. As to muscles, the median nerve animates those of the thenar eminence and the two first lumbricals. Voluntary motion appeared lost in them. The median nerve further presides over the sensibility of the skin of the thenar eminence of the middle palmar region, and of the palmar surface of the three first fingers, as well as of the outer half of the fourth. On all these points sensation appeared to have been retained, though blunted on the index finger, which was, however, covered by a thick epidermis.

The patient mentioned, without making a single mistake, each point as it was being touched with a piece of paper, whether the thumb, the palmar surface of the middle or the ring fingers, or the hand. She could distinguish perfectly the sensation of contact from that of pain, when pricked on those spots with a pin. Nay more, when a strongly-heated object was brought near them, she felt a sensation of burning.

After all these explorations, the two ends of the nerve were united, and fixed by a point of suture. This operation in no way modified the sensibility. Since then several medical men have seen this patient—Messrs. Vaugelin, of Padua; Clark, of London; Duchenne, of Boulogne; and others. The results they obtained were similar to those that had been observed before the re-union of the nerve. Since then, that is, 18 days, sensibility has appeared to become gradually more delicate, and since last week hyperæsthesia has been superadded to the prickings in thenar eminence, and then intermittent pains towards the fingers. On the eighth day M. Duchenne explored the electrical motility of the muscles of the thenar eminence. He was unable to make them contract by an energetic current passed through the skin.

Consequently, in this case, the section of a mixed nerve, the median, has not induced the abolition of all sensibility in the parts to which it distributed itself. Any doubt of the fact is im-

possible, for all chances of error were carefully avoided, and cross-examinations, as it were, made by able men, who did not easily accept as true that which appeared to them incomprehensible.

(These facts are taken from a published report.)

The Progress of the Medical and Collateral Sciences.

Microphyta and Microzoa in the human skin.—At a meeting of the French Academy, on October 16th, M. Lemaire read a very interesting memoir on this subject. He stated that the ordinary duty matter which is thrown out over the skin by the sudiparous glands is full of minute organisms, which may be readily detected on submitting a portion of the matter to examination with high magnifying powers. The microscope, says M. Lemaire, reveals to us the existence, upon the skin, of numerous spherical ovoid and cylindrical transparent bodies, such as are found in a confined atmosphere, of myriads of bacteria, vibrios, and of small specimens of *spizidium volutans*; and, finally, of ovoid mounds. The matter which yielded these numerous bodies was found, on chemical examination, to reddish litmus paper. It is a remarkable fact that some of these minute organisms were found in the cuticumen. M. Lemaire states that he has not been able to discover any of these organisms in the mucus of nasal fossa, vagina, or urethra.

Action of boric acid on albuminous substances.—Herr Brucke continues his enquiries into the action of boric acid on albuminous substances. At one of the recent meetings of the Academy of Sciences of Vienna, he stated that a solution of this acid of only 2 per cent. strength does not prevent the coagulation of blood, does not curdle milk, and does not produce syntomine by its action on albumen. On the other hand, the borate of soda, like the carbonate of the same base, transforms ordinary albumen into precipitable albumen.

Experiments on artificial scurvy.—In conducting some observations upon the action of common salt on the blood-vessels of frogs, Herr Stricker has very nearly demonstrated that the peculiar ecchymoses of scurvy are produced by the action of chloride of sodium on the capillaries. His experiment was thus conducted. Having placed a frog's foot under the microscope, so as to distinctly perceive the circulation of the blood in the capillary net-work, he then injected a solution of salt beneath the animal's skin. He soon detected a change in the movement of the blood corpuscles. These bodies accumulated in great numbers in portions of the capillary net-work, and formed partial ecchymoses by reason of the stagnation of the blood-current, which they produced. The result of this experiment led Herr Stricker to make further trials. In the course of his subsequent observations he discovered that when chloride of sodium was admitted in large quantity into the circulation of frogs, dogs, and other animals, the bodies, when submitted to *post-mortem* examination, exhibited numerous livid patches, which Herr Stricker considered to be genuine scurvy ecchymoses.

Employment of yeast in dyspepsia.—This old remedy, which has for some years fallen into disuse, has recently been revived by M. Bergeret, who states that he has found it effect cures in obstinate cases which had resisted all other remedies.

How carbolic acid affects the tissues.—This subject is just now of considerable interest, from the fact that very conflicting accounts of the effect of carbolic acid in wounds are given by different English and Continental Surgeons. The researches which have recently been carried out by Herr Newmann, of Königsberg, throw some additional light on the question. They lead their author to conclude, *first*, that when concentrated, this acid acts as a powerful caustic, *second*, it gives transparency to the tissues, without causing them to swell up; *third*, it preserves, rather than corrodes, the tissues; but this preservation is that of immutication rather than anything else; *fourth*, it is extremely beneficial in both lupus and eczema.

It is not necessary to say that the quantity of sulphuric acid which is contained in the saliva of a mollusk is not so great as that which is contained in the saliva of a mammal. The quantity of sulphuric acid which is contained in the saliva of a mollusk is not so great as that which is contained in the saliva of a mammal. The quantity of sulphuric acid which is contained in the saliva of a mollusk is not so great as that which is contained in the saliva of a mammal.

Sulphuric acid in the saliva of a mollusk.—From an examination of the saliva of a mollusk, Mr. Southall has found that it contains a large quantity of sulphuric acid. The quantity of sulphuric acid which is contained in the saliva of a mollusk is not so great as that which is contained in the saliva of a mammal.

100 grains of salivary matter	3.42
100 grains of salivary matter	0.2
100 grains of salivary matter	0.58
100 grains of salivary matter	4.8
Water	94.0
	100

Analysis of the stomach-contents.—Through the subject is largely a matter of course, yet we regret that many of our readers were unable to examine the stomach-contents of the well-known Mollusk. The quantity of sulphuric acid which is contained in the stomach-contents of a mollusk is not so great as that which is contained in the stomach-contents of a mammal.

Values of different specimens of jalap.—Mr. Southall, of Barnum's, has made an examination of an immense series of specimens of commercial jalap, and has demonstrated that the quality varies in the most extreme manner.

No.	Jalap	per cent.	Mark	per lb.
1	Jalap	12	08	34
2	Jalap	12	08	34
3	Jalap	51	08	107
4	Jalap	100	18	07
5	Jalap	309	18	07
6	Jalap	29	18	07
7	Jalap	173	18	07
8	Jalap	353	28	07
9	Jalap	27	28	07
10	Jalap	150	48	07
11	Jalap	173	48	07
12	Jalap	173	48	07
13	Jalap	129	48	07
14	Jalap	27	38	14
15	Jalap	204	18	07
16	Jalap	104	18	07

Mr. Schuller has made an examination of the relative comparative effects of the various salts of iron, and has found that the same results are obtained from the various salts of iron, and that the quantity of iron which is contained in the various salts of iron is not so great as that which is contained in the various salts of iron.

The nervous system.—Mr. Schuller has made an examination of the nervous system of a mollusk, and has found that it contains a large quantity of sulphuric acid. The quantity of sulphuric acid which is contained in the nervous system of a mollusk is not so great as that which is contained in the nervous system of a mammal.

The Mesothorium of a mollusk.—Mr. Schuller has made an examination of the mesothorium of a mollusk, and has found that it contains a large quantity of sulphuric acid. The quantity of sulphuric acid which is contained in the mesothorium of a mollusk is not so great as that which is contained in the mesothorium of a mammal.

The laciferous vessels of plants.—Mr. Schuller has made an examination of the laciferous vessels of plants, and has found that they contain a large quantity of sulphuric acid. The quantity of sulphuric acid which is contained in the laciferous vessels of plants is not so great as that which is contained in the laciferous vessels of animals.

Absorption of carbonic acid by the roots of plants.—It is often stated in text-books of botany that a large amount of carbonic acid is taken up by the roots of plants. Mr. Schuller has made an examination of the roots of plants, and has found that they do not absorb a large amount of carbonic acid.

The affinities of the Mesothorium.—Mr. Schuller has made an examination of the affinities of the mesothorium of a mollusk, and has found that it contains a large quantity of sulphuric acid. The quantity of sulphuric acid which is contained in the mesothorium of a mollusk is not so great as that which is contained in the mesothorium of a mammal.

A new microscope stand.—Dr. E. W. Schuller has devised a form of stand for a microscope, which will, we should think, be found very useful by those engaged in histological studies at night. The stand is simply a rectangular tray placed on three rollers, and carrying on a vertical rod the lamp which lights the mirror. When the mirror is arranged, the worker has no further trouble. When preparing a specimen, he can push the stand away, and when the specimen is ready for observation, he can pull over the microscope, and use it without further change of focus in the mirror, or adjustment of the position of the lamp.

Action of electricity on blood corpuscles.—In experimenting with strong electrical currents on the white corpuscles of the blood, Professor Newmann found that the electric current caused the corpuscles to swell out and become transparent. This, in some measure, is in accordance with Dr. C. B. Rich's theory of the action of muscular force, that the nervous or electric charge keeps the muscle on the stretch; but when the electricity is discharged, the natural tension of the tissue causes it to contract.

Effect of the constant electric current on the spinal cord.—In a recent article published by Herr Kunkel, it is stated that, in an experiment of N. G. V. von Graef, a constant current may be applied to the spinal cord, a constant current of 200,000, the cord. Herr Kunkel found that it was quite impossible to show reflex action in a frog during the time that a constant current was travelling along the spinal cord. It was found, however, that, though a strong constant current of 200,000 was produced by a constant current, it did not prevent the death of the animal. A weak current, however, did prevent the death of the animal. A weak current, however, did prevent the death of the animal.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

FURTHER REMARKS ON THE SO-CALLED CONTAGIOUS FEVER OF OUR INDIAN JAILS.

By DAVID B. SMITH, M.D.,

In Medical Charge of Mysore.

(Continued from Vol. III., No. 2, page 32.)

From what I have already written, it will be seen that I am quite prepared to admit the truth of the following propositions regarding this fever of our jails:—

- (A).—That it is contagious.
 (B).—That, consequently, it is capable of being imported into a jail from without.
 (C).—That quarantine ought *certainly* to be put in force where there appears to be any chance of such an occurrence.
 But, again, there are other considerations, even more important still, upon which I would particularly insist. They are the following:—

- (1).—That the disease described by Walker, Bateson, Gray, Wikelcy, De Roncy, and others, and so frequently alluded to in the Bengal Sanitary Reports as "the peculiar contagious fever of our jails," is simply the relapsing fever of Great Britain.
 (2).—That it is neither typhus, nor typhoid, nor yellow fever, nor malarious remittent, but a distinct and specific disease already known and recognized as such by the Medical Profession in every country.
 (3).—That we have good reason for saying that it sometimes originates *in situ* in our jails.
 (4).—That conditions of general privation and want did exist, to a great degree, in Upper India, concurrently with, or shortly previous to, the appearance of this epidemic. That the famine of 1860-61, and the comparative destitution prevailing for some years after, are fully capable of accounting indirectly for the appearance of the fever in question.
 (5).—That bad sanitary arrangements in matters of diet, space, ventilation, clothing, drainage, and the like, have much to say to its existence and spread; and that such insanitary conditions were not unknown in our jails at the time alluded to.
 (6).—That the title given to this disease by the Bengal Sanitary Commission, *viz.*, "the peculiar fever of our Indian jails," is vague, unscientific, and, in one sense, incorrect.
 (7).—That were the principles of nomenclature which have produced this title to be applied generally to the whole scope of medicine, we should very soon arrive at a stage of confusion in matters of scientific fact, so hopeless that even the most intellectual men of our profession could not easily undo the mischief thus effected.

First, then, as to this being specific relapsing fever. In my first paper I showed how exactly Dr. Walker's description of the disease, as observed at the Agra Jail in 1860, answered to that of relapsing fever, in its mode of invasion, the duration of the first paroxysm, the date and character of the relapse (or relapses), the symptoms and signs attending the crisis, and the very tedious convalescence. It may here be mentioned also that the complications and sequelæ of relapsing fever were accurately defined by Dr. Walker, *viz.*, jaundice, affections of the respiratory organs and of the bowels, congestion of internal organs, sudden syncope, hæmorrhages, muscular and arthritic pains, &c., &c. But the feature of the disease, which of all others most distinguished it from typhus was the early crisis, and intermission of all febrile symptoms. The patient rapidly got worse about the fifth day. But suddenly, "within a couple of hours," "either on the fifth, seventh, or ninth day," all his symptoms improved; "his face became quiet, relaxed, and

phoid;" "beyond weakness and a feeling of being bruised all over, he declared himself well." Nothing could be more graphically true than this description, by Dr. Walker, of relapsing fever; and inasmuch as it is correct in this respect, inasmuch does it fail to apply to typhus.

Let me now ask, how does Dr. Bateson describe the disease? Somewhat thus: "Shortly after a meal the patient's head began to swim and to ache; his head a three-blanket coldness," he had also distressing muscular pains, vomiting "of a green watery bile," (but never black vomit), great epigastric tenderness, constipation, enlargement of the liver, but no eruption on the skin. He was "listless, yet perfectly clear in his head;" jaundice appeared about the fourth day. "On the fifth day a critical sweating, or, less frequently, a diarrhoea, ushers in the beginning of convalescence." The "pulse falls, appetite is astonishing." "He is convalescent; cheerful that he has got over it; he is doing capitally." "So soon as the crisis, as soon as appetite began to come back, rush back! Convalescents were positively ravenous!" Instead of the old complaining about his muscles' pains or his joints' aches, it was "blackish, blackish; black lumps, sahils;—I am happier now." Later he was a relapse, when his illness "differs not much from the one you thought he had got over. His convalescence is prolonged. He thrives slowly, mending the gaudle of either a sloughing cornea, or an all but uncompromising flux." From being "almost a skin skeleton," he gradually becomes "something like a human being again." "Three-fifths of the cases relapsed, 79 indeed became so well that they had been discharged to the convalescent's ward or yard, but came back again, about the twelfth day from original seizure, as bad as ever. Of the 79, 15 came back a third time; had two relapses. We had prisoners who were ill with this very fever in 1864, and who were also taken with the same sickness during this epidemic." "The fatal cases occurred generally between the 4th and 7th day, fatal cases from sequelæ of course excepted." "Mend suddenly that you do not expect to die." "Quinine as a preventive is of no use whatever." "As in the epidemic of 1864, so in the present one, I recognize no other disease than the relapsing fever of authors." "The best help to the doctor is the kitchen."

I have abridged this account from Bateson, and so, to a certain degree, have done injustice to his description, but what I have reproduced conveys at least the important points at issue.

The picture of the disease found in Dr. Gray's Report is even more minute in detail than Bateson's. From the first sudden giddiness and rigor, to the destitution, at last, of the general anatomical lesions observed after death, there is really *nothing* wanting to establish, beyond all doubt, the identity of true relapsing fever. The countenance, the pulse, the tongue, the skin, "the absence of all eruption," the thirst, the character of the respiratory movements, the state of the nervous and muscular systems, the condition of the internal organs, the occurrence of death from sudden collapse, the complications of pneumonia, enlarged liver and spleen, jaundice, epistaxis, diarrhoea, dysentery, post-furæ ophthalmia, glandular inflammation, partial paralysis, tedious convalescence, severe arthritic pains without effusion into the joints, and the absence of lesion of Peyer's patches, all establish the fact of the disease being relapsing fever with almost as great certainty as the early crisis itself, followed by a voracious appetite, the critical copious perspiration and intestinal flux, and the three or even four recurrences of relapse, "which were not to be warded off by quinine." Here is Dr. Gray's sketch of his patient about the sixth or seventh day:—"With the exception of a general feeling of weakness and pain in the limbs, joints, or muscles, the patient now expressed himself well; and his appetite had gone, which was not invariably the case, it returned, and he was clamorous for food. In this state of apparent convalescence he would remain for several days (from four to eight or more), when all the original symptoms

At page 16 of the same Report the Sanitary Commission write as follows:—"Because the disease resembles the *famine fever of Europe* in many important particulars, (the italics are mine) it by no means follows that it has been originated among the prisoners by insufficient food and other bad sanitary conditions." Shortly before this quotation we also find the following:—"Three years ago Dr. Gray, in describing the fever as it occurred among the prisoners of the Lahore jail, pointed out its striking resemblance to many particulars (the italics are again mine) of the 'relapsing' or 'famine fever' of Europe. In support of this view of the case nothing new has since been advanced." I am perfectly ready to allow the truth of this statement. *What more*, in the name of reason, is required? Was this malady that has been described by so many competent writers as relapsing fever really not the disease ad al. but typhus or yellow fever, or malarious remittent, or typhoid, or something entirely different? It seems ludicrous to speculate further. Leave my readers to draw their own conclusions whether or not, in its symptoms, in its course, complications, sequelæ, morbid anatomy, and general history, it can reasonably be said that the disease above alluded to was other than true relapsing fever. Surely I have given above no conjectural or speculative evidence. I have purposely abstained from bringing forward any theory of my own. I have simply alluded, as far as lay in my power, from the writings of others, the irrefragable proofs of the truth of the opinion which I hold. Why, it may be asked, should the Sanitary Commission be so loath to allow that this is simply relapsing fever? Is it because the greatest authority, perhaps, on the subject writes—"Relapsing fever is the accompaniment of poverty and destitution?" (*McChesnon*). The Commission do not really call to mind that destruction is in any way an element or factor in the production of this disease. Hence, perhaps, their reluctance admit its relapsing character. By the Commission the disease has already been set down as typhus, and this only two years ago. How, then, it may reasonably be asked, can it possibly, in so short a time, have become quite another disease? In the 2nd Bengal Sanitary Report it is authoritatively laid down that this is typhus, and consequently typhus it must remain to the end of the chapter. He who will say that it is relapsing fever will be met by the Stoical rebuke—"Christippus non docet alium!" Under such circumstances, it has happily been remarked how natural and reasonable is it for us to say:—"We greatly esteem Chryssippus, yet we respectfully differ from him on this point." The medical logic of the present day is fortunately regulated by no Stoical maxims. It is amazing to me how the Sanitary Commission, or any impartial judges of the facts above cited, can for one moment hesitate to allow that here we have genuine relapsing fever. It is true that the reluctance displayed by some men to see things in their true light is sometimes marvellous. The reasonings, on this subject, of the Bengal Sanitary Commission instinctively remind me of the conduct of the modern disciples of Aristotle, when, from the top of the tower of Pisa, Galileo proved to demonstration (by the *scintillations* fall of bodies of different weight falling on the pavement) that the rapidity of descent of such falling bodies is *not* in direct proportion to their weight. The Aristotelians could not but be and see the proofs, yet were they unconvincing, because Aristotle, nearly 2,000 years before, had propounded a different doctrine. It has been forcibly said that "some men are degenerated in the mist of ignorance, and often seek light in the midst of knowledge." I only hope that this cannot fairly be asserted of the Bengal Sanitary Commission.

Secondly, I pass on to the proofs of this being a *specific* disease different from typhus, typhoid, yellow fever, and malarious remittent.

The low remittent fever of this country, however severe it may be in its attack, has never, so far as I know, been declared to be contagious, its remissions distinct, and its attacks exacer-

bations, more or less regular diurnally. The *most* paludal fever is the *least* likely to present us with a sudden and perfect intermission lasting several days; nor do we in such cases ever remark the other features of regular crisis and of regular relapse on distant yet determinate days. It is the opinion of the Sanitary Commission that this contagious fever of our jails is the same as the epidemic fever which has, of late years, been devastating the villages of Lower Bengal. I think a careful consideration of the true characters of the latter disease will at once entirely separate it from the relapsing fever of our jails. It may be remembered that in the beginning of 1864 His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal deputed a Commission to prosecute the fever-stricken districts to enquire into and to report on the causes of the epidemic, its course, and the best means of checking its further progress. This Commission consisted of men particularly well qualified for such an enquiry. Dr. F. Anderson, Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals, was the President, and the Members were Dr. Charles Palmer, President Surgeon; Dr. J. Elliot, Civil Assistant Surgeon; Mr. D. J. McNeill; and Bhabo Deamber Mitter. No better selection of men could I have been made by the Government for such an object. They went to the districts of Burdwan, Hooghly, Nudda, and the 24 Pargannas; they visited and carefully inspected many villages in those districts. What did they discover? Did they report that they had come upon "a very peculiar contagious fever," dependent on an animal poison, like that so much dwelt on by the Sanitary Commission? On the contrary, they describe a locally remittent prevailing in the low, ill-ventilated villages lying along fertile river nullahs and half-stagnant rivers, such as the Bonga Nullah, the Upper Nologongra, the Bhoirab, and the Chitra. We are told that when the disease becomes chronic it assumes an intermittent type, and that, in almost all such cases, "enlargement of the spleen, anasarca, and a general œdematous and emaciated condition exist." It is said to be identical with the remittent fever of the inundated east-river districts. The disease reached its height in August, September, and October. "By the end of December, almost complete cessation has taken place." The tract of country suffering from the epidemic was a *most* malarious one, remarkable, during the worst fever months, for a soil saturated with moisture, and, at all times of the year, for a dense drainage. The infected villages were surrounded by the most dense foliage, through which the sun's rays scarcely penetrate; the atmosphere around is described as being perceptibly damp and heavy; the villages are surrounded by large holes in the ground (the result of excavations made for building purposes). There are also old neglected tanks around. From these filthy sources the people obtain their drinking water. Vegetable composition, however, is not the only abolition in their diet with. The Commission tell us that "in the Maimoolin quarters of villages the dead are constantly buried on the very borders of the tanks," and that in the case of the Hindoos, in times of prevalent disease, only a few bodies are effectually destroyed by cremation, the half-burnt remains being "simply thrown away, without funeral rites of any kind, into nullahs and rivers." Sometimes corpses are simply cast out in any direction, and thus, we are told, the air is polluted for miles with the foulest effluvia. The disease attacked all classes, rich and poor, young and old, indiscriminately. The first and chief cause of the disease was found to be *anarca*, which in those districts arises on all sides from the vast accumulations of decaying vegetable matter which completely encruds the ground, and daily, but chiefly at night, emits the most deadly vapours. In point of fact, the Report of the Commission (which is minute and careful throughout) unequivocally establishes the fact that the epidemic fever of Lower Bengal was simply a "maligno-remittent" caused by malaria, coupled, as might be expected, with many other insanitary conditions. We are told that in some rare instances children of fever-stricken mothers, delivered at the full term, were born with enlarged spleens! But the most

attaching to this subject, it is surely at all times of unquestionable importance to distinguish between the different species and varieties of disease; and this not even so much with the object of accurate diagnosis, as for the carrying out of a rational and successful mode of treatment.

In the face of all the facts which I have above alluded to, the Sanitary Commission, whilst they admit the similarity between famine fever and the epidemic of our jails, declare "it must also be borne in mind that there are also important differences, and among them the much more fatal character of the Indian fever is specially noticeable." The important differences thus alluded to are not even enumerated. This *hint* of their existence is all that has been thrown out by the Commission. The greater fatality attending a disease in one country as compared with another may indeed be called an "important difference," but it can by no means be fairly said, on that account, to alter the specific character of the disease, wherever it may prevail. The fatality resulting from dysentery, as it occurs at Dinapore, is very much greater than the fatality attending dysentery as it is observed in Dublin; yet it would scarcely be logical to argue that the dysentery of the Irish Capital and of the Bengal Station is not specifically one and the same disease. During the year 1866, in the Jail Hospital at Chyebassa, the fatality of cholera amounted to 368·42 per 1,000 of average strength, whilst, during the same year, the mortality from cholera in the prison at Sooree was only 2·68 per 1,000; but who would for a moment dream of saying that, because the fatality was comparatively so very high at Chyebassa, it was caused by a cholera specifically different from that observed at Sooree? If comparative fatality is in any way to regulate the nomenclature of disease, the appellations accepted in medicine to-day might at any time reasonably be altered, *ad libitum*, according to geographical position, season, temperature, and the like. It is further to be observed that the complication of *jaundice* is very generally met with in the relapsing fever of our jails, whilst it was present in a much smaller proportion of cases in the epidemics of Europe; and that, in 1843, Ormaek, Craigie, and Alison considered *this complication as characteristic of the most malignant cases*. The excessive mortality that occurred at Lahore, Mooltan, and other places can also, to a great degree, be accounted for by collateral circumstances. We know that in the Central Prison at Lahore, immediately before the outbreak of relapsing fever, a very severe type of malarious fever had been prevailing, which had the general effect of greatly weakening the prisoners, and of rendering them obnoxious to attacks of any subsequent disease. Again, we have it on the authority of the Inspector General of Prisons of the Punjab that when this fever was about to appear at Mooltan, the jail there was (to use the exact words of Dr. Dallas) "ripe for the spread of epidemic disease; and it is quite a question for argument whether it was not in a condition to generate an epidemic as suggested by Dr. De Renzi."

I shall a little further on give a true picture of the Mooltan jail as it then existed. This may prove an instructive sketch, in relation to those conditions under which hundreds of prisoners laboured, who, not once, but frequently, have been described by Jail Superintendents as succumbing to relapsing fever, with the following words almost on their lips:—" *Bhookha, bhookha; bhok lagta, sahib*,"—*I am hungry now*.

(To be continued.)

ON THE PATHOLOGY OF HEPATIC ABSCESS, RESULTING FROM DYSENTERY.

By JOHN F. FOSTER,

Assistant Surgeon, 35th Regiment.

IN applying the theory of thrombosis to the production, through the medium of the portal system, of liver-abscess, the

first point that strikes one is the anatomical peculiarities of the hepatic circulation, which render any arguments by analogy to other parts totally inadmissible. All other secreting or excreting glands are at once nourished by, and draw their secretions from, the same system of vessels, but the liver possesses two sets of vessels conveying different qualities of blood,—the arterial for its nourishment alone, and the venous for its proper functional manipulation.

These two supplies unite in the capillary plexus surrounding the lobules, which consequently receive their blood from both artery and vein. "The precise mode in which the blood is poured into the veins (from the artery) has been a subject of great dispute, but I have many preparations which show that the blood is poured into the portal capillaries near the circumference of the lobule, as Kiernan long ago inferred, and not into those near the centre."*

If the circulation through the portal vein be arrested, the organ is in this condition: its *nourishment* is unimpaired, but its *function* is entirely suspended, and with this state analogies can readily be found in almost any portion of the body. Now, what is the result to a muscle if this state of things exists? It becomes *atrophied*, but never *saparrates*. Tie the *vas deferens*, and the testicle will rapidly dwindle away to a small and useless mass. Occlusion of a ureter produces atrophy of the kidney from which it arises. By analogy, therefore, the liver should become atrophied, but should *not saparrate*, and this is found to be the case.

Dr. Budd gives an instance in which the main trunk of the portal vein was occluded. Death did not occur for one month, and was caused by the constant intestinal hemorrhage. The liver was then only the size of "two fists," and quite free from abscesses. Several other cases of a similar nature are recorded. In the same way, if branches of the vein are obliterated, the parts supplied by them become atrophied. "Three such cases are given by Dr. Budd, † who remarks upon them: "It appears then that obliteration of branches of the portal vein causes *complete atrophy* of those parts of the liver which the obstructed branches supplied."

In cirrhosis, the effused lymph "in contracting compresses the portal veins, and impedes the passage of the blood to the secreting substance of the liver, diminishing its vascularity, and consequently its bulk. Many small branches of the portal vein it entirely obliterates, and by so doing causes *complete atrophy of the portions of the liver which these branches supplied*." ‡ But "abscesses are never found in the *lob-nut* livers of the gin-drinking population of our large towns." §

It is therefore evident that a thrombus cannot produce an abscess in the liver by simply arresting the portal circulation through any number of its lobules. If embolism does cause suppuration, it must be by some other means, that is to say, the embolus must contain within itself septic or pus-producing properties. But if so, the abscess would originate at the point at which the vein was occluded. This is not the case, the small purulent depôts, consequent upon dysenteric ulceration of the bowels, when seen at an early stage of their development, are found to originate in the capillary plexus *within the lobules*,—a position which would be utterly impossible for any clot to reach. For it must be remembered that peripheral venous thrombi, while travelling from small into larger vessels, will increase in size by the adhesion of other blood corpuscles; and when the channel becomes again narrowed, as in the portal veins, without the intervention of the disturbing power of the aneurical cavities of the heart, (which, by causing a sudden rush of the

* Beale on the "Microscope in its application to Practical Medicine," 2nd Ed., p. 205.

† Budd's "Diseases of the Liver," 3rd Ed., p. 142.

‡ Ditto ditto ditto, ditto, p. 144.

§ Ditto ditto ditto, ditto, p. 196.

tution. In these days a man's opinions are not permitted to remain *in statera*; the teaching of one year is *obliterated* within a decade; and if one wishes to make or retain his professional reputation, he must either follow the rapid stream of novelty, or cut an equally new channel for himself.

While I lacknowledge, then, the general correctness of these theses, I have ventured to deny their applicability to the causation of hepatic abscess as connected with dysentery; and by so doing I have imposed upon myself the task of finding some new and plausible explanation of their occurrence.

This is a point which I have had so much diffidence in approaching, that my previous writings have doubtless led to the idea that I contained the old opinions with regard to the pathology of pyæmia. And herein lies my quandary—Which is better—to remain under the imputation of holding obsolete notions, or to advance a new hypothesis that may possibly be disproved or rejected as improbable? I have hesitated, but am now resolved to adopt the latter course, although my views are at present crude and unsupported by any direct proof.

The "pus-tular form of dysentery" has been described by Murray, who I have had that papules, afterwards becoming pustules, formed on the inner coat of the bowel. Whether he is right in supposing this to be an eruptive disease, I will not stop to enquire, as it is foreign to my subject. I believe that he is wrong; but I wish to draw attention to the fact of his having described the existence of collections of *pus beneath* the mucous membrane.

"After the formation of sub-mucous abscess" is an expression used by Dr. Aitken, when he describes the various causes that lead to dysentery; and, further on, he remarks that "the abscess presents prominent little masses about the size of a pea, which burst readily on pressure, and give forth fluid contents like pus." This form of lesion is especially notable in Indian dysentery, and it is with Indian dysentery that hepatic complications seem most frequently observed.

I believe, therefore, that there are at least two methods by which *pus* (puscles) may be readily conveyed into the circulation:—

Firstly, by the extension of ulceration upon the inner coat of the veins; and,

Secondly, and perhaps more commonly, by the *injection of purulent fluid by the distended walls of the destroyed solitary glands*, when the small veins beneath them become encased by disease.

In support of the second assertion, which will probably appear startling, I rely upon two facts constantly observed in the dead-house—so-called sub-mucous ulceration and sub-mucous hæmorrhage.

The sub-mucous ulceration begins in the solitary glands, which are often enlarged to the size of split peas, and contain pus-cells.

The sub-mucous hæmorrhage proves that veins are opened before the inner surface of the bowel is destroyed.

If a vein is opened within a distended solitary gland, the elasticity of the walls of the gland, which is really a minute abscess, will have greater power at first than the flow of the blood, and its contents will consequently enter the vein, instead of the blood entering it. After the distension is relieved, the ordinary hæmorrhage will occur; but by that time the mischief will have been done. It will be very difficult to demonstrate this, perhaps impossible; but if I can do so, I will make it the subject of another communication.

And now, having expounded my *Hypotheses*, this paper may fitly be brought to a conclusion.

ON A NEW CLASS AND DEMONSTRATING MICROSCOPE.

By HENRY LAWSON, M.D., M.R.C.P.E.,

Professor of Histology in St. Mary's Hospital, London.

THE microscope whose two forms are represented in figures



Fig. 1.

1 and 2 is one which has recently been constructed, at my suggestion, by Mr. Charles Collins, the Optician of Great Field-street; and may, I think, be found useful by those engaged in teaching microscopic anatomy. The old method of lecturing upon diagrams, and exhibiting specimens under the microscope after lectures, has these two serious objections: 1st, a large number of microscopes must be employed; and, 2^{ndly}, the students, in clustering round the instrument, push and jostle each other, and thus earnest workers, anxious to observe, are prevented giving the necessary attention to the object under observation by the ill-

black sheep* which, unfortunately, every class possesses. I find it necessary, therefore, to hand the microscope during lecture to the student nearest to me, who in his turn passes it to his neighbour, and thus, while I am describing a particular tissue, the students are enabled to follow the account which I give

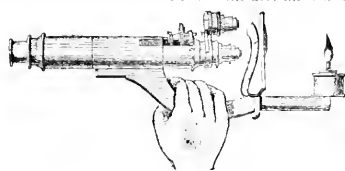


Fig. 2.

them. I find that, on the average, I exhibit eight or nine specimens in each lecture, and therefore the system of using hand microscopes seems to me to work very well, and to result in driving ideas into a greater number of heads than could be done on the old plan. This plan of using hand microscopes is by no means original, as far as I am concerned. It was tried some years since, and with success, by Dr. Lionel Beale. What I wish to convey to your readers is that I have devised a method by which the ordinary microscope, which are employed in actual work in a medical school, may be easily converted into demonstrating microscopes. The instrument figured above may therefore be styled a "convertible microscope." In figure 1 it is seen as used in research, and in figure 2 as employed in demonstrating to a class. Its peculiarity is this—the leg of the instrument, the part intervening between the stage and the solid circular foot, is really double, being composed of a solid brass stem which slides within a tube. This tube is fixed by a knuckle-point to the circular foot, and carries the mirror. When the microscope is wanted for demonstrative purposes, it is simply drawn out from the tube, thus leaving the foot and mirror behind, and a tube bearing a small lamp filled with codia oil is slid over the leg. The microscope then has the form represented in figure 2. This instrument is supplied with two good objectives, an inch and a quarter inch, which are fixed in a double nose-piece; its coarse adjustment is telescopic, the fine adjustment being regulated by the usual screw. In this form, with plain stage and single eye-piece, it is sold by Mr. Collins at the extremely moderate price of four pounds ten shillings, and is, I think it will be admitted

* Aitken on the "Science and Practice of Medicine," 2nd Ed., Vol. I, p. 602.

by those who examine it, the cheapest means are yet made. There is nothing of the toy about it, its magnifying powers are not above 300 diameters, and it is provided with but a single mirror; but it is, nevertheless, an instrument which may be used with advantage by the student, and which, no doubt, may be made, like Galvani's last of travelers, "a double debt to pay." We have several of them in use at St. Mary's. When not employed in the lecture, they are arranged as in figure 1, and are then used by the students in the Histological Laboratory.

ON THE DILUTION OF VACCINE LYMPH WITH GLYCERINE AND THE MULTIPLICATION AND PRESERVATION OF THE VIRUS THEREBY.

By ROBERT HENRY, M.B.

(*Lancet*, Oct. 28, 1884, p. 712, &c.)

MEDICAL SCIENCE, in India, is not a few things crumpled up, and done a more than usual result for good than vaccination. Smallpox, the disease to which, once eradicated, finds in the improved air and general insular conditions of native dwellings the fitting means in which it multiplies itself a hundredfold, gives itself up to the mercy of the most violent fever, and by its ravages causes great agony. There have been towns where it has inspired such a terror that thousands have fled before it. The remedy of such visitations does not readily give itself, and there is probably no case of cholera is a doubtful exception, of which there is a greater dread in India.

Such being the case, it may appear a matter of surprise that any difficulty should be made about the reception of vaccination, especially when there would be, were the people thoroughly convinced of its prophylactic power, the superstitious reverence of "S. that" the deities would enjoin, the dislike of innovation, the vested rights of ignorance, and interested speculators, and other causes which now impede the work, would yield at once, as readily during the prevalence of smallpox, if the people only truly believed, instead of positively ignoring, as they occasionally do, the truth that in vaccination they have an almost unalloyed remedy against their enemy, and one which, when it has not already prevented, is a fatal to what it fails its dangers and terrors. It is encouraging to know, as is shown year by year in the various vaccination reports, that old prejudices are gradually giving way, and the benefits of the prophylactic becoming more generally known and believed in; but non-pecuniary motives are still met with, and there is as yet too little *veritas* power to make the people adopt the only mode by which their rights may be secured to all, that, namely, of speaking at once to themselves, independently of the efforts of Government, which, not only can afford protection to only a comparatively small number of the millions of India. It would be an interesting and somewhat delicate inquiry to discover to what extent, and in what proper manner, each of the opposing causes mentioned, as well as action, one whether there may not be others in operation. But, as an appropriate question whether doubtful and unproven experiments, not a rational source of distrust. The remedy is, therefore, a double one, with distinctness between a curable virus and a cure produced by an aborted pox. An operation, however, to be undertaken, this much he knows. If it should follow, it is to experiment to discriminate between the success and the failure of the cure, and his faith of he ever had any in the prophylactic, will, at vaccination, his belief in the statement made to him by the authorities, receive a rational check from which they may never recover, and which he is not unlikely to communicate to others. While every additional successful cure gives vaccination a new hold upon the people, and a check upon the prejudices that exist in the mind of

an epidemic, leads them to believe in and appreciate it, it must be borne in mind that every doubtful or unsuccessful case upon which smallpox supervenes, tends to a directly opposite result. Keeping this in view, and having regard also to the fact, as mentioned, that the vaccinating of any but a very small proportion of the population is impossible by the direct action of Government, it follows that the main object to be aimed at is not so much large numbers of operations as a high percentage of success—a percentage which shall reduce the failures to a minimum. What the attainable standard may be in the plains of India, it is difficult to say. "In England," says one of the first and most experienced authorities on the subject, Mr. Mason, "with good lymph and the observation of all proper precautions, an experienced vaccinator should not fail of success in his attempts to vaccinate above one in 100 times." It is not likely that such a standard will be reached in India, even in the hills. The frequent failures at the beginning and end of each season from atmospheric causes, the substitution in many cases of crusts for fresh lymph, the ignorance and evil senses of parents in allowing the vesicles to be rubbed and destroyed, the prevalence of skin diseases, the practice of applying drugs to the arms of those vaccinated, and consequently the insurrection of the vaccinees themselves, or their operating on children who have previously been vaccinated, and small pox, from various causes, as their nature, combine to swell the number of failures, and prevent a very high standard from being reached. There can be no reasonable doubt, however, that the *possibility* of success has not yet been attained, and as every suggestion which can contribute to the success of, or to render the practice of vaccination more of a sure value, I make no apology for offering to the profession some remarks on the subject, which forms the title of this paper.

The object of applying the well-known solvent and antiseptic properties of glycerine to the preservation of lymph is no new one. Several years ago Dr. Stille, of Philadelphia, in his "Essent of Materia Medica and Therapeutics," quotes the authority of a writer in, I think, the *Medical Times*, of 1847, that glycerine will "not only multiply and preserve for use, but that the scales formed by the pox virus may be so by means of glycerine." More recently the subject has been taken up by M. Muller, Director of the Vaccine Institute of Berlin, and by Dr. Kappeler, of Vienna. The results of their observations may be found in the *Medical Times and Gazette*, and are briefly as follows.

By diluting the vaccine virus with a mixture of glycerine and distilled water, the lymph is increased in quantity, while its tendency to degeneration is prevented. The vesicles produced by the diluted virus are as large and as perfect, run the same course, and yield as much lymph as when the operations are performed with the purest matter. The vaccinating material may be multiplied ten or twenty-fold without deterioration, thus enabling a large number of persons to be vaccinated on an emergency, when only an small quantity of the pure lymph may be available. The mode of procedure is very simple. The lymph from a vesicle on a new eight days old is collected on a cambric hair pencil, or towed glass, and is then mixed with a solution containing equal parts of glycerine and distilled water, after which it is ready for use, and may be stored between glasses or in cardboard tubes, provided the latter place of the lymph

* *Medical Times and Gazette*, Vol. XXXVI.

† *Lancet*, 1846, p. 685. See also references to this passage, and that I cannot do more than accept of Dr. Stille's belief.

‡ *Medical Times and Gazette*, 11th September, 1857, pp. 225, 226.

be intended for preservation. The diluted lymph, from its lessened vitality, flows into the tubes more readily than the natural virus, and there is less chance of admixture with air, while that stored between glasses, instead of drying up in a few hours as does lymph collected in the ordinary way, and requiring to be moistened or mixed with water before it can be used, retains its fluidity unimpaired for months, thus saving much trouble and delay. This mode of storing the lymph between glass slips is that favoured by Dr. Kipp, who says that "it has been preserved for four months in a room, and yet proved quite as efficacious in producing pustules as natural lymph." When fresh lymph is not available, a solution of the crusts in glycerine is found to answer well. This plan seems to be employed to some extent in America, where vaccination from the crust is much more common than in Europe. Crusts are to be used at all, it is a great improvement on the common plan of powdering a crust *pro re nata*, and mixing it with water,—a proceeding that has to be continually renewed, and which is both dirty and troublesome. I have myself found a solution of fresh crusts, stored in a small stoppered bottle, to answer fairly well during the present season. It has not succeeded indeed in every instance, and will not bear comparison with fresh lymph, either pure or diluted, but it is quite as successful as the crusts alone, and has the advantage of them in cleanliness and facility of application.

It will be seen from the above summary that the practice has several advantages to recommend it to the notice of Indian Surgeons. One of the most manifest of these is the power of multiplying lymph at the beginning of the short season, in which alone operations can be successfully carried on in the plains, and where large numbers of operators have to be supplied within a few days of each other. plentiful as may the supplies furnished by the establishments in the hills, there are probably many men who have experienced the inconvenience of an insufficiency of lymph at the commencement of the season. In one season Bhujpore much shorter than was last November, 1866, owing to the failure of the first supply, it is not on twelve days necessarily elapsed before more could be obtained, and a further delay ensued before that was sufficiently multiplied to start the work fairly at the ten centres from which operations were carried on. The same very truly happened this season. A number of tubes and points received early in October from the Native Vaccine Institution, as well as some crusts from the Superintendent of Rajpootana Dispensary at Mount Abu, filled in every instance from being used too early. Further, as the crusts, received here in the month produced no satisfactory results, for though pustules were produced in many cases, which warranted their name as "successful," they were not of a good nature, regular, or could have withstood the test of a second trial. Several specimens from England, however, were used successfully in the ordinary way, thus obtaining a fair amount of the contents of their vial during four weeks, and during a week, they in the diluted glycerine, and produced excellent material for the vaccination. It is, therefore, to be expected that if these were used in the ordinary way, a fair supply would not have been wanted. There were, however, specimens large and small, with well-marked and even a few well-lymphed crusts from them in store. If the subsequent operations have been conducted on the same principles, as usual, I have no objection to experiment and to hold the result, which, if the disease was not carried to the point of the *Medico-Topical* (London), in May, 1866, it is strange that the results have been found to be certain when diluted more than twenty times. There is, therefore,

times, they are always certain." This must, I believe, be decided with some reservation as regards India. It is difficult to measure the exact amount of the dilution; but it has seemed to me, from a good many experiments with different strengths of diluted lymph, that the amount of the diluent added should not exceed the quantity of lymph in a greater proportion than five to one. This refers chiefly, however, to lymph stored in tubes received from England, and at least two months old. With perfectly fresh lymph, a further dilution might very likely succeed, but I have not as yet been able to fill tubes with fresh lymph from the arm, as no facilities for doing so exist in bazars and bylanes of native towns and villages. Latterly, too, I have almost abandoned the use of tubes, owing to objection having been taken to my emptying them by blowing through them. I now use glass slips, about an inch square, in the manner recommended by Dr. Kipp. Having punctured a selected vesicle, a small quantity of the lymph which exudes is taken off by lightly touching it with one of the glasses. A drop or two of the diluted glycerine is then added, and mixture collected by rubbing the glasses together for a few seconds. Lymph thus prepared will keep quite fresh and good for a long time. I have some seven weeks old which succeeded perfectly in a case vaccinated with it on the 4th inst., and is still to all appearance quite good. The glasses separate readily by sliding one over the other, and retain sufficient matter between them to vaccinate two or three children. This mode of collecting the virus seems to me to have many advantages over most others. It can be done with almost equal vaccination, but when this is impossible, or when lymph has to be carried over some distance, it is cleaner, more certain, and keeps fresh longer than crusts; and there is no difficulty in preparing it, as there often is in the crusts, which is quite free from all objection on the score of cost.

How long the virus thus prepared will retain its activity, I can not yet in a position to say; but looking to the fact that I used preservative powders of glycine, and to the fact that Dr. Kipp found it to produce perfect pustules after it had been kept four months in a heat of 60°, I have every hope that it will be found fresh and good after a long period. It would perhaps be somewhat surprising that it should be able to survive an unusual summer; but I purpose trying whether it cannot be preserved drier, and to have the beginning of next season. I have, I confess, but small hopes of success, but the experiment is worth trying, as, should it succeed, an unlimited supply of lymph will henceforth be available to the stations during the operations. It is, of course, however, to speculate on what at present is purely hypothetical.

The fact remains that, though it may fail in saving the lymph for the distant use of vaccinated lymph, as stored in the tubes of glass, and sealed up, it is a matter which a supply of matter have to be made in the country. Crusts are not to be trusted to afford satisfactory results in this state, and hence I have, merely as a trial, the vaccination of a large number of soldiers. Last season we had 7274 per cent. of a good result. Four months ago, on the 24th December, 1867, we had 70 per cent. of a good result. On the 1st of the 87, 12 per cent. of a good result. I can not substitute a list of fresh lymph, or a list of the various points, and so on, over next morning or the next day. It is, however, sufficient to show that the results are not so good as they were, and that the extensive vaccination of the army will not be any of our satisfactory results. It is, however, sufficient to show that the results are not so good as they were, and that the extensive vaccination of the army will not be any of our satisfactory results. It is, however, sufficient to show that the results are not so good as they were, and that the extensive vaccination of the army will not be any of our satisfactory results.

* *Medical Times and Gazette*, No. 839, 21st September, 1867, p. 486; *Sanitary Reviewer*, 16th August 1868, p. 167.

although I did not realize its importance in this respect when first I received it.

When the said note came to me, I was just preparing to go out and make some rather urgent professional visits. My diary shows that I did then go out, and that I paid five visits. On my return I found Mr. — at my house, awaiting my return. He told me that Mr. — had apparently lost his senses, and that he was wandering about in an unaccountable manner. I shortly went to see him, and found him in a very peculiar state. His face was somewhat purple in colour; the eyes were bright; the pupils were greatly dilated, and insensible to the action of light. His pulse was tolerably natural, as regards frequency and strength. He wandered about in a confused state, rubbing his eyebrows, rubbing his hands, and complaining of cold and numbness down the right side of his body. He went from room to room, and showed an inclination to wander outside. His daughter led him about, and prevented his going out of doors. Inattending to converse with me, he spoke incoherent nonsense. Looking out of the window, he suddenly remarked, with a pleased but startled expression, "See, Doctor, there is snow on the ground." I said "Oh, no, Mr. —, there is no snow there; it is sunlight you see." On which he replied with an air of confusion and disappointment, "Oh! sunlight, is it? I thought it was snow!" and immediately he rambled incoherently regarding other matters.

I went to an adjoining room to write a prescription for him, and to do so, I sat down at his writing table. He tried to follow me from the room where I had left him. I went up to him and said "Don't you come out of that room; it is too cold for you here." I thus tried to induce him to keep quietly where he was; but almost immediately he reappeared, led by his daughter; and he came up to the writing table where I was seated, and I began touching various objects without any definite object. He looked towards the peg-boxes above the writing table, while he had private papers; he fumbled in the direction of these, but took nothing out of them. His gait was peculiar, and he walked in a sort of stately manner, mumbling to himself. He appeared in a feeble and irritable state. He was to the least violent.

I was considerably perplexed at his condition, and I now, for the first time, began to think there was something very peculiar indeed about him. Still I had no reason to suspect *food poisoning*; and whilst I felt that I did not comprehend his case, I was afraid that from one cause or another, his symptoms might be preliminary of a paralytic attack. Accordingly I came home and gave Mr. O.K. directions to go again in the evening and apply a blister to the nape of the neck, and to give a pill containing 1/4 of a grain of strychnia three times a day.

I ought here to mention that now it was that my suspicions began very rapidly to be aroused. Mr. —, when he was with me on the morning of the 5th instant, had told me that Mrs. — and he did not *love* *anymore* *together*; that he desired to be legally separated from her, but that he could not effect his wish in this respect; that he felt sure a sea voyage would cure him of his dyspeptic attacks, but that he could not go away and entrust Mrs. — with the care of his children, and that this it was that caused him excessive mental anxiety which I readily negated, as it did not produce, his attacks of dyspepsia and depression.

On my return from seeing Mr. — on the 7th instant, I recovered his note from my waste-paper basket, and I thought anxiously over it.

As I returned from seeing Mr. — that day (the 7th), I met Major —, who asked me what was the matter with Mr. —. I at first somewhat evaded the question. Major — said, "Is it a stroke-like he is suffering from?" I replied, still trying to be somewhat evasive, "Yes, something of that sort." He (Major —), then probably detecting from my manner that I did not altogether mean what I said, explained to me that he took a friendly interest in Mr. —, and that one of Mr. —'s servants had just been telling him, Major —, that he suspected Mr. — had had some poison administered to him.

I then at once told Major — that, under the circumstances, I was much obliged to him for mentioning the fact to me; that I did consider Mr. —'s symptoms very peculiar; and that if any poison had been administered to him, it was probably *strychnia*.

The following day, November 8th, I again went to see Mr. —, and found him lying on a couch perfectly senile, but weak, and still somewhat confused and unlike himself. I then pres-

cribed a mixture to act on the kidneys, and directed that the strychnia pills should be discontinued.

On Sunday, the 10th, I received the note marked No. 2 from Mr. —, in which he still complained of "dizziness of the mouth and throat."

This note is herewith forwarded, in original. On the 13th November, Mr. — came to my house and talked the whole matter over. He then for the first time told me that he felt convinced he must have been poisoned. He stated that he believed that poison had been administered to him. He could not recall dates. But consulting his somewhat vague recollections of facts with notes in my diary regarding my visits to his house, I inferred that the first occasion was on the evening of the 1st November, in his tea; the 2nd on the evening of the 6th, in his soup; the 3rd on the morning of the 7th, in his coffee; and the 4th occasion he was not so certain about. On Sunday, the 10th, however, he still experienced dizziness of the mouth and throat, and otherwise felt peculiar sensations; but he stated that he could not be sure that on that day poison was administered to him. He said he thought it possible that his sensations then experienced were merely the after-effects of previous doses of poison.

Mr. — told me that the tea and cocoa (which he drank on the evening of 1st, and the morning of the 7th respectively) had "a *very muddy flavour, like that of burnt milk*," and that he noted it and complained of this at the time.

He said that the soup he took (on the evening of the 6th) "had a *distinctly bitter taste*;" and that he also remarked this and complained of it at the time.

He told me that, shortly after taking both the soup (on the 6th) and the cocoa (on the morning of the 7th), he lost all recollection of what happened around him. Meanwhile, however, he experienced a feeling of intoxication and giddiness, difficulty in swallowing, a confusion of ideas, a coldness and numbness of the surface, a prickling sensation in the nose, and an irresistible inclination to rub the nose violently. He had also consecutive twitching of the legs after taking the soup. He had no fever and no vomiting, but considerable drowsiness.

When I saw him his most suspicious symptoms were: dizziness of the tongue and throat; frequent coughing; attempts to hawk and spit; widely dilated pupils, insensible to light; indistinctness of vision; seeing imaginary objects (such as snow on the ground); haziness and confusion of objects, as if everything were badly focused; a sensation as if smoke or fog were rising around him; purple colour of face; puffiness of the eyelids; cold surface; feeble, staggering gait; restlessness; inclination to roam from room to room, and to wander out of doors, as if in search of something.

The moment he touched any object, he at once went off in the same unaccountable manner towards some other object at a distance. Whilst he did this, he was mumbling to himself; and as he was supported and led about by his daughter, he looked the picture of feeble, nervous agitation.

After recovering himself to a certain degree, he still exhibited a partially inebriated mental state; his vision still continued indistinct; the eyes were bright and glistening, and the pupils continued to be widely dilated. He also experienced a sense of very considerable exhaustion; walked about feebly; and was altogether sadly unlike himself, &c., &c.

REMARKS.

I think few will doubt, after reading the above, that Mr. — was powerfully under the influence of *strychnia*, and that he had a very narrow escape. The case is interesting, as occurring in the person of a European. Most of us in India have seen many Natives in such a condition; but it is fortunate & otherwise as regards our own countrymen. It is to be remarked that my suspicions might possibly have been aroused earlier, but that my patient was subject to nervous dyspepsia. We do not know what European forms this occasionally assumes. Again, my patient was a man of quiet and good disposition; kind to his servants and household; so that on this score there was, *a priori*, no reason to suspect that any of these around him were likely to be plotting against his life. Taking it for granted that an excessive quantity of *strychnia* was administered in this case, it is not easy to determine with what specific object it was given; whether to kill at once, or to do it at the same end by slow poisoning, or whether it was simply intended, by degrees, to stupefy and weaken the intellect. It is to be observed that the Natives do believe in the possibility of rendering a person venous by such means. (Mr. — is in possession of a good deal of valuable property.)

* This passage is published with Mr. —'s consent.—D. B. S.

come away; the wound is quite healthy; slight diarrhoea continues; has got some cough; no expectoration.

19th.—Pulse 136; temperature 100; cough rather troublesome; expectoration consists of scanty frothy mucus.

He complains of slight pain in the chest; mucus rales are audible in the larger bronchial tubes; no dullness on percussion; no dyspnoea; bowels quite regular. Omit Chalk Mixture.

R Vin. ipecac. ℥iiss.
 Tinct. scilla. ℥iiss.
 Tinct. camph. co. ℥xv.
 Mucilaginis ʒij.
 Aquæ camph. ʒj. ft. haust.
 Given every 3 hours.

21st.—Pulse 136; temperature 99°. All the sutures were removed. Repeat draughts, carbolic acid dressing, and carbolic acid lotion injection.

23rd.—Cough very troublesome; expectoration consists chiefly of thick mucus; no dullness on percussion on any part of the chest; sonorous rales audible all over the chest. He has some dyspnoea; pulse 144; temperature 100; respiration 50. Repeat mixtures.

Cataplasma sinapis to the chest; to be repeated in the evening.

24th.—Pulse 124; temperature 100° 5'; respiration 48; dyspnoea and cough continue; appetite indolent. He is becoming weaker; discharge from the stump not so healthy; granulations flabby.

25th.—Pulse 144; temperature 100; has a good deal of dyspnoea; respiration 50.

He had seven stools in the last 24 hours, consisting of loose feculent matter; appetite bad; stump looks very flabby. He is becoming weaker. Omit medicine.

Sinapis to the chest.

R Soda carb. gr. v.
 Vin. ipecac. ℥x.
 Tinct. camph. co. ʒ60 xv.
 Tinct. catechu ℥xix.
 Spt. chloroformi ℥viij.
 Tinct. opii ℥ij.
 Aquæ eucalypti ʒj. ft. haust.

To be given every 2 hours.

R Spt. ammon. arom. ℥xix.
 Spt. ether sulph. a a ℥xix.
 Aquæ Camph. ʒj. ft. haust.
 Every 3 hours.

26th.—Pulse very feeble and small, scarcely to be counted. The patient is incapable to take any food, and had four stools in 24 hours; dyspnoea very troublesome; cough frequent. He sank rapidly, and died at 5 p. m.

REMARKS.

The body was taken away by the patient's father, and no post-mortem examination was allowed. The cause of death, however, was evidently the bronchitis and œdema. The stump had all along been healthy, and doing remarkably well, until the strength of the patient began to fail, when it assumed an unhealthy aspect, owing simply to defective nutrition. The case may almost be considered a successful one, as far as the amputation was concerned; all the ligatures and sutures had come away, and death took place on the 26th day from causes unconnected with the operation. The relief afforded by the operation, and the improvement in the patient's general health for the first ten days, were very remarkable.

The body, after removal, was sent to the College Museum, and its appearance is thus described by Dr. Colles:—

"No. 865.—The preparation consists of the thigh and knee, with a short portion of the leg. In front of the thigh is the exploratory incision made by Mr. Partridge. A perpendicular section has been made through the tumour, the internal condyle from which it springs, and the patella, the knee being flexed. The tumour consists below of yellowish white, nearly homogeneous deposit, about the consistence of hard-boiled white of egg. Above it is much softer, is infiltrated with blood, and contains large hæmorrhoidal vessels. It has been broken down in this portion, having a ragged cavity (which was opened by the exploratory incision) bounded inside by the diseased mass, and outside by the enlarged and roughened bone.

The mass showed no traces of stroma, but immense numbers of cells, many globular, but not uniformly evadde, polyform, or compound. The masses of general matter (much) in all were very large, and, indeed, in many cases, constituted almost the entire cell, the surrounding formed material being distinguished with difficulty (I see neither). Many of the nuclei contained nucleoli. In the upper (disintegrating) part of the tumour, the globules and granules atomized, and the connective material of the cells was in many cases almost wholly converted into fat. The tumour was one growing very rapidly, and disintegrating equally fast. The upper portion, had it made its way through the skin, would have been a typical specimen of 'fungus hæmatoides.'"

POISONING BY LUNAR CAUSTIC.

By G. C. CHATTERJEE, M.A., M.B.,
Sub-Assistant Surgeon, Calcutta.

As poisoning by lunar caustic is very rare, and as the following case made a wonderful recovery, I think it is worth publishing in detail.

One day in September last, I prescribed for one of my patients (an old man who had been suffering for a long time from extensive sloughing of the scrotum, which was considerably hypertrophied) a nitrate of silver lotion (ʒj:ʒij) for external use only. After writing the prescription, I told my patient, an ignorant old man, that the medicine which I had ordered was to be applied to his ulcer. In my prescription I had directed the phial containing the lotion to be labelled "poison." Accordingly it was sent from the dispensary at Balochar to my patient, but he, without enquiring any further, fancied it to be a mixture, divided it into four parts, and took one dose (containing fifteen grains of nitrate of silver) at once, and two doses more within the next two hours. Fortunately, I went to see him at that very time. As soon as I entered the room, his wife told me, in great hurry and confusion, that her husband was almost dying from the baneful effects of the medicine which I had prescribed in the morning. I examined the phial and found that only two drachms of the lotion were left in it; that is to say, forty-five grains of nitrate of silver had been swallowed by the poor old man!!! When questioned, he told me in a faint voice that he felt a sort of insupportable burning sensation inside his stomach, and that he was *very, very* ill. His eyes were red, and the face all covered with perspiration. His pulse was accelerated, and his respiration hurried. The tongue was devoid of epithelium. His mind was quite clear, but he was unable to speak. I immediately made him swallow a large cupful of milk and a strong solution of common salt, and ordered that he should take as much milk as he could swallow. Eggs were also given him clandestinely in the shape of mixtures, as he was highly prejudiced against them. Shortly after he began to vomit; thick tenacious mucus at first, and subsequently mucous crusts of different forms streaked with blood. These state of things continued for about an hour, after which he felt much relieved, and the excruciating burning sensation abated somewhat. Nevertheless, I made him swallow as much milk as he could. The man, I swallowed the rest; he vomited, and the water was the rest I subsequently enjoyed. About twice it was after, he felt comfortable, and fell asleep.

Next morning I ordered him a good saline purge to clear out the bowels, and he went on improving rapidly. On the third day he had rather a sharp attack of dysentery, but it was carefully treated, and my patient was a good recovery.

Considering the enormous dose of the poison (forty-five grains), the old age of the patient, and the entire state of his health from extensive discharges extending over a long time, the recovery was, at least to my mind, a wonderful one.

ADDENDUM, *Ed. Liberator*, 1868.

CASE OF HORN GROWING FROM THE HUMAN CHEST.

By KENNETH M. BLOD, A.M., M.D.,
Chief Assistant Surgeon, Jamaica.

GEOFFREY CHESLER RYBA, aged 35, a stout, well-conditioned man, presented himself at the Messrs. D. J. Gentry, on the 10th of January, 1865, with a horn growing from the skin of the chest to the right of the sternum.

"*Microscope*, April, 1868. See also other numerous parts of



H.—He states that about a year previous to his admission he observed a small white growth about three inches above the right nipple. A few days after noticing it, he had a pain of hair and the growth, which caused it to drop off. A few days he observed the growth re-growing. A small plug of pus came to have formed, which contained in the discharge of pus about three inches. It now began to grow rapidly, and about eleven or twelve weeks gradually increased in all directions. This was accompanied with great pain at the site and in the surrounding integument. After having had a considerable portion of the part removed, and having tried various modes of medicine to relieve the pain, it again came when visiting a branch dispensary, and at my advice came into hospital to have the growth removed.

Natural history.—The growth being mass of the shape of the head of an inch or half the right nipple. It is nearly two inches long and about two and one eighth inches in diameter at the base. It has the color of light brown, and is apparently composed of an aggregation of vertical columns. It is situated vertically. It may well be compared to a cauliflower, as in what I observed of the structure of the growth. The substance of the growth is soft, and is evidently partly white and partly red, and is broken up with many small cavities and projections. It has a very long hair below, and a complete portion on its top. There is an origin of arteries and some parts of his body. His general health is excellent.

Physical Characters.—The hair was removed from the skin by two human hairs. A few small arteries fed actively, but were contained by the tumor. The size of the wound was found to be about an inch and a half, and a small longitudinal line of wound remained.

History.—He has never known any other symptom. Part of the wound healed by the treatment, and the remainder is granulating.

The tumor was present long before, and was removed by Mr. James B. M. on the 11th of October. It had stopped growing, or at least the growth of it was at the time it existed, and it had that was a peculiar appearance, which.

The tumor being situated in a place which is not the site of the hair, the growth of it was not the same, and the size of the tumor.

The tumor was removed from the skin by two human hairs, and the wound was found to be about an inch and a half, and a small longitudinal line of wound remained.

CASE OF HAIRY GROWTH IN THE SCROTUM.

By SRI ACHYUT SINGH, M. C. WAST PESTONJI, G. G. M. C.

BOMBAY.

Journal of the Indian Medical Association, Vol. 1, Part 1, No. 1.

A young boy, aged 14, was brought to the Hospital on 4th November, by the father, who stated that the hairy growth on the right side of the scrotum had been present for some time, and had increased in size very rapidly. The growth was of a dark color, and was of a cauliflower-like appearance. It was situated on the right side of the scrotum, and was about the size of a small nut. The growth was of a dark color, and was of a cauliflower-like appearance. It was situated on the right side of the scrotum, and was about the size of a small nut.

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A CASE OF ABSCESS OF THE LIVER.

By G. V. CHITREKAR, M. B.

Teacher, Nipon Medical School.

Meent has been called upon to follow the pathology and treatment of hepatic abscess, and various opportunities have been afforded to do so. In the present case, I had the opportunity of following the pathology and treatment of hepatic abscess, and various opportunities have been afforded to do so. In the present case, I had the opportunity of following the pathology and treatment of hepatic abscess, and various opportunities have been afforded to do so.

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stance. At the lower part the wall was rather thick, and it was there (a finger's breadth from the thinned parietes) that the canula had entered, but had not reached the cavity of the abscess, which was therefore not emptied. There was no peritonitis, and not a drop of blood in the abdomen. The great omentum was just adherent to the margin of the puncture.

REMARKS

This instance of a case of liver abscess, the only one in the course of five long years in the city of Nagpore, is worth recording; for, considering its topography, it must be inferred that Nagpore bears a greater immunity from such hepatic discharges than most places situated in the torrid zone. True it is that a hot climate brings on torpidity of the liver, and add to this a sedentary habit, highly-spiced food, and the use of alcoholic drinks, and you complete the etiology of hepatic affections. When the liver is thus overworked with alcoholic stimulants, and its tissues barely nourished, it is not surprising that a slight inflammation should pass on to disintegration and suppuration of the organ. It is one to ten, therefore, that, in case of hepatic abscess, you find your patient a sober and temperate man.

In a paper read before the recent Medical Congress by Dr. Ram'rey, it is stated by him that puncture of the hepatic parenchyma is quite innocuous. This opinion is criticized in your November number by your Paris correspondent (No. 1), who asserts that these punctures are so serious that they are rarely practised; and in illustration he quotes one case on record of a lad whose liver was thus punctured, and who died. I may quote here my case to show that, as far as the puncture was concerned, no mischief resulted beyond a slight hæmorrhage.

The existence of such a large superficial abscess, without a corresponding degree of inflammation sufficient to cause adhesion in the surrounding parts, is also an exceptional point.

As regards treatment, I may be allowed to remark that, when the liver is thus ineffectually punctured, the best treatment to follow is to retain the canula *in situ* and to plug it up; for, should there be no adhesion in the surrounding parts, the blood from such a vascular organ will continue to flow into the peritoneal cavity unchecked, and will cause death, either primarily by internal hæmorrhage, or secondarily by extensive peritonitis; whereas plugging the canula stops the bleeding effectually, and the irritation of the instrument excites adhesive inflammation around the puncture.

Publication Received.

The Journal of Cutaneous Medicine and Diseases of the Skin; edited by FRANKS WILSON, F.R.S., for January, 1868.

Domestic Occurrences.

BIRTH.

JOHNSON.—At Moradabad, on the 9th instant, the wife of Surgeon C. JOHNSON, 20th Punjab Infantry, of a daughter.

MARRIAGES.

On November 26th, at Carrigrohilly, Co. Cork, Ireland, by the REV. J. W. BURN, Rector of Carrigrohilly, E. HUNT COSBOY, Esq., M.D., 21st N. B. Fusiliers, to MARY JANE, eldest daughter of the late M. ROBERTS, Esq., J. P. of Mount Rivers, Carrigrohilly.

CAMERON—MURPHY.—At St. Thomas's Church, Middleton Row, by the REV. FATHER SHILL, S. J., CHARLES CAMERON, Esq., Assistant Surgeon, H. M.'s Indian Army, to ALICE MART, eldest daughter of Mr. F. J. MURPHY.

BLAIR—WILLIAMS.—On the 25th February, at Christ Church, Bankipoor, Punjab, by the REV. ALEXED. NORRISH, WILLIAM HURNS BRISTON, M.D. of H. M.'s Indian Army, Chief Surgeon of Narnoor, Central India, to ANNE, eldest daughter of the REV. T. WILLIAMS, Rector of Llangynidr, Pembrokeshire, South Wales.

Notices to Correspondents.

A MEDICAL MAN.—You are quite right. It was through an oversight on our part that the names appeared. We will be more careful in future.

Communications have been received from

- Sub-Assistant Surgeon MR. ASHRAF ALI, Agra.
- Assistant Surgeon B. W. S. STEUB, F.R.C.S.I., 9th P. I., Kohat.
- Surgeon A. M. LIPPETTS, H. M.'s 5th Fusiliers.
- Dr. G. D. McREDDIE, Harwar, Oudh.

The Indian Medical Gazette.

It is particularly requested that all contributions to the "Indian Medical Gazette" may be written as legibly as possible, and only on one side of each sheet of paper.

Technical expressions ought to be so distinct that no possible mistake can be made in printing them.

Notes of these simple rules causes much trouble.

Communications should be forwarded as early in the month as possible, as delay must inevitably occur in their publication.

Business letters to be forwarded to the Publishers, Messrs. Wymam Bros., and all professional communications to the Editor, direct.

Subscribers changing their address are requested to notify the same.

THE CO-OPERATION OF THE PROFESSION THROUGHOUT INDIA IS EARNESTLY SOLICITED.

SPECIAL NOTICE.—Subscribers are particularly requested to notify any changes of address, or otherwise no responsibility for misdirection of copies of this paper can be assumed by WYMAN BROS., Publishers, 115c Street, Calcutta.

HARE STREET, }
January, 1868. }

WYMAN BROS.,
Proprietors.

"You have chosen the path, not of politics, but of science. Among those who have preceded you in it, and in our own particular department, we find some of the brightest ornaments of British history; and I will not do you the injustice of supposing that there is any one among you who would not prefer the reputation of Harvey or the Hunters to that of nineteenth-century doctors and politicians of the periods in which they lived."—SIR BENJAMIN BRODIE.

A MEDICAL DIRECTORY FOR INDIA.

We understand that Messrs. J. Confield and Co. propose to publish, on the 1st October, a Medical Directory for India, similar to those for "the three kingdoms" which Messrs. Churchill and Sons issue yearly. The undertaking is one which, if properly conducted, will involve considerable labor, and the value of the results will of course mainly depend upon how far the profession throughout India second the efforts of the publishers, by giving them the required information accurately and without delay. In the absence of an official "Medical Register" (for which we are likely to wait a long time), or as a supplement to it, the proposed Directory cannot fail to be both useful and interesting. We trust that it will really include the names, qualifications, &c., of all medical practitioners, whatever be their rank, in India, from "Native Doctors" to "Inspectors General," and that no attempt will be made to recognise any caste distinctions whatever in the profession.

The idea of an Indian Medical Directory is not a new one. Seven or eight years ago the publication of one was attempted, in connection with the (now extinct) "Indian Lancet." Not being adequately supported, the scheme came to nothing. At that time, perhaps, it was rather premature; there were comparatively few practitioners unconnected with the army in India, and nearly all the information which the Directory was intended to convey could have been obtained from the Army List. Since that time, however, a large "unconvenanted" medical service has sprung up, and the number of private practitioners, both European and Native, has largely increased. A volume which would include all these various classes would be so obviously useful, that we have no doubt of its being generally appreciated. We hope that both the publishers and those to whom they must look for the necessary information and assistance, will do their best to secure a satisfactory result.

VERNA CULAR EDUCATION IN MIDWIFERY.

Midwifery is a profession which is almost entirely vernacular in its character, and it is not surprising that the education of the midwife should be conducted in the vernacular language. In the case of the English midwife, the education is conducted in the English language, and the midwife is required to be able to read and write in that language. In the case of the Indian midwife, the education is conducted in the vernacular language, and the midwife is required to be able to read and write in that language.

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THE OOTERPARA INVESTIGATION.

On the morning of Sunday, the 31st February, an investigation was held by Dr. J. H. Bell, Civil Surgeon of Howrah, in the Ooterpara district, with a view to the trial of certain charges brought against Baboo Soojee, Coomoo Mookerjee, the Sub-Assistant Surgeon attached to the Ooterpara Branch Dispensary. The charges, which were drawn up in the name of a committee of the Executive Government of Howrah, paying for the Baboo's remedy and signed by a great number of the residents of Ooterpara, Bally, Bellon, and the neighbouring villages, were to the effect, more or less, as follows:—That the Baboo had been employed as a doctor for a long time, and had endeavoured to establish a monopoly of drugs in the district. In consequence of the charges the Government of Ooterpara, in 1858, had from which the Sub-Assistant Surgeon, some months ago, withdrew his consent to put a table of prices for the drugs and other articles showing the commission which had to be paid to the Sub-Assistant Surgeon on the purchase of drugs. From the documents have been examined, and the result published by the Bill, it would be in fact to other any

opinion as to the truth or falsehood of the second charge. The attempt to prove malpraxis failed utterly, the witnesses showing both prejudice against the Sub-Assistant Surgeon and a ludicrous degree of ignorance as to the objects and capabilities of treatment. A very strong point in the memorial was the Sub-Assistant Surgeon's ignorance of obstetrics. It was implied that for eight years he had never delivered a patient successfully, and a "sensational" story was told of a Native lady whom he had delivered with the assistance of a Goldsmith's forceps, and who died under his hands! This, however, was the *only* case of obstetric malpraxis which could be brought forward, and it was easily explained. The Sub-Assistant Surgeon was sent for when the lady had been for four days in labour; he found her moribund, with the head of the fetus, which was putrid, firmly impacted. On his explaining that he required forceps which he would be obliged to procure from Calcutta, as he did not possess them, he was offered his choice from among a number of Goldsmith's tongs, which he of course declined to use. As might have been expected, the patient died undelivered, an attempt to turn having failed. The other cases which it was asserted that he had treated improperly were equally absurd. One man complained that he had failed to save the life of one of his female relatives, who had been attacked with cholera; another, that when suffering from fever, he took the medicine prescribed for him by the Sub-Assistant Surgeon, and was frequently purged and vomited during the night; nay, one of the petitioners accused the Baboo of having *successfully* treated him for a "false polypus" of the nose. The long roll of signatures (upwards of a hundred) we should think appended to the memorial might seem to indicate that, rightly or wrongly, there was a widespread feeling of dissent against Baboo Soorjee Coomar Mookerjee. But the weight which might have been attached to these signatures was considerably lessened by the appearance of the petitioners. A large number of them were mere lads, and the rest either needy-looking old men, or servants. One of the latter class created much amusement, when asked who were the originators of the movement, by saying that "one of them was the Governor-General's durwan, and there were several other great men among them!" We can of course only speak of those who come forward to support their allegations, and cannot be blamed if we suppose that none of the very many Native gentlemen of respectable age and position who were present had any fault to find with the Sub-Assistant Surgeon. If they had, they should not have sat by silently, while schoolboys, servants, and garrulous (but not always venerable) old men made the whole investigation almost ridiculous by the nonsense which they talked. The fact that a large number of the accusers were either servants of the proprietor of the "Ooterpara Druggist's Hall," or were employed in the Calcutta Exchange, in which he holds an appointment, was, to say the least, a remarkable, if not a suspicious, circumstance. We do not attach very much weight to the fact that a number of letters were put in, signed by some of the memorialists, to the effect that, when they signed the memorial, they had no idea of its contents, and that they had been given to understand, by the persons who brought it to them for signature, that it would be the means of getting a second Sub-Assistant Surgeon appointed to Ooterpara, not that it was a petition for the removal of the officer already there.*

As one of the most active of the Baboo's opponents said, a man who only knew enough English to sign his name, and not enough to understand the meaning of the printed paper to which he signed it, was probably quite as ignorant of the purport of the letter (signed by him, but avowedly written by another person,) in which he expressed his regret at having done so. Still, these letters, at any rate, showed how little value could be attached to mere signatures in the abstract. One person indeed wrote a letter denying that he had ever signed the memorial, although a signature purporting to be his appeared attached to it; but as he did not attend to substantiate the implied forgery of his name, no great weight can be given to his assertion. Granting, however, that all the signatures to the memorial were *bonâ fide* ones, and that the memorialists honestly believed every word which they said, the evidence given in support of the charges was so outrageously childish, and savoured so strongly of private spite and *zidd*, and there was, moreover, such a palpable community of interest among the principal accusers, that no unprejudiced mind could for a moment doubt that the case against Baboo Soorjee Coomar was altogether a made-up one. We speak of course of the evidence given at the public investigation. How far the documents produced by Baboo Dwauka Nath Chatterjee will, when examined by Dr. Bird, bear out the second charge, remains to be seen. As far as oral evidence went, that was as unsupported as the first had been.

It has been said by high authority that we should be able to find "good in everything;" and even from this disreputable attempt to blacken the character of a respectable public servant, Government may, we think, take one hint. The want of a forceps was made a peg whereon to hang one of the strongest charges of malpraxis. No doubt, had the Sub-Assistant Surgeon come provided with the entire armamentarium of Scultetus, some other excuse for finding fault with him would have been forthcoming. Still, we think that no Government Dispensary should be unprovided with a case of midwifery instruments. In this country no medical practitioner is likely to be called to a case of merely natural labour in a Native female. The fact that he is summoned presumes that the patient has been for hours, perhaps for days, in labour, and that Native midwives have done their best, or worst, for the case. The chances are, therefore, that by far the greater number of cases to which he is called require the application of instruments of some kind. It may be said that, in the present instance, the patient was a private one, and the Sub-Assistant Surgeon should have provided his own instruments. This, however, will not always be the case, and the authorities would not, at any rate, grudge their instruments to their medical officers for use in private practice, provided that they were always available for the public service. The diffusion of a rational system of obstetrics throughout this country is a most important object, and Government should facilitate it by providing all medical officers in their employ, who are not in a position to procure such luxuries for themselves, with the necessary appliances for treating difficult cases. If it is found that the "Doctor Subhly,"

Assistant Surgeon of good repute, and a contributor to our pages, mixed up with this most disreputable transaction. He was openly spoken of as an *unwielder* for Soorjee Coomar Mookerjee's place, and one of the witnesses against the latter officer was reproached at the investigation by a by-stander, as having given false evidence with a view to promote his interests.—*Eds.*, I. M. G.

* It is with very great regret that we have heard the name of a Sub-

Meeting of the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association.

The usual monthly meeting of the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association was held in the Theatre of the Medical College on Tuesday, January 14th, 1868, at 8.30 P. M. Dr. S. G. Chuckerbutty, President, in the Chair.

Proceedings of last meeting read and confirmed.

Proposed by Dr. Collis, seconded by Baboo Govind Chunder Chatterjee, that the Annual Meeting for the election of Officers and reception of the Secretaries and Treasurers' Report be held at 4 P. M. on Tuesday, the 21st instant.

Baboo Govind Chunder Chatterjee read a report of the case of a Native Christian woman, aged 50, who had been admitted into the Medical College Hospital, under Dr. Chuckerbutty, on the 19th November last, with symptoms of hepatic abscess, and died on the 28th December. The duodenum, omentum, and hepatic flexure of the colon were found to be matted together by inflammation. The gall bladder was slightly distended and sacculated, and its coats thickened. An opening large enough to admit the little finger, led from its under-surface into the duodenum, close to the pylorus. Seventy-seven gall stones, mostly all of the size of peas, but slightly polygonal from mutual pressure, were found; three or four in the duodenum, the rest in the gall bladder. From the hepatic flexure of the colon, another opening, large enough to admit the point of the little finger, led into a large cavity with ragged sloughing walls, bounded in front by the colon, the omentum, and the anterior abdominal wall, above by the diaphragm, below by the colon, and behind by the liver. There was a large ragged opening in the muscles forming the anterior wall of the cavity, but the skin was unaltered.

Dr. Chuckerbutty said that the question in this case was whether the large abscess below in the colon, liver, and abdominal parietes was of idiopathic origin, or was the result of irritation caused by the passage of the gall stones into the duodenum.

A discussion on the case followed, in which Drs. Ewart and Chuckerbutty and Baboo Govind Chunder Chatterjee took part.

Dr. Ewart remarked upon the comparative frequency of cases of phthisis among Natives in the Medical College Hospital. It was generally laid down in books that the disease was a rare one among the Natives of India, but experience had shown the fallacy of this statement. He had found very few cases of it in Native Regiments; but among prisoners in jails, or the poorer classes who frequent the Calcutta Hospitals, the disease was very common. Many cases of it had lately occurred in his wards, and he was now engaged in arranging the memorials of this disease, with histories of the same, in the Pathological Museum of the College.

Dr. Chuckerbutty did not believe the disease to have increased in frequency of late years, but that many of the cases which, in his student days, were returned as diarrhoea, dyspepsia, &c., were now more carefully diagnosed, and recognised as phthisis.

Baboo Govind Chunder Chatterjee suggested that the greater frequency of phthisis, as far as Calcutta was concerned, might depend upon the change which had taken place in the habits and circumstances of the lower orders, and especially to the substitution of brick-built houses for those with walls of mat or thatch, whereby ventilation was greatly impeded.

After some further discussion on this subject, the meeting adjourned at 10 P. M. with a vote of thanks to the Chair.

(Continued.)

S. G. CHUCKERBUTTY, M. D.

Extract.

At the meeting of the Medical and Physical Society of Bombay, held on the 1st instant, Surgeon Sylvester was unanimously elected Secretary. A case was read by W. Grey, Esq., after which a paper was read by Dr. Sylvester upon "Indigestion." The advantages of this operation were loudly pointed out, and it was proved by cases that in many instances where the operation was performed merely with a view to relieve pain and prevent increase of disorganization, slight to a greater or less degree frequently resulted. Its effect in permanent relief was

shown to be singularly curative. The failure of the operation in certain cases, and the necessity and advisability of its repetition, were acknowledged and explained, and a most valuable paper was listened to with evident satisfaction by all present. Dr. Arnott complimented the author upon his paper as containing a résumé of what was previously known upon the subject, as well as much original thought, strengthened by the results of a number of operations performed in the Ophthalmic Institution. Some discussion ensued relative to the effect of the operation on the power of accommodation by excision of a portion of the iris. The thanks of the meeting, proposed by Dr. Ward, being carried unanimously, the meeting adjourned.—*Medical Gazette.*

Local Correspondence.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE."

DEAR SIR,—When I resolved to send a monthly summary of meteorological observations to the *Gazette*, I did so, as I remarked at the time, and I hope that other men who took an interest in the subject in other places would do so also. Jessoore, as the reputed birthplace of cholera, and a place almost proverbially fertile in a sanitary sense, would, I thought, afford an excellent opportunity of studying meteorological conditions with special reference to the causation of disease, and constitute, even more than Calcutta, a type of the climate of the delta of the Ganges. Having, however, completed one year's operation, apparently without executing any interest or effort on the part of any other reader or contributor, I have resolved to discontinue these reports. Now that a special Meteorological Department has been founded in Bengal, to which all vital observations are sent, the comparison and deductions which I elaborated can, with more profit and advantage, be made there; and the valuable space hitherto taken up by my summary devoted to something more profitable to the majority of your readers, who perhaps do not see in the details of local observations the interest and use which I, and others who may devote time and attention to the subject, do.

I remain,
Yours truly,
KENNETH McLEOD.

JESORE, 15th July, 1868.

MR. FITZGERALD'S PAMPHLET ON CHOLERA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE."

SIR,—Allow me to thank you for the notice you have taken of my pamphlet on the "Cause, Treatment, and Prevention of Cholera," in your issue of the 1st January. While I feel grateful to you for what you have said in my praise, I do not demur against your right as an Editor in putting those remarks which savour of commendation. When one commends himself to print, and more especially when, in so doing, he advocates opinions not generally popular, he must be prepared to bear with the coarse criticisms which may choose to assail his name. I would, however, ask the favour of being permitted to offer a few brief remarks on two points contained in your review.

1st.—You say—"We think the author would have done well to give his plan a more extended trial before rushing into print." To this my answer is that I would have gladly waited for a more accumulated experience, could I have only calculated with any degree of certainty that the opportunity would have been afforded me of acquiring such increased experience. But cholera is not a disease in which any fixed calculations can be made. Outside of Calcutta its occurrence is of the most erratic nature. I felt that years might elapse before I would see another case; that possibly I might never again come in contact with the disease. I have known a surgeon of twenty years' service in India who never even witnessed an instance of cholera. Why might not the same happen to me in the future? Taking this into consideration, as well as the heavy mortality that usually attends epidemic outbreaks, it occurred to me that it would not be amiss to communicate to the public a mode of treatment which, in my hands, had proved very successful in a limited number of cases; so that, did further experience not fail to my

ANSWERS.

1. If under fifteen years' service, he would draw Rs. 794-9-6, *i.e.*, unemployed pay Rs. 750-0-0, plus half the difference (Rs. 10-13-0) between that sum and his employed pay (Rs. 800), Rs. 5-6-6. (A Surgeon Major, or Surgeon of above fifteen years' standing, would draw unemployed pay, which is actually higher than that to which he is entitled when on duty with his Corps.)

2. On general leave he will be entitled to the same rate of pay (Rs. 794-9-6, or unemployed pay, according to his length of service) for the first six months, and after that to full pay.

3. No. These are local allowances, and are to be paid to the officer actually doing the duty.

4. Yes. All officers can obtain general leave (if taken in India) on the expiration of privilege leave.

5. A medical officer on privilege leave is entitled to the full pay and staff of his rank and (military) appointment; but before he can obtain privilege leave, he is supposed to have arranged with another medical officer for the discharge of his duties. We have generally understood that it was a point of honor among medical officers to discharge one another's duties gratis under these circumstances. According to the letter of the law, however, his *bona fides* is entitled to all civil allowances.

6. In this case also, the Surgeon and the Sub-Assistant Surgeon must arrange matters privately. The latter cannot be compelled to take the duty, and to make his own terms.

7. A Sub-Assistant Surgeon of the 1st or 2nd class would be entitled to Rs. 150, and one of the 3rd class to Rs. 100, monthly, when in independent charge of a civil station. We presume it that the civil allowances equalled, or fell short of these sums, he would be entitled to the whole of them; if they exceeded the fixed allowance, he would, we think, only draw the latter.—Ed., L. M. G.

Short Notices of Recent Books.

On the Pathology and Treatment of Albuminuria. By W. H. DICKINSON, M.D., Assistant Physician to St. George's Hospital. London: Longman, 1868.

The publication of medical works is so frequently connected with other objects than the advancement of knowledge, that the reviewer seldom meets with a book in which he can find really new matter, and to which he can give his entire approbation. The admirable monograph on our topic is, however, an exception. In this essay the author has not only collected in a digestic form the views of modern English and Continental writers on the subject which he has taken in hand, but he has added to the labors of others a fine series of pathological researches, which have done much to clear away the mist in which our ideas of certain kidney affections have been heretofore enshrouded. Dr. Dickinson is a young and rising physician; but he is also a pathologist of no mean experience—as the essay which he has just published amply testifies. The works of Bright, Wilks, Johnson, Rayer, Goodellow, Barham, Harley, and Grange Stewart have done much towards elucidating the complex problems of renal pathology, and Dr. Dickinson appears in the field as no unworthy follower in the pursuit of truth. The book is divided into thirteen chapters, of which the following are the respective headings. Introductory, describing the general structure of the kidney, and giving a classification of renal disease; Albuminous urine and fibrous casts; Pathology of Tubal Nephritis; Clinical history of Tubal Nephritis; Cause of Tubal Nephritis; Treatment of Tubal Nephritis; Pathology of Granular Degeneration; Subjects and causes of Granular Degeneration; Symptoms and effects of Granular Degeneration; Treatment of Granular Degeneration; Pathology of Depurative Infiltration; Symptoms and clinical history of the disease; Treatment of same; Comparison of the three forms of renal disease which are productive of Albuminuria; Changes of the blood in Albuminuria; Alcohol as a cause of renal disease; Climate in relation to renal disease. Of all the subject-matter in this valuable monograph, that relating to pathological changes is the most important, because the most novel. It is clearly too the feature for which the author intended the book to be pre-eminently remarkable. The plates and woodcuts alone would teach the student the whole pathology of the subject. The page-plates are ten in number, and are most of them sections of affected kidneys; some enlarged; others of natural size; and all executed in Messrs. Hanhart's and Tullen West's best type. Some of them are chromo-lithographs, others are

plain. The woodcuts interspersed through the text are remarkable for their fidelity, there being no attempt made to "clear up" structures which are naturally obscure, as is not infrequently done in the preparation of microscopic drawings. Besides the original facts which the author publishes on the subject of pathology, there is another feature of his treatise to which we must direct attention. This is the information which has been collected from various sources touching the relation of kidney diseases to climate. Doubtless there is much in the chapter devoted to this question which comes within the province of unresolvable hypothesis, and which can hardly be considered as established truth; but there is also a correlation of facts which is extremely suggestive. The tables from the Army Medical Reports are highly valuable, and the testimony which they give us leads to the conclusion that renal disease is much more frequent to temperate than in tropical climates. We have so far exceeded the usual limits of a "short notice," that we will only mention one more fact concerning this handsomely printed volume. To each paragraph is attached a marginal heading,—an expensive feature to the publisher, but one of great advantage to the busy practitioner. *And earlier*, we say that Dr. Dickinson's monograph is a valuable addition to medical literature, and is not merely an ingenious contrivance for advertising the author's name,—a too frequent occurrence!

The Three-fold nature of Healthful Disease. By E. HAVANTON, M.D. London: Churchill.

This is one of those numerous pamphlets with which luckless reviewers are so often deluged, and which neither instruct their readers, nor reflect credit on the authors. It displays an assumption of knowledge which can deceive none but the uninformed.

Rain: how, when, where, and why it is measured. By G. J. SYMONS. London: Stanford, 1867.

Mr. Symons is the highest English authority on rainfall. In the volume just issued he has given an account of the reasons why rain should be measured, and of the best means of effecting its measurement. He describes the various varieties of gauges now in use, states the advantage of each, and gives the student of meteorology amply and plain directions for carrying out his operations. Meteorology is now becoming so important a branch of scientific medical investigation, that we commend Mr. Symons's little book to the favorable notice of our readers.

A Treatise on Frictional Electricity. By SIR W. SNOW HARRIS. Edited by CHARLES TOMLINSON, F.R.S. London: Virtue & Co. 1867.

Mr. Tomlinson, of King's College, here gives us an edition of Sir Snow Harris's book on Electricity,—a book which the author was prevented by death from issuing with his own hand. The book embraces an account of the practice and theory of frictional electricity, but the author was so staunch a student of the old school of physics that, though Mr. Tomlinson has done his utmost to bring the book up to the present advanced condition of science, the result has been far from successful. We cannot speak in very favorable terms of the book. The Editor's memoir of the author is pleasantly written.

On the Ventilation of Dwelling-Houses and the Utilization of Waste Heat from open Fire places. By FREDERICK EDWARDS. London: Hardswicke, 1868.

The best part of this volume is the series of plates illustrating the different contrivances employed for the purposes of heating and ventilating dwellings. The author writes clearly and forcibly; but though what he tells us is to a great extent the result of practical experience, it is stated in too dogmatic a fashion. The book has little claim to be considered scientific. The important labors of Parkes, Angus Smith, Galton, and others, recently made known, are entirely ignored, and there is an utter absence of anything like a scientific *raison d'être* for Mr. Edwards's treatise. He tells us how to let in air into our dwellings; but he is unable to tell us how much air we should admit, or for what reason a definite quantity per head, per hour, should be allowed to enter. He would do well to give a little attention to the Blue-book of the Cubic-space Commission. It now appears that for rooms, such as the wards of hospitals, constantly occupied, the quantity of air required is a constant quantity, no matter how variable the space. This fact Mr. Edwards either does not know, or has not fully appreciated.

Dr. G. Harley, F.R.S., who for the last two or three years has been suffering from a painful ophthalmic complaint which compelled him to relinquish practice and retire to the country, has, you will be glad to learn, returned to his professional labors, and is perfectly restored to health. There are few young medical men who have reaped so high a degree of friendship and respect as Dr. Harley, and few who in so short a time have risen to such scientific distinction as he has. His return has therefore been received with much pleasure by West-end practitioners.

An incident occurred the other day which showed me how little some even of our well-informed physicians know of the recent advance in the therapeutics of electricity. I was speaking to a gentleman who is on the "Electrical Committee" of the Medico-Chirurgical Society, and in the course of conversation he said:—"It's all very well for them to talk of constant and interrupted currents, but what's to prevent my getting a continuous current if I turn the handle of my machine rapidly enough?" I certainly was surprised, and I think these of your readers who have given any attention to the matter will be equally struck with this supremely ridiculous notion. Truly, a little learning is often a dangerous thing. Just conceive of the application of such a continuous current as this in certain nervous affections!

The Clinical Society is now fairly underway. On Friday week the Society met under the presidency of Sir Thomas Watson, and the meeting was attended, as the newspapers would say, by the *élite* of the profession. The President's address was very eloquent, though brief, and it dealt with the scope and duties of the Society. The most interesting feature of the evening was a spirited discussion on a case of ex-ophthalmic goitre brought under the notice of the Society by Dr. Morell Mackenzie. Observations were made by Mr. Ernest Hart and Mr. Bryant, and by Drs. Austin, Handfield Jones, Greenhow, and Hyde Salter. The danger which threatens the young Society is that of being flooded with papers by members whose highest anxiety is to exhibit themselves rather than their patients, and who lose no opportunity of coming forward with observations which have often no real value whatever. I think the Council will have to exert decided styptic measures to meet the hæmorrhage which I anticipate. I believe some step of this kind is in contemplation.

The appointments of the month have not been of much interest. Dr. Henry Lawson has been all but elected Assistant Physician to St. Mary's Hospital in the room of Dr. Markham; in fact, he is the only candidate recommended for the office. Mr. Tibbiny Fox has been appointed to the post of Physician for Skin Diseases to Charing Cross Hospital, and Dr. Prosser James, London Editor of the *Medical Press*, has been appointed Physician to St. John's Hospital for Skin Affections. I think I have told you of all the events of interest which have occurred during the month, and I may now lay down my pen till the next mail calls me into "active service" again.

The Progress of the Medical and Collateral Sciences.

The Analysis of Water.—The estimation of the organic matter in water, which, up to the present time, has been attended by so many serious difficulties and sources of error, formed the subject of a lecture by Dr. Frankland at the Chemical Society of London, on the evening of January 16th. Dr. Frankland described quite a new process for the estimation of the organic carbon and nitrogen, which is not only free from sources of fallacy, but is precise to a degree quite unexpected. By this new method, as small a quantity as the fiftieth part of a milligramme may be estimated with the greatest care. The objection to the new plan is its extreme complexity, which would render it a very difficult matter to carry out by any but a chemist of considerable experience and powers of manipulation. The process is briefly as follows:—To a litre of the water is added an aqueous solution of sulphurous acid, and the water is then evaporated to dryness. The sulphurous acid converts the carbonates into sulphates, drives off the carbonic anhydride, but does not decompose the nitrates as sulphuric acid would. The residue is then beaten up in a glass basin with chromate of lead, and is

placed in a combustion-tube with oxide of copper and metallic copper, the open extremity of the combustion-tube being connected with a Sprengel's air-pump, so as to exhaust the air from the combustion-tube and from a large inverted siphon, which is also connected with the tube. The combustion being carried on in the usual way, the gases are collected in the tube, and are measured by absorption. The figures given as the results of Dr. Frankland's method seem wonderfully precise, and appeared to give a more correct estimate of the quantity of organic matter present, than the mode adopted by Messrs. Wanklyn and Chapman, described some time since in their paper. In the discussion which followed the lecture, Mr. Alab, Dr. Voelcker, Mr. Duggall Campbell, Professor Wanklyn the Chairman, and others took part. The controversy between Dr. Frankland and Professor Wanklyn will, it is said, be continued at the next meeting.

M. Claude Bernard.—This distinguished French Physiologist was elected President of the French Academy of Sciences at the meeting of the Academy held on the 6th January; out of 19 votes, 11 were given for Bernard, 3 for De Quatrefages, 1 for Deussen, 1 for Dumas, 1 for Fiéroy, 1 for Longet, and 1 for St. Claude Deville.

Physiological action of Alkaline Silicates.—H. R. Schwann, the veteran originator of the cell theory, has presented to the Academy of Sciences of Belgium a memoir describing a series of experiments recently carried out in M. Melsou's laboratory by M. Husson. Herr Schwann comments at some length on the importance of M. Husson's views, and thus sums up the results of his observations:—The alkaline silicates, given in such small quantities that the contents of the stomach remain acid, are completely decomposed, even when in a state of very dilute solution. The intestinal juices are unable to re-dissolve the liberated silica. The alkaline silicates therefore cannot enter into the blood unless they are given in sufficient quantity to allow them to reach the small intestine. When allowed to enter the circulation, only traces of them are to be found. They cannot be detected in the brain, the bones, liver, or bile, but an appreciable quantity may be found in the muscles. The spleen, too, occasionally contains them. The great bulk of the silica is found in the urine, in which it forms a deposit of silica and silicates mixed with carbonates and phosphates.—*Vide L'Institut*, January 8th.

The development of the Cutis forms the subject of a paper read before the Academy of Sciences at Vienna by Herr Kuschel, a Russian physiologist. His views may be thus expressed. All the fibres arise from the processes of the cells, which elongate and bifurcate, especially during the first period of their growth. Networks are formed by the juxtaposition and interlacement of these processes. The office of the intercellular substance is to unite the fibres. The process of differentiation goes on more rapidly in the upper than in the lower layers. The young capillary vessels, instead of making their way towards the surface of the cutis, take an inward course. The development of the elastic fibres takes place at a later period.

The chemistry of apple-leaves has been investigated by Herr Reichelder, of the University of Friburg. These leaves, he says, contain a considerable proportion of a yellow crystalline substance, and also of a substance which crystallizes in colorless needles, and which decomposes readily into sugar and another substance under the influence of heat and acids. The percentage composition of this substance is the same as that of phlozane, but the product of its decomposition differs from that of phlozane in being soluble in ether.

What is Odontoma?—Odontoma is the name given by M. Paul Broca to a species of dental tumour which is constituted, in most instances, by a hypertrophy of the normal dental tissues. M. Broca's memoir on the subject enters into many points of interest in the histology and pathology of teeth, and is of interest equally to dentists and physiologists.—*Vide Comptes Rendus*, December 30th.

The heat produced by electric discharges.—This important problem in physics has been receiving the attention of one of the ablest of German physicists, Herr Eggendorf, who has thus formulated his conclusions:—(1) The direct discharges of the electrical machine are hotter at the positive than at the

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

ON THE ACTION OF COBRA POISON.

By CHARLES R. FRANCIS, M. B., Lond.,
Surgeon Major, Bengal Army.

THE subject of cobra poison is now attracting a considerable amount of attention in the profession in India and Australia. It is one of the highest importance in a physiological sense, and popularly as terrifying as cholera. To discover an antidote to the effects of this poison, based on its pathology, is worthy of our best efforts, and I therefore venture to ask to be allowed to contribute my quota of enquiry, (so far as it has gone,) in this direction, in your columns. The public is much indebted to Dr. Shortt, of Madras, who was the first to offer a pecuniary reward for the discovery of a *real* antidote, which has led to the offer of still further rewards, the sum total now amounting to £175. This may prove to be a useful and successful stimulus in some quarters, though it would be well if the area for observation were more extended.

We are all aware that the natives of India, throughout the country, believe that there is one animal, *viz.*, the *Ichneumon vernaculæ*, commonly called *mungoose*, or "myoura," which the poison of the cobra cannot harm. They believe that, if the mungoose be free after a contest with a cobra to go where it pleases, it will scamper off in search of some (unknown) herb, and eating it, become poison-proof. This is an obvious fallacy. It is difficult to conceive the existence of an antidote which is ubiquitous, and always available at *once* in the first place, and of such potency as to be able to overtake and neutralize the effects of the poison in the second. For some time must frequently elapse between the bite and the *discovery* of the antidote. No! The fact is that the mungoose, if faintly bitten, will die, and in the same way, *i. e.*, exhibiting the same set of symptoms, that other animals, dying from the effects of cobra poison, will. The truth is that, in its contests with a cobra, the mungoose escapes by its wonderful activity. It may be compared to a light infantry soldier, while the cobra is more like a heavy dragoon. I was for some years, however, a believer in the common idea, my belief being based upon the result of some experiments which I made when stationed at Banda, in 1851. By these it appeared that the mungoose was invulnerable, and I therefore endeavoured to make some preparation of this animal to experiment with as an antidote. The opportunity, however, for carrying on the enquiry soon passed away, and it was not till 1850, when I was quartered at Lucknow, that it occurred again; and I then became convinced that my former experiments must have contained sources of error. Major-General Sir R. Wallace urged me to repeat them, assuring me that the mungoose, if properly bitten, *would die*, adding that he and the late Col. Patrick Grant had proved this. I therefore collected, through the snake-charmers, as many cobras as possible, and in the course of a short time was able to muster seven fine lively specimens. These were kept in one of the verandas of my house, (which was well known as "Cobra Cottage," I myself being designated by the natives as the "Samp-wallah Sahib") each in a deep earthen vessel, (*gobas*) covered over with a loose lid. I gave them an airing morning and evening, taking one out at a time with a hooked stick, and offered them young frogs, birds, and milk for food; but they, without exception, refused everything, and all died within from twenty days to a month of being caught, having lived quite long enough, however, to enable me to carry out the required experiments. These were

performed in the presence of several witnesses, amongst others, of Deputy Inspector General Dr. J. Campbell Brown, C. B., and the results were published in a local journal, the *Orissa Gazette*. Before commencing an experiment, the cobra was *tested*, a supply of fowls and small birds being retained for the purpose. In each case the tested bird died shortly after being bitten in the usual way. It faltered in its gait, limped, sunk on the ground, became lethargic, and then fell into convulsions, in which it was carried off. Sufficient time was then allowed for a copious re-secretion of the poison, and the animal to be bitten was presented to the cobra. As a rule, the latter would not voluntarily bite its victim; and it became necessary to force the poison fangs into some fleshy part of the latter. In the case of the mungoose, the inner part of the thigh was selected. The operation was most successfully performed, in each case, by two snake-charmers, father and son. Three mungoses were operated upon, *and they all died* at intervals varying from fifteen minutes to six hours, each in precisely the same way. They were not allowed their liberty after being bitten, but were kept under observation. A dog, thus bitten, would, I believe, have succumbed likewise, but for the free exhibition of his ammonia. He foamed violently at the mouth, (one of the usual results of cobra poisoning,) and apparently evinced symptoms of approaching hydrophobia, which so alarmed the owner, that I believe he had the animal, which ran away, eventually destroyed. Three harmless snakes were then presented to three cobras in succession, and all died precisely as the fowls, mungoses, and little birds had died. In the experiment recently made by Dr. Fayer in Calcutta, and recorded in the *Indian Medical Gazette* of the 2nd December, 1867, it would appear that a harmless snake was invulnerable; but, in the presence of the positive evidence of death occurring under the same circumstances, it would be well to have this part of the experiment repeated; and this it is, I believe, Dr. Fayer's intention to do. It is probable, I think, that an innocuous snake, when bitten by a cobra, *will die*. Such was the belief of the snake-charmer who witnessed Dr. Fayer's experiment, and such, I know, is the belief amongst these men in Upper India. The *mode* of having the bite inflicted may be important. The snake-charmers at Lucknow maintained that, in the case of snakes, the ordinary method would not suffice; that it was necessary to bring the *jaws* of the two snakes into close union, and then, after locking them together, so to leave them. I therefore had this done. A slight contest ensued, during which it may be presumed the poison was emitted. It was thus that my harmless snakes were fastened upon; and they succumbed to the poison. *Two cobras* were now made to approach each other, the father and son, each holding a neck, with the thumb well pressed upon the back of the head. Neither liked this part of the experiment, as, had either cobra straggled and overshot the mark, his fangs might have been fastened into their hand. Happily, however, no accident occurred, and the jaws were well locked into each other. As might have been expected, neither cobra suffered. This experiment was conducted twice, each time with fresh cobras, and in both instances the cobras were alive and well a fortnight afterwards. Thus, then, it seems to be distinctly proved—(a) that the mungoose is no more proof against the poison of the cobra than other animals, although, possibly, it may take a longer time to die, in which case remedies, if early applied, would have a greater chance of success than in animals where death is more rapid; (b) that even snakes themselves, if innocuous, are no proof against it; but (c) that poisonous cobras are.

Now what is the pathology and morbid anatomy of cobra poisoning? For, upon an accurate knowledge of these should, if possible, be based our treatment. In the

British Medical Journal, of the 21st June, 1857, some of its contents are given by Dr. Haldar, Professor of Anatomy at Calcutta, who states that, after a bite from a cobra, the blood of a human being becomes somewhat albuminous, and that the contraction of muscular fibres of the heart is greatly weakened, especially in the ventricles, and that the external Dr. Haldar also says, that the oxygen of the blood is absorbed and destroyed.

These observations were carefully examined by Dr. Fayer, but the accuracy of the latter, in the blood examined by him, was not uniform, as they were not seen in each case, when the blood was examined in this way and yet the microscope employed always with a very high power—Powell and Ireland's 2,000 magnification.

We have not a claim when the this condition of the blood, which has been thus twice, but not uniformly, met with by careful observation, cases of cobra poisoning, exists in any other cases of Alterations in the Elements may be due to mere meteorological causes. Thus, Dr. F. H. Watson, in a paper read before the Society of Arts in 1855, and printed in his journal, states that, during the course of a series of observations made in India, in Bombay, on the direct influence of climate on the human body, he found that, after a period of continued rain, as during the monsoon, the blood became deteriorated in a remarkable and striking manner, the chief alteration being found to occur in the blood corpuscles; as ascertained by the microscope, under every to the precaution for securing truthful results. The change presented itself in two ways; in the first, the red globules of the blood were found to vary, and that to a considerable extent, some of them being not larger than half the ordinary size; but the most striking feature was that the great majority of them, instead of presenting their usual smooth appearance, were found studded with small highly-refracting granules of a fatty nature. The blood cells had undergone, in short, *fatty degeneration*. I may dwell for a moment, *in passant*, on the cause of this condition, highly interesting as it is to the pathologist and practical physician.

As Dr. F. Watson observes, "an excessive amount of moisture in the air interferes materially with the functions of those two great filters—the lungs and the skin, and the result is that the vital conditions of the blood itself become altered, and ultimately the general health impaired." Hence the great importance of removing from the air a certain quantity of its moisture (in cases where this is excessive) when possible; or if not of removing the individual to a drier climate. This condition of the blood is worthy of further examination.

All this, doubtless, changes in the blood are induced by the action of the cobra, and more frequently, as Dr. Fayer tells us, in those cases where the poison is taken slowly, it is, I am inclined to think, with less, more probable, that the true nature of cobra poisoning is to be found in the local and degeneration of the nervous system, and that there is

no treatment should be directed to it essentially. Like other poisons which threaten to destroy the life of the patient in their progress, this will wear itself out in *time*, and the great object of the physician should be to *prolong life from its own extract*, to keep the individual alive by various means, until the poison has passed away. *The time*, between the bite and the heart, to arrest, as much as may be, the introduction of the poison into circulation, and *such time*, to withdraw what may not have been taken in, is such practice *to be a work*, and commendable itself as well to civilized nations. *Stimulants* are invaluable, there being nothing of this description probably better than the regular *Form de Luce*, of which Ammonia (the professional remedy) forms the basis. *Oxygen*, when available, as recommended by a recent writer, would, I have no doubt, be of great value. I once had the satisfaction of aiding in the recovery of a patient almost dead from delirium, by the careful inhalation of oxygen; and I have ever since been much impressed with the advisability of using it in all cases of depressed nervous energy, with a view to rousing a patient, and enabling him to "trifle over" his temporary depression. And if, as Dr. Haldar believes, the enormous number of cells (containing germinal matter) in the blood, and destroying its vitality, are formed at the expense of the inhaled oxygen of the air, another powerful reason is furnished for its use.

With regard to the vaunted remedies, so-called specifics, for snake-bite, the profession generally has no confidence in any of them. Mr. Hook, writing on the subject in the *Lancet* of February 14th, 1868, says that no antidote is required, all that is necessary being *cautious and forced exertion*. "Es the value of this I can bear a very fair amount of testimony, having been called upon, in the course of a long service in India, to treat several cases of cobra poisoning. In all, where measures having for their object the prevention of lethargy were fully carried out, the result was eminently satisfactory, and the patient recovered.

There is one point in connection with this subject which I commend to the consideration of the homœopaths! If, as has been suggested by a recent writer, *a dose of the poison itself is the best of all remedies*, homœopathy may see, in this fact, an illustration of the principle—"similia similibus curantur," and say why, if we have the poison of the "trigon-cephalus-hachesis" (a species of rattlesnake common in Brazil as a polychrest in our homœopathic materia medica for the bite of the rattlesnake, why should we not have cobra poison as an antidote for the bite of the cobra? But if, in all such cases, it should occur in any gentleman, professing the doctrine of Hahnemann, to try this remedy, I would suggest, not the introduction of the poison by the mouth and stomach, which would probably be followed by vomiting and ejection of the antidote, but the hypodermic method.

"Let it be excretion in corpore vili." Let him begin with a snake-bite.

ON THE ACTION OF THE COBRA POISON.

By J. FAYER, M.D., F.R.C.S.,

Journal of the American Eclectic Medical Association, Vol. 1, p. 294.

(Continued from Vol. 11, No. 12, p. 294.)

SECOND SERIES.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

On the 10th March, 1868, the following experiments were made in continuation of those reported in the *Indian Medical Gazette*, of the 1st June, 1867.

A full-grown pyras mucosus, or rat snake (*dhamin*), was bitten at 12-27 p. m. by a fresh cobra about two-thirds grown, and of a light brown color. The cobra was made to close his jaws in three different places at about two feet from the head of the pyras. The bitten snake was then placed in a large box, with a wire front. 12-33.—Pyras moving about actively in the box and darting out his tongue frequently. 12-40.—Seems very restless and uneasy; strikes at everything that approaches the cage. 12-57.—Active as ever. 1-2 p. m.—No change. 2-30.—No change.

There was no further change, and on the 13th the snake was quite well.*

The pyras, *dhamin*, or rat snake, is very active and vigorous. The individual bitten must have been about eight feet in length. The cobra was about half the size.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

A varanus flavescens, or *ghobadamp*, about two-thirds grown, was bitten at 12-38 p. m. in two places,—one on the thorax behind the foreleg, and one on the inner side of the hindleg, by a powerful, full-grown, and fresh cobra, about six feet in length, of a lightish color, and distinctly marked with the spectacles on his hood. 12-42.—The lizard lies quiet in the cage. 12-46.—Crawling about in the cage; slightly drags his forelegs. 12-55.—Very quiet; looks sluggish; eyes partially closed. 1 p. m.—Very sluggish; was taken out of the cage and placed on the floor of the room, where he moves. The forelegs are dragged with the palmar surface of the feet turned upwards, but when much roused, he is able to use the forelegs. 2-30.—Appears a little less sluggish; looks about. 2-45.—Replaced in the cage; has moved about in the cage, but is sluggish. Hardly responds to stimulus when roused. He remained for the rest of the day in this state. 11th March, noon.—Sluggish, and can hardly be roused. 4 p. m.—He died quietly.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.

The cobra that bit the pyras in experiment No. 1 of this series was bitten by another fresh cobra of a much darker color at 12-45. The snake was made to close his jaws in two places, and, as in the other experiment, not only could the fangs be heard to penetrate the scales, but the marks of the puncture were visible, and the poison was left on the surface of the part near the punctures. The snake, after being bitten, was returned in a cage like that of the pyras in the 1st experiment. 1-2 p. m.—Lying quiet, apparently unaffected. 1-15.—No change. 1-35.—No change. 2-30.—The only change is that the snake is on the alert, and keeps his head erect with hood spread.

No further change occurred after this, and on the following day the snake was well. It may be noted that this cobra was partially exfoliating his skin at the time when the experiment was made.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.

A pyras mucosus, about six feet in length, was bitten by the large cobra at 12-54. Before closing the snake's jaws on the part the scales were scraped off. Blood was freely drawn by the snake's fangs from bites inflicted in two places. (This was the same cobra that bit the varanus). 1-8 p. m.—Appears sluggish; wound bleeding freely. 1-16.—Perfectly active, and moves about rapidly in the cage. 1-35.—No change.

There was no apparent change in the snake all that day or the next, except that it may have been little more sluggish. He died during the night of the 11th, being found dead on the morning of the 12th.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

A very large bull-frog, "*rana tigrina*," was bitten severely in the inner side of the hindleg in two places, at 1-57 p. m.

by the same large cobra that bit the pyras and varanus, 2 p. m.—Frog walks about; bitten leg rather dragged. 2-5.—Seemed anxious to escape, and gave several cries of pain or fear. But there was no further change; the frog remained quite well on the 13th.

The blood of the pyras and of the varanus was examined by Dr. Colles and me with a one-eighth inch object-glass and the A eye piece. There was nothing suggested of any change in the corpuscles.

It is to be remembered that death in both these cases occurred very slowly, allowing abundance of time for any blood change to take place. Of course the appearances in reptilian might be expected to differ from those in mammalian blood; but I doubt if there be anything to indicate such changes as Dr. Hallorl describes in human blood after the cobra bite.

However, the matter is still *sub-judice*, and requires many experiments, and those often repeated, before any decided conclusion can be formed.

It is especially noticeable that the deaths took place very slowly, and that the effects of the bite, even of a very powerful cobra, were much more gradually manifested in the cold than in the warm blooded animals. The frog escaped altogether, but this may be owing to the cobra having been somewhat exhausted by biting two other animals. I can hardly imagine that it was so; for when the snake's mouth was opened to make it bite the frog, the poison dropped freely from the fangs. It is probable that the quality, rather than the quantity, may be affected by the rapid discharge of the fluid, and that the exhaustion is caused by the excitement of rage as well as by that of fear, to which, under the circumstances, the snake is naturally exposed. The experiments were carefully conducted, and the snakes were handled by the same old man who officiated on a former occasion. Dr. Jerdon and Dr. Colles were present with me during the experiments.

A BRIEF REPORT OF THE OUTBREAK OF CHOLERA AT AJMEER DURING THE RAINY SEASON OF 1867.

By T. MURRAY, M.D.,

Civil Surgeon.

As soon as it was known that cholera had broken out among the pilgrims at Haridwar, all proper precautions were taken, and arrangements made by the Civil and Police Authorities of this district, to prevent pilgrims from passing through Ajmeer. These arrangements were successfully carried out; and I have been informed that very few pilgrims passed through this station. Those who were returning to Gzerat and the Deccan, branched off between Jeypoor and Kishengurh, one party taking the road through Marwar, and the other that through Mlywar.

Reports had reached us of the prevalence of cholera in various parts of Marwar for more than a month before the disease made its appearance at Ajmeer.

The first case occurred here on the 26th of June, the second case on the 28th; both terminated fatally in a few hours. They were treated in the dispensary, and I made every enquiry with a view to tracing the introduction of the disease to stray pilgrims from Haridwar, but failed to do so. No fresh case occurred for ten days, until the 9th July, when three more cases occurred, of which two proved fatal, and one recovered. Again there was but one case on the 15th July, when there were two cases. Between the 15th and the 20th there were twenty-two cases. From the 1st August to the end of September, 248 cases occurred.

Although the epidemic continued in the city from the 9th July to the 30th September, only 247 persons were attacked, out of a total number sixty-five died, or 26.31 per cent.

As there was no particular atmospheric disturbance when the

* This snake died on the 17th, without any obvious cause.

REMARKS ON THE DRY-EARTH SYSTEM OF CONSERVANCY.

By W. J. MOORE, L.R.C.P.

Surgeon, Rajputana Political Agency.

No less an authority than Mr. Simon (*a*) has recorded his deliberate opinion that typhoid fever and malignant cholera belong to the great group of diseases which infect the ground. A scarcely less able sanitarian, Dr. Budd (*b*), has also stated precisely similar views. The name recently conferred on typhoid fever, now admittedly a common Indian malady, *viz.*, "pythogenic" fever, is indeed strongly suggestive of its origin. Murchison (*c*) unhesitatingly asserts that typhoid, pythogenic, or enteric fever, is often generated spontaneously by faecal fermentation. Budd (*d*) also records his conclusions that in typhoid fever, as in small-pox, the *materia morbi* is excreted at the part where eruption occurs, and that, therefore, the secretions of the intestines contain the contagious matter, which may be conveyed to other parts in sewers, in night-soil, in water, &c. With regard to the propagation of cholera, the experiments on dogs, and even on human beings, elsewhere quoted, appear to demonstrate satisfactorily that the choleric fecal material introduced into the system will excite choleric manifestations, notwithstanding the recent offer of himself for experiment by an enthusiastic and unbelieving Parisian.

The arguments and facts adduced by Theirsch (*e*) of Vienna, and by Petoukoff (*f*), are well known, and therefore do not need recapitulation here. These observers are of opinion that the cholera feces during their decomposition develop a peculiar poisonous material, which will, if introduced into the human body, induce the disease again. Acland (*g*), Snow (*h*), Carpenter (*i*), Alison (*j*), Booth (*k*), Sutherland (*l*), Billie (*m*), Boyd (*n*), Snow (*o*), Gibb (*p*), Parkes (*q*), and some other authors of scarcely less weight, have arrived at almost similar views, the majority asserting that, like the fecal matter of pythogenic fever, choleric discharges do not require the putrefactive process to render them poisonous. As it is certain that cholera always follows the great lines of human intercourse, and is frequently checked by deserts and conveyed on rivers; and as there is no recorded evidence of its occurring in one locality before a person could have travelled from an infected place to such locality, so it is equally beyond doubt that, if communicable by other means, the most general *modus* by which it is propagated are the choleric evacuations.

Similarly, there are other maladies which affect the soil, and which are disseminated by fecal material. The researches of Von Siebold of Munich, of Kuehnenmister of Zittau, and of Nelson of Birmingham, have proved that cystoid worms are transferred to the human alimentary canal by being eaten in uncooked or half-cooked fish. But Kuehnenmister (*s*), Leuckart of Giessen,

Humbert of Geneva, and more recently Dr. Cobbold (*t*), have with certainty traced the origin of some forms of entozoa to dogs and pigs. Thus the *gastrophilus* *ovifera*, the embryo of the *tocho solium*, has been found in the structures of such animals. Kuehnenmister caused a condemned criminal to take cysticerci from the hog, which quickly developed into tape-worm, and Humbert of Geneva experimented on himself with like results. It is also proved that the *ovarium* of sheep proceeds from ova—the first embryo of *tocho* found in the excreta of dogs. In every female entozoon there are myriads of ova. It is estimated that, in a female ascaris, there are sixty-four millions of eggs. The dirty habits of sheep, of swine, and even of cattle in India, are well known. They will all eat human or other ordure when not well fed and tended. From the millions of ova of entozoa which must be deposited on the ground, there is little wonder that some at least find a germinating nidus in the quadruped, to be afterwards transferred in butchets' meat, in the form of echinococi, cucurci, or cysticerci, to the biped man, in whom they develop their third growth or transformation, becoming one or other variety of worm. The prevalence of tape-worm among the flesh-eating Mussulmans, and among Europeans, especially in Upper India, has been referred by more than one author (*u, v*) to the dirty habits of sheep and cattle; and Cobbold (*t*) suggests that all excreta of animals or human beings, known to have worms, should be burnt. "If they are simply allowed to drop and lie on the ground, multitudes of embryos escape destruction, and are eaten by cattle."

There are then three diseases, *viz.*, typhoid fever, cholera, and worms, which we know to be disseminated by the medium of fecal material. It is also probable that other maladies, such as dysentery, may spread in a somewhat similar manner. Hence arises a very grave question as to the advisability of the much vaunted dry-earth system of conservancy. It is a trite saying—"There is nothing new under the sun." It is certainly unquestionable that to the Revd. Mr. Moule belongs the credit of the presumed beneficial application of dry-earth for purposes of conservancy, as now practised. But that earth is a deodorizer was known and noticed long before that gentleman proposed his system (*w*). Every cemetery is indeed a proof of this quality in earth. Such properties have been known to the Italians, and acted upon in Italy, for ages (*x*). Whenever, in that country, night-soil is removed, it is customary to mix it thoroughly with dry-earth. A hole is dug in the immediate neighbourhood of the cess-pool, and a hole drilled low down into the latter. As the odour or "soak" flows, it is mixed with, and deodorized by, earth, and taken away without unpleasant effluvia being perceptible. But there is every difference between a mere deodorizer and a disinfectant. There is reason to believe that earth does not act with any great certainty in the latter capacity. It is well known that some soils, such as clay and alluvium, retain organic matter for a lengthened period in an undecomposed form. It is on record that, some few years ago, a body of prisoners were employed in making a road in the Goochout-District (Madras Presidency); and that in cutting away the soil, they came upon the remains of a number of persons who had died of cholera during the famine year of 1838; and that cholera immediately broke out among the workmen. Again, a party of coolies, employed on a railway-cutting near Salem, opened a spring of very clear water. Those who drank of it were seized in a few hours with cholera of a very severe type,

(a) Disregard of the Laws of Health. *The Times*, June 17th, 1861.(b) *The Lancet*, July 25th, 1859.

(c) On the Contaminated Fevers of Great Britain.

(d) *The Lancet*, December 6th, 1856.

(e) The Author's "Health in the Tropics."

(f) *Therapeutical Essays*, 1853.(g) Petoukoff, *Medical Propagation of Cholera*.(h) Acland's *Memorial of Cholera*.

(i) Snow on the modes of propagation of Cholera.

(j) Carpenter's *Inquire Water, a cause of disease. Association Medical Journal*, 1854.(k) Alison on Cholera. *Edinburgh Medical Journal*, 1851.(l) Booth on Ferment and Air in Evacuations. *Sanitary Review*.(m) Sutherland's Report on Cholera. *Essays*, 1854.(n) Billie's *Researches on Cholera. Medical Journal of India*, No. 1.(o) Billie, *The Lancet*, July 24th, 1859.(p) Snow, *ibid.*(q) Gibb, *Sanitary Review*, No. 2.(r) Parkes's *Hygiene*, p. 141.(s) *Annals of the Medical Association of London*, 1855.

(t) On Human Entozoa.

(u) Gibson, *Medical Essays*, May, 1857.

(v) The Author's "Health in the Tropics." Article "Dogs."

(w) Cobbold on Human Entozoa.

(x) The Author's "Health in the Tropics."

(y) Report from the De. for the progress of Hygiene, &c., of

(z) *Journal of the Association of Medical Officers of the Army*, 1854.

and when the rise or fall approaches this small variation, there is serious danger to life. No wonder that the power of resisting external heat or cold being temporarily lost from some mere functional derangement perhaps, or from fatigue, that the gain or loss of temperature should affect so rapidly and fatally as it does the nerve-centres, for they, the most essential, are at the exact time the most delicate structures in the body.

In coup-de-soleil or insolation, then, in its simple uncomplicated severe type form, the body having lost its power of resisting a rise of temperature from functional derangement or fatigue, we find the following sequence of events:—

1st.—Total paralysis of the entire system of cerebro-spinal nerves.

2nd.—Necessarily, immediate suffocation from loss of power to move the lung case.

3rd.—Stoppage of the heart's action in from three to five minutes.

Here we have profound coma, rapidly followed by apnea, and this again by asphyxia and death. Cases as rapid as this have been seen and recorded; they are extreme, and for the most part occur in the direct rays of the sun; a more or less sudden check to the perspiratory action of the skin, probably, is the primary cause of the heat entering the body; the skin becomes dry, and the temperature rapidly rises in the fierce heat of a noontide sun to that point at which the nerve-machine can no longer do its work of generating the polar force "neuricity." Consequently all motion ceases, the heart, from its own inhibitory nerve power, being the last organ to succumb.

"A knowledge of extreme cases," says Sir Thomas Watson, "tends to throw light upon those that lie between the extremes." There are innumerable variations of degrees of severity, from the slight feeling of faintness, or sickness, or suffocation, which passes off with profuse perspiration or the use of a cold douche, or diffusible stimulant, to the sudden and complete paralysis, when, as Sir Pimall Martin says, "life does not seem to ebb or flow, but rushes torrent-like away." Many complications arise from intemperance in eating and drinking, especially from excess in spirit-drinking, in which the cases are so mixed up with the poisonous effect of alcohol, which has been very correctly described as death by slow apnea, that it is difficult to define exactly in many cases whether the fatal effect was due to heat or alcohol, or how much to one, and how much to the other. Still in all cases the sequence of events is the same in the so-called vital organs; the nerve-machine suffers first, then the pneumatic, and lastly the hydraulic.

In some sudden cases, called by the American physicians "sun-syncope," it may possibly happen that the heart is stopped by the shock to the nervous system, and we have death by aæthia. This is an uncommon result, though abundant and undoubted evidence is nearly always obtained, in the results of post-mortem examinations, of death by suffocation in sun-stroke; in fact, quite as often as in cases of suffocation from other causes.

When cases of insolation are rife, there is always intense atmospheric heat, which is fit to be oppressive by nearly all who are exposed to it. There are no aerial currents. The atmosphere is still, no wind and breeze, however gentle, cool by passing over the moistened and sensitive skin, and causing evaporation to take place more rapidly. The slightest current arising in the heated air always relieves the oppressive feeling just in proportion to the strength of that current. If, I believe, simply the stillness of highly-heated and rarefied atmospheres that causes this sense of oppression.

The time of day or night in which men fall victims to the effects of heat vary. If it happens in the day, it is generally from direct exposure to the heat of the sun; but it very commonly occurs amongst English soldiers and others in the night,

or towards the early hours of the morning before sunrise. Now this is the very time in the four and twenty hours when the so-called vital energy is at its lowest point. I believe it has been shown that more deaths occur from all diseases between 2 and 3 A. M. than at any other hour in the four and twenty.

Moreover, it is often found that the nervous energy has been still further depressed in unavailing efforts to digest an intemperate supper of very indigestible aliment. One medical officer told me that, whilst at Mooltan in charge of a European regiment, he found this was invariably the case, and though men were brought to hospital in the middle of the night insensible with coma and stertorous breathing, they quickly recovered on the contents of the stomach being removed by the stomach-pump, and, with a glass of brandy-and-water as a stimulus, they were fit for duty in from two to three hours.

It is true, as a rule, that no irretrievable mischief is done to the nerve ganglia from the effects of heat. In one case only, out of many *post-mortem* examinations referred to by Sir Pimall Martin, was any organic lesion found, and in the cases given by some American physicians, who have paid particular attention to the natural history of insolation, nothing to account for death was found in the brain or spinal cord. This being the case, how does death occur, and how can we "obviate the tendency to death?" I have shown the form of death in the sequence of events; and assuming that the mischief done to the centres is *not* irretrievable, and that with time, and reduction of temperature by the cold douche, particularly to the head and neck and upper part of the trunk, their activity and their life will return again with their normal temperature, provided always that the circulation of the blood has gone on meanwhile. In the slightest simple cases, the cold douche rapidly restores action to the circulatory system suffers materially; and though a man may have ceased to breathe, reflex action is excited by the cooling of the douches, and respiratory movements return. In many cases, however, the coma is more profound; no reflex action can be excited in time before the lungs have become congested, and the heart has ceased to beat. It is well ascertained that in all cases of complete suffocation (and complete insolation is complete suffocation) the heart ceases to beat within four minutes or a half. Another minute only elapses before it is irremediably motionless, or can only be partially and temporarily recovered. In these severe cases then of coup-de-soleil with complete paralysis, we must supply for a time another power to take the place of the lost one. We must keep the circulation going at the same time that cold is applied, by performing artificially what the man himself has lost the power to do naturally, namely, to respire. This will give plenty of time for the cooling process to take place.

It is very well known that the circulation can be maintained for a length of time without the intervention of the cerebro-spinal system, and this physical truth has been taken advantage of in cases of poisoning by opium, and in suspensions of nervous action from strokes by lightning, by the late Sir Benjamin Brodie with success; but I am not aware that it has ever been fully and publicly demonstrated to be necessary to the saving of life in insolation. In severe cases, when the cooling process cannot be carried out in time without artificial aid, I have three cases to relate,—one which I may describe by the aid of the respiratory movement; one which was, in his own life, brought up in the light of a miracle; and one in which the victim's condition was tried for murder.

CASE I.—SIMPLE SEVERE TYPE FORM OF INSOLATIO OR COUP-DE-SOLEIL.

About 3 P. M. of an April day, while in camp in the North-West Provinces, a sepoy of the regiment, of which I had the command, was brought into the hospital tent, to all appearances a complete

was not a case of simple typhoid fever, but of a more severe form, such as is sometimes seen in the tropics. The symptoms were those of a severe typhoid fever, with a high temperature, delirium, and a profuse eruption of the skin. The patient died on the 14th day of the illness.

The patient was a young man, aged 20 years, who had been in the hospital for some time. He had been suffering from a severe typhoid fever, with a high temperature, delirium, and a profuse eruption of the skin. The patient died on the 14th day of the illness.

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**CASE II.—SIMPLE STUPIDITY FORM OF INSULATIO;
TOTAL PARALYSIS, NOT IMMEDIATE, BUT FOLLOWING
QUANTITATIVE SHOCK IN NATURAL ORDER.**

This case has often been quoted, but never understood; it is given in a chapter of the Second Book of Kings, and was believed to have been a miracle, a supernatural, or beyond the power of man to understand. The Samaritan woman summoned Elisha in haste to attend her son, and Elisha came, seeing his servant Gehazi on his way to lay his staff on the child. "Then I did, and, *and, and, and*," but "neither voice nor touch," and he went back to his master, and reported that the child was not dead. "Where has the son," the child's father said, "and I laid upon my bed?" And "he went in thither, and shared the staff on them, and, and, and prayed unto the Lord. And he went in, and lay upon the child, and put his mouth to his mouth, and his eyes upon his eyes, and his hands upon his hands." "And the child smoozed seven times, and the child opened his eyes." The staff was laid on the child's forehead, and he was given restorative power was given to him, so that he was able to rise, and then Elisha put on some positive physical aids. "And he lay upon the child," and from the point of view, he not only infused an artificial respiration, but insulating; he must necessarily breathe himself in contact with the child. Thus he varied the pressure on the child's chest and abdomen with every breath he took; but the chief object of him to re-energise his distended, red, and carried to the surface of circulation by the energy of his of the fifth which surely the membrane of nose and mouth and skin of face, feet, and hand smoozed seven times." And the motor nerves, being stimulated, sent a nervous energy downwards to the last extremities, and the patient was again restored to vigorous activity, and he lived.

It is not a case of simple typhoid fever, but of a more severe form, such as is sometimes seen in the tropics. The symptoms were those of a severe typhoid fever, with a high temperature, delirium, and a profuse eruption of the skin. The patient died on the 14th day of the illness.

and a temperature of 104 degrees, with a pulse of 120. The patient died on the 14th day of the illness.

**CASE III.—SIMPLE STUPIDITY FORM OF INSULATIO;
TOTAL PARALYSIS, NOT IMMEDIATE, BUT FOLLOWING
QUANTITATIVE SHOCK IN NATURAL ORDER.**

The patient was a young man, aged 20 years, who had been in the hospital for some time. He had been suffering from a severe typhoid fever, with a high temperature, delirium, and a profuse eruption of the skin. The patient died on the 14th day of the illness.

Though the last case is not illustrative of the use of artificial respiration, positively, it is negatively; and it is a case of a man who has been long in this country would die, but for a moment at being one of us.

This complete case is a case of a man who has been long in this country would die, but for a moment at being one of us.

In extreme cases of an insulative measure in the insulative form, which are the most common, with complete partial paralysis, partial coma, and partial loss of circulation, increasing the other, the first by loss of nerve-force, the second by allowing rapidity as noted above to circulate, skin and to the respiratory movements will be found of great service. Finally, it must always be remembered that, whilst it is necessary to maintain the circulation, it is also essentially necessary to cool down the temperature of the body; the generation of nerve-force being being arrested by heat, (or never get any form of insulative without heat, atmospheric heat) will not be restored until the excess of heat is removed.

(To be continued.)

**CHOLERA IN THE BUNOO DISTRICT IN
OCTOBER, 1897.**

By F. W. R. DEANE,

Medical Resident Surgeon.

Illustrated by W. H. Chappell, Esq.

The epidemic of cholera which prevailed in the Bunoo District in October, 1897, was a case of a man who has been long in this country would die, but for a moment at being one of us.

When it was known at Bunnoo that cholera had appeared in the adjoining district, a preventive line was established south of the Khattuk Hills on the 1st of June. The disease had thriven in the Bunnoo district at a point Cis-Indus, even earlier in the season; but the Indus was not placed under quarantine until the 18th of July. Camps were organized in both directions, *viz.*, at Latummar, nineteen miles distant, and at Nowrang Serai, sixteen miles from the station. There was no sign of cholera in the former camp, but in the latter there were, on the 31st July, about 150 soldiers returned from Lalough, and on that day two sepoy of the 3rd Regiment Punjab Infantry were there seized with cholera. On the following day a third man was attacked. The camp was then broken up, the men were dispersed in two directions, and no other cases occurred. Two of these three men survived, but the third died; he had been waiting on one of the other cases when he was himself attacked. All three were Doghrals who had travelled together for fourteen days, and had come from the Kangra District, in which cholera had prevailed within sixteen days of their homes, when they had started to rejoin their regiment. The deceased left his home on the 15th July, and met the other two on the 19th; they were joined by four others during the journey, and the party reached Nowrang on the 29th July, where the three men attacked occupied the same tent. None of this group of men had passed through any infected place. The inference is, therefore, that the moribific agent was carried by them for a period of eighteen days or more, and that it was fostered into activity in the close atmosphere of a tent filled with human beings, with bad water for an exciting cause. No evidence as to the origin of the infection at their homes could be obtained. The contagious nature of cholera here receives an illustration in the incident of the man waiting upon his comrade having been *last* attacked; and the usefulness of prompt dispersion was also satisfactorily demonstrated. But the first subject of the disease had not been removed from the tent for several hours, and this delay engendered the succeeding cases.

On the 19th September a kahar of the 3rd Punjab Infantry, who had recently visited Nowrang Serai, died of cholera at Bunnoo. On the 20th a baesiee died in the city with very suspicious symptoms, but no connexion between these two men could be traced. In both instances every precaution was taken (to be detailed hereafter), to destroy all traces of the disease. Subsequently, another baesiee, in the same locality in the city, was attacked with cholera, and survived. It is not improbable that the Kahar, who had just returned from Nowrang Serai, had received infection on the site of the former quarantine camp, the Native Doctor in charge of which had neglected to have the *coffeta* buried. The circumstance of the two watermen being affected in the same locality, after the lapse of a fortnight, is suggestive on the one hand of local contamination, and on the other of the destruction of the moribific agent by adequate means, as no more seizures occurred in that quarter.

The preventive lines were perseveringly maintained by the authorities in both directions until the 1st October. And although the epidemic raged immediately upon both lines, the scourge was effectually kept back up to this period; but unfortunately the barrier was now prematurely removed on the Kohat side. The disease had raged in the Kohat district since June; it had spread into the Khattuk Hills bordering on Bunnoo, where it was still prevalent on the 1st October. The necessity for the continuance of strict quarantine on this side was therefore obvious. But the means of defence were no longer available in the opinion of the Deputy Commissioner, who also labored in the very mistaken idea that cholera is harmless in the cold weather.

The landmarks which had proved so effective for so long a period were thus unadvisedly set aside, and, as a natural con-

sequence, cholera quickly glided over the border. The removal of quarantine, and the inroad of the disease, were clearly the cause and effect. There was nothing unusual or unreasonable in the weather at this period. From the Khattuk Hills towards the station of Bunnoo, on the river Kohat stretches a barren waste called the Thull. The sparseness of the inhabitants on this unfavorable tract retarded the approach of the pest, but, on the 2nd and 3rd October, a few suspicious cases were heard of on the edge of the Thull near the Kowm. On the 4th October was the Friday fair day at Bunnoo, and on this day two undoubted seizures were traced within six miles of cantonments. About noon the Assistant Commissioner was advised to prohibit the people from the fainted quarter coming to the gathering; which movement was attempted, but it was ineffective from the lateness of the hour. On this day Wazerees from the Thull, and Khattuks from the Hills, rife with cholera, flocked to the fair after a long enforced absence. One hillman, who came to visit a brother in the 5th Punjab Infantry lines, and who also slept in the Police Barracas, died suddenly out in a field where he had been detained, to all appearances, by exhausting exertions. The 5th Punjab Infantry and the Police each had a fatal case of cholera; and there was a case in the city on the 4th October, besides two deaths reported. And then it was apparent that the dreaded scourge was upon us in earnest. On the 5th and 6th there were fresh cases, after which the number increased daily until the 9th, and then decreased until the 11th, on which day the epidemic was extinguished in the city. There had been altogether, from 4th to 11th October, thirty-two seizures in the city, of whom twenty-eight died. But only 21 of these had been brought for treatment; the remainder died untreated.

The disease had appeared simultaneously in scattered cases at all points in the cantonments, where it lingered later than in the city. The following Table exhibits all the cases treated in city and cantonments during this short-lived outbreak:—

Date.	CITY.		CANTONMENT.		REMARKS.
	Number treated.	Number died.	Number treated.	Number died.	
October, 1867.	4	1	
" 5	1	
" 6	2	2	2	1	
" 7	1	1	2	2	
" 8	7	7	2	...	
" 9	7	5	2	1	
" 10	1	1	1	...	
" 11	1	1	
" 12	
" 13	
" 14	1	...	
" 15	2	...	
" 23	1	...	
Total ...	21	17	13	4	

A striking contrast will be observed in the ratio of mortality between the city and cantonment, but the reason was plain. The patients from the latter were received early for treatment, while those from the city were brought too late. Cholera is curable in the first stage, by which is meant before complete collapse; and this is why we hear of so many cures for cholera. The cantonment cases had all but two, entered upon the collapsed stage on admission. The terrible nature of the malady was manifest, but there was absorptive power remaining, and consequently time for treatment. Whilst the city people, excepting a very few, were brought in a *hopeless state*, and were beyond the aid of medicine. But it was considered an important step to remove persons so affected out-

CASE OF FATAL MELENA.

By SURGON A. M. TIPPLETS,

1st Bn. 10th, H. M.'s 5th Footers.

As the subject of melæna, and its relation to scorbutic taint, seems to be exciting some interest just now, I send you the following case, which occurred last autumn in my regiment.

Mrs. B., a healthy young Englishwoman, aged 21, arrived in India in December 1865. She suffered in September last from a slight attack of remittent fever. On the 5th of the month she had considerable diarrhoea, which, however, stopped towards evening. On visiting her in the evening of the 6th, I found her feverish and irritable, and recommended her (as she had a child to look after, and her husband was also ill) to go to the Female Hospital. She did so, and was seen by the Apothecary at 6 P. M., and also at 9 P. M., when she was free from fever, and expressed herself as being better than she had been for some time. At 1:30 A. M. on the morning of the 7th, the Apothecary was called to her, and found her, as he described to me, as it is in collapse from cholera, and passing large quantities of dark-colored blood. This continued till about 2 A. M., when she died. I may add that plenty of vegetables of all kinds had been served to the regiment for the whole year, and that the above patient had been living as nurse to a lady in the regiment for some months previous to her attack of fever, and that consequently her food had been of a better quality than it might have been in barracks.

Feroozpore, 15th January, 1868.

WOUND OF THE SPLEEN; REMOVAL OF PORTION; RECOVERY.

By B. N. HART, M.R.C.S.E. & L.S.A.L.,

Civil Surgeon, Roohar, Chota Nagpore.

The case of which I am about to speak is in many respects one of considerable interest, and makes suggestions of a most important nature to my mind. It is as follows.

Moharaj Singh, a Rajpoot, aged 30 years, was brought to the Charitable Dispensary at Ranchee on the 10th December, 1867, having been wounded with a tulwar on the 6th over the region of the spleen.

On examining him at 4 P. M., I found a long incised wound, through which a portion of the spleen, about the size of one's hand, protruded. Around this, the wound had, to a measure, contracted, and it was impossible to return the protruded portion within the cavity of the abdomen; nor do I think that, had it been possible, I should have attempted it, feeling confident that there would be more chance of the patient's dying from peritonitis if I did so, than under the treatment which I resolved upon.

The appearance of the patient was anything but satisfactory, and predicted all hopes of a favorable prognosis with any degree of certainty, and I consequently suggested to the Magistrate the advisability of taking his deposition.

At the seat of the wound the patient did not complain of much pain when quite at rest; but he had an anxious expression of countenance, with hurried respiration. Pulse 100. There was a short hacking cough, increased on taking deep inspiration, evidently caused by diaphragmatic irritation, and which might at first have been supposed to be pneumonic; but the stœtoscopic made it clearly clear that the lung was unimpacted. There had been little or no hæmorrhage, and the protrusion of the spleen, to a certain extent, was a most fortunate result of the injury, inasmuch as it completely blocked up the opening, forming a plug which prevented the air entering the peritoneal cavity, and thereby lessening the chance of inflammation. As the patient had been a good deal upset by the shaking of the doolie, I deemed it advisable to get him a good night's rest, and ordered gr. ℥ of morphia to be given directly, and again at bedtime—and a mixture of liquor anaon. aced. ʒi; vini uterini ʒss; rhei, sulph. ʒss; op. cam. lod. ad. ʒiij; ʒ every four hours. Diet—milk and arrow-root.

December 11th, 7 A. M.—He has passed a tolerably good night; cough still troublesome; tenderness and pain over the

umbilical region on pressure; pulse 100; tongue slightly furred, with red edges and tip; he is thirsty and rather feverish. Repeat mixture; morphia gr. ʒ statim. It now became a question what was to be done with the protruding mass of spleen. To remove it at once would be fatal from hæmorrhage. I therefore determined on ligaturing it by first passing a ligature tightly round, and then gradually over it. 6 P. M.—Repeat morphia gr. ʒ; e hydrarg. Chlorid. grs. iss at bedtime.

12th, 7 A. M.—On the whole, the patient is better; pulse not so inflammatory, 95; edges of tongue less beefy; he has passed a good night; cough less since yesterday; not so much tenderness on pressure over the umbilical region; respiration 21; continue mixture and repeat e-dolie and morphia pill twice a day. As circulation was still going on in the protruding portion of spleen, I passed another crucial ligature over it, and dressed the wound with lint, dipped in a lotion of liquor potasse permanagnatis.

13th, 7 A. M.—Appearance around the wound healthy; patient weaker; pulse 100; he passed a good night; repeat mixture and pill ʒ at intervals. A little soup to be given.

14th, 7 A. M.—Improving; bowels moved; repeat medicines, 5-30 P. M.—Has had fever during the day; countenance thurst; skin hot and dry; pulse 105; respiration 21; has slept during the day, and taken sage and milk; add sps. æther. n. xvij and antim. tart. gr. ʒ to each dose of mixture; repeat morphia pill at bedtime.

15th, 7-30 A. M.—Pulse 90; has passed a good night; fever less; skin and tongue moist; no pain, except on tightness of the ligature. Repeat mixture and pill. Diet—soup, sage and milk.

16th.—Doing well; no bad symptoms; wound looking healthy.

17th, 7 A. M.—The ligatured part was offensive, and only attached by a small portion, which I divided with a scalpel. The portion of spleen thus removed weighed three and a half ounces. A branch of the splenic artery spouted out, and there was a little oozing of blood. The vessel was twisted, and the oozing stopped by the application of tinct. ferri sesquichloridi and slight pressure. The wound itself looks perfectly healthy, and a diffuse inflammation has taken place between the wound of spleen and the sides of the wound opening the abdominal wall, which is a most favorable result. Bowels have been moved. Diet, cinchona ʒi, spt. anaon. aromat. ʒxxx, sps. æther. sulph. ʒxx; ʒ. haust. ter ʒi.

Repeat morphia pill (without calomel) twice a day; wound to be strapped.

18th, 7 A. M.—Has passed a tolerably good night, though the cough is somewhat troublesome and irritable; wound looks healthy; he has no special pain; pulse 100 (probably accelerated by my visit); tongue clean. Ordered a little rice with soup, milk and bread. Continue mixture and pill ʒ.

19th.—Morphia gr. ʒ, pulv. scilla grs. ii, pulv. ipomee grs. ii; m. tr. pill.—to be taken morning and evening. Add ʒi vini ipomee to the mixture.

20th.—Decidedly improved since yesterday; pulse 95; respiration normal, and cough less; bowels moved. Repeat mixture and pill ʒ. Continue strapping the wound, which is healthy.

21st.—Progressing favorably; discontinue morphia pill in the morning.

22nd.—Healthy matter secreted on the surface of wound; continue strapping.

23rd.—Doing well; cough not quite so frequent. Oral mixture. Oe. jejunis ʒss to three times a day.

From this date there was a further abatement in the symptoms, excepting cough and sleep, when he was quite able to walk, which was daily ensuing up. The wound contracted, and the patient entirely healed. He returned to his duties at 1st January 1868, when he was discharged with a good cure, and apparently none of the usual sequelæ of such a case. As the result of this case, I think it is a fair inference, I shall continue to keep him under a constant observation.

The Native Doctor carried out all my directions most conscientiously, especially as to the diet of the patient, and he is doing him perfectly quiet and comfortable. I think it is probable, already the effect to result of the cure.

The Indian Medical Gazette.

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"You have chosen the path, not of politics, but of science. Among those who have preceded you in it, and in our own particular department, we find some of the best historians of Burmah history, and I will not do you the injustice of supposing that there is any one among you who will not prefer the reputation of Harvey or the Hunters to that of nineteenth-century writers of the notices and publications of the periods in which they lived."—SIR HENRY SLINGEN DOLBE.

A BURMESE MEDICAL MISSIONARY.

It will be welcome intelligence to those of our readers who are interested in the progress of Medical Missions in India, to be informed that a youth named Mowng Shaw Loo has recently returned from America, where he went, about ten years ago, to qualify himself as a Medical Missionary, with a view to practising his profession, and preaching Christianity, amongst his countrymen in Burmah. In 1858, young Loo, then a boy of 16, impelled by a love of knowledge and a desire to benefit his countrymen by true religious instruction, and stimulated by Mrs. Ingall, left the little school in Calcutta where he was being educated, and embarked as a cabin-boy on board a vessel bound for America. There he took service as a gardener, educated himself at the University of Lewisburg in Pennsylvania, and finally, by the assistance of friends and the profits of some lectures on Burmah, took the degrees of B.A. and M.A. there. He subsequently graduated in Medicine at the Medical College of Cleveland, Ohio.

Dr. Loo lately landed in Calcutta from the *Naba*, on board of which vessel he delivered one of his lectures, and where he so succeeded in exciting the curiosity of his fellow-passengers, that, before landing they presented him with a purse of sovereigns, to hold with a testimonial conveying their appreciation of his conduct.

In placing on record this little episode in the history of Burmah, we would express our earnest hope that Dr. Loo's labours would be successful in arousing a genuine Christian spirit, even to the most remote of the great island, nearly fifty years ago, by the peaceful and good way, which the late President of the Big Presidential Commission to the King of Burmah, Sir H. Slingsen Dolbe, proposed to take to the King, and which would have been successful in the same way, had it not been for the

their aims and delinquency. If he is to be taken as a simple of the Burmah, we should argue well of the nation; by better examples of perseverance and industry in attaining the object of an honorable ambition have been shown among the ranks of our own, or of any other, profession.

A PLEA FOR HAKEEMS.

ON perusing lately the census returns of the North-Western Provinces, we were deeply interested, and strongly impressed, by that part of the returns which gave information as to the number of hakeems and baeds in the different districts of that Government. From this we gather that there are 7000 practitioners of medicine and surgery in that division of the country, giving a proportion of one medical man to every 4285 of the general population.

This is quite irrespective of Government employes, who are European Officers, supplemented and assisted by Sub-Assistant Surgeons and Native Doctors educated entirely on the European system. These, taken together, are, comparatively speaking, very few in number, and widely separated in their medical creed and practice from the baeds and hakeems, with whom they have the least possible intercourse and sympathy. The numbers of native, or, as they may be called, indigenous medical practitioners, are, according to the census, very unequally distributed among the different districts. This probably arises from the fact that many of the hakeems follow other occupations than the art of healing, and in some districts have chosen to be returned according to these different employments. In other districts again, the descendants of hakeems, though not practising at all, have sought to be returned under the distinctive title of hakeem or baed, and thereby swelled the list inordinately and incorrectly.

Be this as it may, the number of medical practitioners is large in every district, and they form an important body in the community among whom they live. Under native dynasties, past and present, members of the profession have occupied many of the highest positions, both social and political. In native society, all over the country, these men still hold their own, and are greatly respected, ministering as they do to the troubles of both body and mind of the people, and generally possessed of a superior education.

Under British rule, however, they have disappeared altogether from political life, and socially have little or no standing in European society, where they are virtually ignored.

To understand this difference in the estimation in which they are held by these two classes, it must be remembered that the European is brought up to have confidence in medical men, trained on what may be styled the scientific practice of medicine, and refuses to believe in the purely Asiatic system, which is a compound of traditional practice with a large admixture of superstitious omens, lucky days, and religious ceremonies of a fantastic or idolatrous character. To the unenlightened portion of the community, which comprises all but a fraction of the population, these adjuncts to medical treatment are very essential, and without their employment there would not be the confidence in the skill of the practitioner which is now accorded to him. The Asiatic, as held, is nothing new or original to the European, and completely laid to rest and laid to rest.

appointed by Government, would preside at the examination, and sign the certificate of attainments. By this means, it is probable that a far superior race of young men, sons of hakeems, would come forward for local Government or Municipal employ, and an impetus be given to the *indigenous* practitioner to acquaint himself with European science. He would of course get this most effectually at the present Medical Colleges, which must be kept up, in any case, to supply the Government service as at present.

Some may think that, in thus encouraging native hakeems and baedis, assistance is being given to the propagation of error; but it cannot be said that our plan of leaving them unassisted for the last century has done anything to benefit them or the country. We have indeed attempted for medicine what has failed with the masses of the people, *viz.*, the giving a very high European education to a few, hoping thereby to reach the masses. This plan has miserably failed; and now that education is being extended to the masses, let us try some means by which the many thousands of hakeems may be reached and gradually benefited. European Surgeons would do well to acquaint themselves with the books used by the hakeems and baedis in their neighbourhood, for without a knowledge of these, they can with difficulty influence the native practitioner for good.

We may confidently predict that if something of the kind proposed is carried out, we may see much good as the result, and that, in place of the present double system of medicine practised in India, we will have Western science engrafted on Eastern customs and requirements, the fusion of the two being far more in accordance with the wants and wishes of the people than either system separately.

Space forbids our enlarging more on this deeply interesting subject, but we cannot resist recommending it to the consideration of Civil Surgeons and Civil Officers generally. In their hands lies the power of gradually effecting a vast reform in Indian medicine, and in time benefiting the world at large, by adding to its stores of medical science the experience of the acute observers of disease in India.

"AIDE-MEMOIRE," &c. FOR INDIA.

In his recent "Report on the Jails of the Lower Provinces," Dr. F. J. Moutat has very judiciously suggested the annual preparation of an Indian Medical "Aide-Memoire" for the special use of medical officers fresh from Europe. He advises that it should be "similar in form and character to the annual volume published by the Director General of the Army Medical Department in England, but free from all extraneous matter, and as condensed as such a record can be rendered, without diminishing its practical value. It should exhibit every form and variety of tropical disease likely to be met with, as to locality, season of occurrence, type, mode of treatment, &c., &c. It should be illustrated by a carefully-prepared map, or disease-chart, showing clearly the habitats of different diseases, such as cholera localities, fever spots," &c.

The suggestion is an admirable one, and well worthy the attention of the Government. It is notorious that, at present, a young medical officer, recently arrived in India, goes forth to his duties in the country but very imperfectly acquainted with

tropical disease. Some acquaintance will have been acquired by the Assistant Surgeon who has had the advantage of going through a course at Netley; but *even he* will only have been, to a certain extent, familiarized with the chronic forms of disease. Of acute disease he knows nothing; and yet it is with this that he is more frequently called to do battle. To the lamentable deficiencies of many who have been brought for the first time face to face with serious disease, how many of us who have lived long in India can testify. An Indian "Aide-Memoire" would undoubtedly help to inspire the newcomer with confidence; whilst, as an *annual* volume, and *illustrated annually*, as Dr. Moutat suggests, (to show the intensity or otherwise of disease in various years,) it would be a document of inestimable value to practical physicians, to sanitary reformers, and the public generally. To epidemiological societies, in whose hands it would receive its maximum of development, it would be a great boon, for there is probably no finer field for the study of epidemic and endemic disease than India. But, to ensure its success, the preparation of such a volume should be confided to a medical officer endowed with special aptitude for the work.

And here we take leave to remark, *en passant*, upon the vast importance of the Head of the Medical Department being furnished with every medical report, and every medical publication of State importance which issues from the press, not only in this country, but in others. Dr. Moutat alludes to the difficulty which he, the "head of a department in which sanitary questions are continually arising," had in obtaining a copy of the Bengal Sanitary Commissioner's Report for 1865, "which is already out of print!" It would be well if, in addition to every report and publication in India, (which should be sent to the Principal Inspector General's Office as a matter of course,) the authorities in England would cause to be sent to it also whatever of public interest was published at home or abroad. We would name, for example, the forthcoming works on the subject of "Army Hospital Transport" by Professor Longmore of Netley, and Professor Gurlt of Berlin, both being brought out under Government authority.

Before leaving the subject of the "Aide-Memoire," we would refer to the large relief map in use at Netley. On this map the different military sites in India are portrayed in relief, with the strength of the military force stationed at each. There are at present only two of these maps in existence,—one at the India Office, the other at Netley; and their cost is £50 each. Such a map (on which we would recommend the introduction of disease spots) is very useful for purposes of instruction; and we should be glad to see it introduced into the Medical Colleges in this country. Hereafter, the cost will, with increased experience in construction, and increased circulation, naturally be reduced.

But, after all, an "Aide-Memoire," however well illustrated, gives *look* knowledge only. What we should like to see introduced into our educational system is *clinical instruction* in one of our large metropolitan hospitals in India. In days gone by, a young medical officer had opportunities of becoming acquainted with tropical disease at the General Hospital, (to which he was often attached for a few weeks or more), in conformity with an old G. O. G. in C., dated 19th July, 1822, or whilst doing

Meeting of the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association.

The Fifth Annual Business Meeting of the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association was held in the Theatre of the Medical College, at 4 p.m., on Wednesday, the 5th February, 1868. Dr. Chuckerbutty, President, in the Chair.

The Treasurer, Baboo Kanhay Lall Dey, proceeded to read the following Financial Statement:—

RECEIPTS.		DISBURSEMENTS.		BALANCE.		
Rs.	A. P.	Rs.	A. P.	Rs.	A. P.	
Balance of last account brought forward ..		Stationery ..		11	0	
659	7	6	Amount paid for purchase of Stationery ..	243	0	
Received subscriptions for the Bengal Medical Association from Members and Fellows—		Printing Charges ..		102	0	
For 1865 ..	12	0	0	Amount paid for purchase of candles, &c. ...	14	0
" 1866 ..	118	0	0	Amount paid for postage stamps ..	14	0
" 1867 ..	316	0	0	Print Contingencies ..	31	0
" 1868 ..	316	0	0	Amount paid for social fare and other petty charges ..	276	0
For 1865 ..	22	0	0	Establishment Charges ..	209	0
" 1866 ..	66	0	0	British Medical Association ..	50	3
" 1867 ..	11	0	0	By Balance ..	402	14
" 1868 ..	11	0	0	Cash in hand ..	1,333	7
Total Receipts ..	2,091	0	0	Total Disbursements ..	1,333	7
Total Balance ..	858	0	0			

Dr. Ewart asked whether the accounts had been audited, as it was decided, at the previous meeting last year, that they should in future be. He thought that it were the accounts audited, the Treasurer would be relieved from a heavy and unnecessary responsibility.

Dr. Chuckerbutty replied that no audit of the accounts had been held.

Proposed by Dr. Kenneth B. Stuart, seconded by Dr. Juggobundo Bose, and carried unanimously, that the Treasurer's Report for the year 1867-68 be passed, and that an Auditor for the year 1868-69 be appointed at this meeting.

The following gentlemen were elected unanimously as Office-Bearers for 1868-69:—

President—Dr. Norman Chevers, proposed by Dr. Ewart, seconded by Dr. Chuckerbutty.

Vice-Presidents.—Dr. Fyfe, proposed by Dr. Colles, seconded by Baboo Kanhay Lall Dey.

Dr. Ewart, proposed by Dr. Chuckerbutty, seconded by Dr. Juggobundo Bose.

Dr. Juggobundo Bose, proposed by Baboo Dwarka Nath Mookerjee, seconded by Baboo Kashi Kinkar Mitter.

Secretaries.—Dr. Colles and Baboo Dwarka Nath Mookerjee, proposed by Dr. Chuckerbutty, seconded by Dr. Juggobundo Bose.

Treasurer.—Baboo Kanhay Lall Dey, proposed by Dr. Chuckerbutty, seconded by Dr. Chevers.

Council.—Dr. Kenneth B. Stuart, proposed by Dr. Chevers, seconded by Dr. Chuckerbutty.

Mohavi Tameez Khan, proposed by Dr. Juggobundo Bose, seconded by Dr. Chuckerbutty.

Dr. W. K. Walker, proposed by Dr. Chevers, seconded by Dr. Ewart.

Dr. T. E. Charles, proposed by Dr. Ewart, seconded by Dr. Colles.

Baboo Kashi Kinkar Mitter, proposed by Baboo Kanhay Lall Dey, seconded by Baboo Lakshmi Narain Bose.

The President, the Ex-Presidents, and other Vice-Presidents, the Secretaries, and the Treasurer are *Ex-officio* Members of Council.

Proposed by Dr. Ewart, seconded by Dr. Chuckerbutty, and carried unanimously,—"That Dr. C. R. Francis, on his return to Calcutta, be requested to undertake the duty of Auditor for the year 1868-69."

Proposed by Dr. Chuckerbutty, seconded by Dr. K. B. Stuart, and carried unanimously,—"That the Secretaries be directed to prepare a new form of application for the payment of overdue subscriptions, and to submit the same to the Branch at its next meeting."

Dr. Ewart proposed the following addition to the Bye-laws of the Branch:—

"No paper on any abstract subject shall be read at any meeting of this Branch of the British Medical Association which has not been submitted to the Council at least fourteen days before such meeting; and it shall be the duty of the Secretaries to specify the subjects of such papers upon the notices of such meeting issued to members. Accounts of detached cases, and of recent pathological specimens, not to be subject to this rule."

The question whether the meeting was competent to enact fresh bye-laws, of which notice had not been given at a previous meeting, having been referred to the President, was decided by him in the affirmative, inasmuch as the Bye-law referred to the alteration or annulling of existing bye-laws, but not to the enactment of new ones.

Dr. Chevers having seconded Dr. Ewart's proposal, it was put to the vote, and carried unanimously.

The following gentlemen then agreed to read papers at the ensuing annual meeting:—

Dr. Ewart (Address in Medicine), Dr. Juggobundo Bose, and Baboo Dwarka Nath Mookerjee.

On the proposal of Dr. Ewart, seconded by Dr. Colles, Tuesday, the 10th March, 1868, was appointed as the day for the next annual meeting of the Branch.

Votes of thanks to the President and Office-Bearers of the past year, and to the Editor of the *London Medical Gazette*, having been recorded, the meeting was closed at 5-30 p.m.

The usual monthly meeting of the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association was held in the Theatre of the Medical College on Tuesday, the 11th February, 1868, at 8-30 p.m. Dr. S. G. Chuckerbutty, President, in the Chair.

Proceedings of last meeting read and confirmed.

Dr. Chevers asked whether, in the opinion of any of the members present at the last meeting, phthisis had really increased in frequency in India, of late years. He himself thought that the inhabitants of pukka houses were the most frequent subjects of the disease.

Dr. Chuckerbutty considered that phthisis was only better known. It is most common in this country among the descendants of the early Portuguese schisms and among Native Christians generally; next among Hindoos and Eurasians; and last among Jews and Musalmans, who appeared to suffer comparatively less from it, or at least seldom sink under it.

Dr. Juggobundo Bose said that, in his experience, phthisis was common among the descendants of the Portuguese colony at Goa.

Dr. Beaton believed that the increase of phthisis in India was more apparent than real. The course of the disease was not the same here as in Europe. In India death was caused rather by inanition than by destruction of the lung-structure.

reason a most consistent introduction to many of the other very remarkable statements contained in his letter.*

I remain, yours truly,

COLIN C. VALENTINE.

CAMP SIBREWATY, March 20th.

Review.

An Enquiry into the Suitableness of certain Articles of Army Hospital Equipment for India. By Surgeon-Major CHARLES R. FRANCIS, M. B., Lond. H.; M. S. Intson Ar. p. Bengal.

IMPORTANT as the subject of transport for the wounded on field service is, especially in India, it is strange that no official measures were taken by the India Office at home to procure models of the most recent improvements in this department, while the International Exhibition was going on at Paris. Early in 1867 the Supreme Government applied to the Secretary of State, requesting that models or drawings of the best means of transport for wounded men might be sent out to India; but no attention whatever seems to have been paid to the application. The duty of collecting information on the subject for the use of the Supreme Government was voluntarily assumed by Dr. Francis, and the results of his observations are given in the pamphlet before us. In it the articles which Dr. Francis has considered capable of being advantageously used in Indian warfare are described in detail, and, with few exceptions, illustrated. The principal articles are an ambulance—a doolie, made considerably lighter than that now in use, and intended to be borne by only two, instead of by four, men—and a light stretcher, for use more immediately under fire. In addition to these, Dr. Francis recommends the introduction of Collinneau's havresac and companion, as being lighter than those supplied to the British Army, and better suited for hill warfare.

The ambulance recommended by Dr. Francis is a modification of the Italian model, and is intended to carry fourteen wounded men, all seated, besides the driver and two attendants; and is provided with a sufficient stock of medicines, food, water, &c., to render the inmates independent of other accommodation for two or three days. The doolie is so reduced in width as not to weigh above 30 lbs., instead of nearly 60, the weight of those issued to the army of China in 1860. The roof has been simplified, and is arched, instead of being flat, and two light parallel poles, like those used in the Bareilly "dandii," are provided, instead of a single heavy one. Dr. Francis also advises the supplying, to each field hospital, of a number of "short-tail's wheels," a pair of which can be readily attached to a doolie or stretcher, so as to convert it into a wheelbarrow, capable of being managed by one person.

It is to be hoped that Government will not allow Dr. Francis's valuable suggestions to be simply shelved, but will appoint a Committee of Officers, having a practical knowledge of the subject, to report upon the models and drawings which he has had executed, and to decide what further modifications, if any, can be advantageously made in them. Dr. Francis himself has employed his furlough at home to good purpose by directing attention to this subject, in which India, (relying perhaps too much upon the universal doolie, which, where expense and the number of camp-followers are not considered, is certainly the very best conveyance for a wounded man) is so far behind the rest of the world.

Short Notices of Recent Books.

The Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication. By CHARLES DARWIN, M.A., F.R.S. 2 vols. London: Murray, 1859.

The latest sensation in the world of publications is Mr. Darwin's splendid work—the first instalment of a series—on the

* We only learnt, after our last issue had been published, that the Meteoric Institution was to be spared.

We are glad to learn that Dr. Valentine did "speak a word in favor" of the school. That he did, is no such necessary conclusion as the Editor, after our opinion as to the ability of the reviewer, it merely shows that he is not one of those "who has influence with the Malay Raja" in the matter.—Ed., I. M. G.

influence of Artificial Selection as an argument in favor of his theory of the "origin of species." We say splendid, because, whether our sympathies be with or against the advocates of evolution, we cannot but admire the patient perseverance of a philosopher who has accumulated so vast an array of facts as those in the volumes before us, and who has displayed so much calmness in laying down his opinions, and so much boldness in replying to the latter reasonings in which his opponents have indulged. The two portions of the present work, though they are both branches of the evolution argument, are, nevertheless, somewhat distinct. In the first volume the author takes up the subject of domestic breeding, and shows that, in the case of cattle, dogs, cats, fowls, rabbits, pigeons, and tables, fruits, and flowers, the principle of "artificial selection" has been employed to produce a great number of different groups of beings from individual species. He then points out the remarkable osteological and other structural features which separate these breeds from each other, and calls attention to the fact that, were the mode of origin of these breeds unknown, no naturalist would hesitate to class them as distinct species or even genera. There are strong points in his favor. In reply to the objection of his adversaries, that these breeds are fertile *inter se*, thus differing from true species, he says, though not in these words:—"I grant it; it is certainly an argument which I ought to get over, and which I hope to overthrow completely one of these days. Meanwhile, I would contend that domestication tends to diminish the sterility of wild animals, as shown by the fact that, though two original species are sterile *inter se*, their domestic descendants are quite fertile with each other." He adds also, that there are certain peculiarities of the reproductive organs which may account for the sterility of natural, as distinguished from artificial, species. The subject of connecting links is another difficulty which has been already partly met by Professor Huxley, and which will be considered by Mr. Darwin in a future treatise. The second volume treats of, and elaborates to expose, the mysterious laws which control the tendency of animals to vary. In this Mr. Darwin seeks to support an hypothesis which he terms *pangenesis*, and which is very like the panspermia of old Bonnet, according to which the ovum or germ contains molecules which represent every portion of the body, and from which, accordingly, the various mechanisms which constitute the organism are subsequently developed. As we have already said, whatever way the reader's mind inclines, he will find Mr. Darwin's new work a veritable store-house of wonderful facts and biology; and whether he forms any conclusion as to the truth of the evolution doctrine or not, he, at all events, cannot fail to be benefited by examining the immense accumulation of truths which Mr. Darwin has here arranged together.

Chemical Notes for the Lecture Room. By THOMAS WOOD, F. R. S., F. C. S. 2nd Edition. London: Longmans, 1868.

Mr. Wood has just issued a second, and somewhat enlarged, edition of his modest little pamphlet, which, in its new form, takes the shape of a small handy and accurate manual for the beginner. The arrangement of the matter in paragraphs, with separate headings, is extremely convenient, and though the grouping of the subject is not in the sequential order which we should desire to see, it is in accordance with the mode commonly adopted. Mr. Wood does not follow the old school, at least not wholly, and we therefore find that the new notation in its accompanying terminology find places in his pages. It seems to us, however, that had he completely adopted either the old or the modern method exclusively, he would have done better for his readers than by the existing plan, in which both are somewhat combined. His definition of equivalence is by no means a bad one, and his explanations of the terms "unvalent," "divalent," "trivalent," and "tetravalent" are remarkably clear. We do not think that the author should have so completely ignored the subject of organic chemistry as he has done. Had so, we are at a loss to think how the modern method of notation can be fully expounded, without much reference to the phenomena presented in the transformations undergone by organic substances. This is the great defect in Mr. Wood's excellent little book, and we trust that, in a future edition, he will express his conviction of the justice of our remarks, by introducing just so much organic chemistry as shall be essential to the explanation of the new notation.

The First Steps in Chemistry. By ROBERT GALLOWAY, F. R. S. 5th Edition. London: Churchill, 1868.

One would say that the fact of a book being in its fourth

It is currently reported that Inspector General Mount intends to resign. The reason given is that he feels unable to take another tour of duty in India; it is said that he will be succeeded by Dr. Dane, the senior in the list of Deputy Inspectors General of Army Hospitals, and who is now at the Cape of Good Hope.

Professor Huxley has commenced a course of lectures at the Royal College of Surgeons, on the Anatomy and Physiology of the Invertebrate Animals, which is being well attended. It is so long since the School of Mines Professor gave a course of public lectures on this subject, that the expression of his views is looked forward to by biologists with no small amount of interest. The facility with which Mr. Huxley divides himself within short intervals to very different problems in natural science is not the least remarkable of his mental qualities. It was only on Friday night last that he gave a lecture to a most fashionable audience at the Royal Institution. His subject was "The Connecting Links between Reptiles and Birds," and his lecture was both attractive in delivery and startling in some of the analogies demonstrated by the lecturer. Taking the Iguanodon, Comognathus and Archaeopteryx as examples, he threw quite a new light on the restoration of the first and second, which he proved, as far as inductive proof could go, to be the unquestionable connecting links between birds and reptiles.

The appointments in Charing Cross Hospital have turned out as I think I anticipated in my last letter. Dr. Shaw has been elected to the chair of Physiology, and the post of Pathologist has been given to Dr. Henry Green, a distinguished pupil of Virchow and Kuhnle. The office of Assistant Physician, vacant by the resignation of Dr. Clowne, will be given without opposition to Dr. Alexander Levers. Dr. H. Myr Lawton has been elected to the Assistant Physicianship at St. Mary's Hospital, which was recently vacated by Dr. Maatkam, whose duties as Food-Inspector are too numerous to admit of his holding an hospital appointment.

There is at last a promise that the new nomenclature of diseases, which the Committee of the College of Physicians have been for ten years preparing, will soon be published. Let us hope that the news is true. The synonyms will be given in French, German, Italian, and Latin.

A number of enthusiastic hippobagists have been making a move to introduce horse-flesh into this country as an article of diet. A dinner was given at the Langham Hotel the other day, at which nearly a hundred and fifty guests sat down. All the dishes, *pièces de résistance, entrées, soups, &c.*, were from the horse, and horse alone, and the result seemed to be eminently satisfactory to the majority. I doubt, nevertheless, that the custom is likely to become popular here; and in the event of its becoming popular, I doubt its advantage; for the demand for horse-flesh would soon raise the price, and it could never compete with that of the ox, which is more easily reared, and more rapidly fattened. The flesh is certainly not so palatable as even medium beef; but it is eatable, though it leaves a peculiarly harsh taste upon the mouth for hours after it has been eaten. However, *chacun a son goût*, and fashion is so capricious that the *goût* for horse-flesh may become general. *Credit Indiae Apollinae* *non erit.*

We have lost one of our most illustrious scientists, a man whose name is known wherever science lives, and whose years were spent in the study and investigation of natural phenomena. Sir David Brewster has long gathered to his fatherly and physical science has but its next luminary. Brewster's name is familiar to all as the inventor of two of our most interesting scientific toys—the kaleidoscope and the stereoscope. He may be said to have been one of the first to recognize the important principles upon which the spectroscopes of Brunsen and Kirchhoff is based; but the discovery of this important instrument of research cannot be attributed, as some of our daily papers have attributed it, to the Scotch physicist. Sir David's optical inquiries are among his ablest and most valuable researches, and his memoir on the structure of the crystalline lens had a high merit in its day. He had reached the ripe age of 87, and was originally intended by his parents for the Church. I have also, ere leaving my obituary, to announce to you the death of the elder Herapath, the Toxicologist, whose name your readers will remember in association with the Palmer trial; and also that of M. Serres, the great French Comparative Osteologist, whose memoirs on the extinct *Mastodermium* have so elaborately detailed the character of that extraordinary fossil mammal.

Last, though not least, I must say a word about universities. The graduates of the London University are still divided as to the candidate whom they should support. One party is favorably

disposed towards Mr. Lowe, and an equally large faction mean to support Sir John Lubbock. Both candidates are highly qualified as representatives of so distinguished a body of graduates as that of the London University, and the University is pretty much in the position of the gentleman in the "Bazaar's Opera" (I) who could be so "happy with either were 'tother dear charmer away." The question of the Irish Universities is *sub judice*, but no one even guesses the result. There are three parties,—one in favor of a National University, one in favor of a Roman Catholic University, and a third in favor of supporting the Queen's University. I don't envy this Government the task of selecting between the three.

The Progress of the Medical and Collateral Sciences.

A new Magneto-electric machine has been invented by Mr. Browning, of the Minories, London, which promises to be of some service in electro-therapeutics. Our readers are aware that the mode of obtaining an induction current from a revolving magnet is different from that in which the primary current is produced by a galvanic cell containing a pair of plates. In the first method the currents produced are being constantly reversed; in the second the currents are usually in one direction. The magnetic machine is, however, very frequently used by medical men in the treatment of lead palsy and other forms of paralysis, the reason for its use being its cleanliness, and the fact that the currents are produced by simply turning round the handle of the instrument. But since R-mak and others have shown that the influence of constantly-reversed currents is different from that of a current constantly in one direction, the contrivance which Mr. Browning has devised promises to be of service. We hope to be able to describe the instrument in detail on a future occasion; but for the present we will confine ourselves to stating that but one hobbin is employed in the apparatus, the magnet being bent into a circle. Electricians will understand from this why the currents are always in the one direction.

The Microscope in Toxicology.—The last number of the *Microscopical Journal* contains a most valuable contribution to the science of medical jurisprudence by Dr. Guy, of King's College, London. The paper to which we refer is upon the subject of microscopic sublimates; and it shows how important is the assistance to be gained in medico-legal investigations by the employment of the microscope. Dr. Guy gives numerous illustrations drawn from photographs, so that the student need have no difficulty in "making up" the subject. The method of procedure is as follows:—Take, for instance, strychnine. The whole part of a grain is placed on a clean porcelain slab, within a ring of glass about the eighth of an inch thick. Over this ring is placed the piece of glass which is to receive the sublimate, and the slab being then placed on a rotator stand, and a lamp applied beneath it, everything is ready. As soon as the heat is applied, a fine white sublimate forms on the glass, and may then be examined; indeed, as many as six distinct specimens may be obtained in this way. The color test may now be tried with the sublimate; and it gives even better results than with the strychnine itself, but the most reliable reagent is carbazotic acid,—a test which enables us to recognize distinctly the presence of so small a portion of the alkaloid as the whole part of a grain. The sublimate being placed under the microscope, and a drop of carbazotic acid added, a very curious phenomenon presents itself. After a minute or two, a number of circular nucleated granules appear, and grow gradually into the most exquisite arborescent forms, or else form a number of peculiar claw-like bodies which are highly characteristic. It would occupy too much space to give further details, but sufficient has been said to show the value of the new method.

The development of the Spermatozoon has been recently investigated by M. Valente St. George, who also confirms the previous researches on this subject by Ber. Schwann, Siebel, M. St. George fully corroborates the view of Köllner and other histologists, that the zoosperm is in great part a modified nucleus; but he points out a curious fact in regard to the

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

A COURSE OF LECTURES ON THE PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE OF MEDICINE, DELIVERED AT THE MEDICAL COLLEGE OF BENGAL.

BY CHARLES R. FRANCIS, M.B.,

Late Officiating Professor of Medicine, &c., &c., &c.

PART OF AN INTRODUCTORY LECTURE.

MY YOUNG FRIENDS.—There is a portrait in this theatre which has a revolution in your country,—not one of those revolutionary periods which have so often marked by bloodshed and carnage, but of an epoch pregnant with momentous blessings to India. It is an out-of-the-way, but a tale which cannot be told too often, how your ancestor, Bubo Medoosoolan Gupta, the pioneer of these blessings, in the courageous act by which he defied his country's scorn, established that firm basis of moral and medical education, which it is now your good privilege to enjoy. In the remote periods of time the science of medicine in India, was of the rudest description. Heaven-born truth by the Hindus it was held void to be, and transmitted to us thus by Indian in one of the sacred writings—the *Ayur Veda*—it consisted of erroneous doctrines founded upon a most fanciful anatomy, physiology, and pathology. Men, indeed, could hardly be expected of a science based upon an anatomy which taught that the novel “constituted a centre from which a vascular system, including 40 principal vessels, emanated upon a physiology which declared that these vessels were destined to convey blood, air, bile, and phlegm to all parts of the body, and upon a pathology which maintained that disease depended either upon derangements of one or more of these humors, or upon the entrance of gods or evil spirits.” An approximate only to a knowledge of the structure of the human frame was obtained by inspecting the bodies of the lower animals. And even these were not carefully dissected. A portion of the various worms and tissues was effected by long steeping in water, and by scrubbing the body with a “kind stiff brush made of bamboo or hair.” The skin was then rubbed off, and the subjacent parts exposed. But to obtain a correct knowledge in this way, of structure, of muscles, of nerves, and blood vessels, was of course impossible, and therefore, although your ancestors have received credit for knowing anatomy, it is evident that their knowledge could have extended very little beyond the bones.

Whilst the light, with which your forefathers were illumined in their exercise of the art of healing, was of the feeblest and most uncertain a scepticism, its cultivators in another part of the East were making decided progress. The Greeks were acquainted with Bumbo learning, but they went on beyond it. In their needs, the necessities of medicine and surgery were steadily taught the masters of Italy, and attained considerable eminence under the guardianship of Cimon, Dioscorides, Melichon, and Podalirius. The resemblance of Dioscorides, the reputed son of Apollo, and his two sons Melichon and Podalirius, to Pishsha, the proprietor of the Ayur Veda, the offspring of the sun, was, after returning the Ayur Veda from their father, became the model of all details of the gods, is very remarkable. It has, as you now discern, was the origin of medi-

* It must be remembered that our Hindu medicine and surgery were very superior to what we find in Greece at the same time, we both countries having under a great despotism, which may be supposed to have attracted the fact of their not having been cultivated on a sound anatomical foundation.

† In these days, there was a great deal of difference between the surgeon and the physician.

cine, both in India and in Greece! Then came philosophy, physics, metaphysics, and anatomy; Pythagoras, Plato, Aristotle. And with them came Hippocrates, that ancient master of our art, whose opinion was respected as the voice of an oracle, the Homer of his profession, and the devoted lover of his country; in the service of which he preferred to die rather than acquire distinction at the court of a foreigner.

Coming down to a later period, we find our science flourishing, after the destruction of the great Alexandrian school, in Arabia, in the hands of its eminent professors, Ghien, Rhazes, Aboensis, Avicenna, and others. The doctrines of the Arabian school were introduced into India by her Mahometan conquerors; and these are the doctrines which, with those already promulgated in Hindu writings in the Ayur Veda, and subsequently in the writings of Charaka, and Susrata the Galen of India, are taught by the Hakeems, and Bairis or Koorjirjes, of the present day. Later on, we find the art of healing practised by the hands of Romans and Greek slaves. These last, however, practised so clumsily that they were banished.

Then Celsus arose. And now we approach the period when the light of our science was beginning to burn with a brighter lustre than it had ever yet done. In the 14th century, schools of anatomy were founded in Italy, France, and Austria; at Bologna, Paris, Montpellier, and Vienna. The art of printing followed in the succeeding century, and then the cloud was gradually rolled back from east to west, and England shared in the glories of the advancing science. Let us pass over the days of halber surgeons, when one of the privileges accorded to a regimental surgeon was, in consideration of his small pay (something like three annas a day), that of being allowed to “slave the regiment! Let us tell rather of John Hunter, of Sir Astley Cooper, of Sir Benjamin Brodie, of Tronsson, of Yarrow, who, with many others, have, in these later years, led the van in throwing a flood of light upon the arts of medicine and surgery. Thirty-one years ago, Lord William Bentinck, then Governor General of India, was anxious that *you* should share in the advance which these sciences had made in Europe, and the Medical College of Bengal was founded. Bubo Medoosoolan Gupta nobly stepped forward, and added the good work by lending the way in the prosecution of anatomical studies in the dissecting room. There were many who, in those early days of our college, doubted the success in India (where caste and prejudice were so strong) of the experiment of a medical education, which was to be based on a sound anatomical foundation. Could such sceptics witness now, the progress with which work is carried on in the three dissecting rooms by the students of all classes, English, Bengali, and Malabar, they would admit that the experiment had been eminently successful.

Your medical education, in the comprehensiveness of its details, is now equal to that of any student in Europe. The learning of the east has been reflected back with intense lustre from the west. It has thus returned to the cradle of its birth, and is now, through the instrumentality of the alumni of this institution, being carried into the remotest corners of the empire. Calcutta, with its Medical College and its other seminaries of learning, is the Athens of India. May you, my young friends, acquire and maintain the reputation for knowledge, equity, and honor which, in the *honor* of the Athenians possessed, and may you justly attain even to the respect as that Roman Emperor expressed to his medical instruction in Athens, the philosophical and scientific, and I would add the *morally* progress of *every* day.

As this is the only occasion which will set me free from the course, I can address to you a few words of advice, before passing back to my chair, which I have the honor to receive. I should, I may say, most to do, if I could, I will, I wish, I would, you to listen patiently to what I would wish to say to you. In

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expression, so overpowering is their simplicity, that it argues an ordinary nerve to stand unshaken in their presence." You have, in your anatomical staff, been singing a perpetual hymn to the Deity. But the beautiful machine, which you have hitherto beheld in all its spotless elegance and purity, you must now contemplate, under a far different aspect, an aspect which represents it defaced, injured, nay sometimes utterly destroyed, through the instrumentality of man himself. Man's intemperance, his follies, and his vices, too often cast a stain, which is perpetuated through generations, upon the exquisite fabric entrusted to his care. But it is not always so. The accidents of life, even which he has no control, may consign him to a bed of sickness and of suffering. By the mysterious decrees of Providence, a famine may spread over the land, and man be stricken down by disease, the result solely of want. In whatever way it be produced, human suffering must ever appeal to the best and purest feelings of our nature. Nor should it appeal in vain. To alleviate such suffering is surely the noblest achievement to which man can aspire. The power, to exercise this God-like function, it will be none your privilege to assume. Can there, any knowledge more precious, any acquisition which enriches us—if we use it rightly—nearer to the Divine Benefactor of the Universe? And here I would urge you to recollect that the sick who come to us for relief are human beings, something more than mere cases. If never convenient it may be to talk of their ailments as such amongst ourselves, in *the presence* we cannot be too careful. In our hospital, filled as it is with sad cases, in every conceivable form of injury or disorder to which the human frame is liable, who is the tender Death is daily engaged in each of his victims, and who we have no means of shutting out on a general view, the harrowing sights presented to all hospitals, there will be much to shock the feelings of those whose senses rendered more acute by sickness, must remain exposed to it. Let us not *add* to their aversion, to remain thus inevitably engendered. Let us be careful how we speak of our patient's disease in his presence; how, in the immediate hearing of the sick, we refer to a *part of anatomy* as if it had passed precisely in the dead-house. Many a patient, whose knowledge has been scared away from hospitals by thoughtlessness in this respect; and, whilst he has thus been deprived of the best professional skill, science has suffered, and the institution has lost a valuable opportunity for instruction. The advice which I give you now, applicable as it is in the performance of hospital duties, you will find of equal application in private practice. Patients are not *brave* in disease; and, by entering too minutely into the particulars of their ailments to themselves, you may create much unnecessary alarm. But I will not enter further into this last point. It requires great judgment to know how much you may deal out to the patient himself, though it is right that his friends should know the worst, if a fatal result be expected, yet not all the friends, for all have not equal intelligence, or equal control of feeling. It is better to select one in a family, and acquaint him or her with the true state of the case. Experience will be a valuable guide in deciding upon who to select.—the experience which constitutes the consummate physician. And here let me impress upon you the importance of cultivating a calm, quiet, courteous demeanour. The claims of it can only be appreciated by those who have been prostrated on a bed of sickness. Be kind to all. The outcasts of society will come to you, when all the world besides has closed its doors against them. Let these elicit your kindest sympathies. God only knows the strength of the temptation under which they fall. Deal gently with them in the ways into which they have fallen. *Do* kindness, coming like a ray of light from Heaven into the darkness to which the cold world has consigned them, mercy, with God's blessing, win them back to better modes of life. The mend and pauper, who has come to be almost an institution in Calcutta, that poor

wretched skeleton frame which, wasted by famine and disease, lies motionless in your cot, be copious our special care. Transported to the metropolis in search of employ, or denied to him in his own famine-stricken district, and which he has equally failed to secure here, he has at last succeeded to want and disease, and has been found perishing in one of the high ways of the town. The Police have brought him to the great haven of refuge, the Medical College Hospital of Bengal. Poor stricken creature though he be, and beyond doubt, the reach of human remedy, we must not be too ready to cast him into other hands, because our own are so full.

"Rattle his bones over the stones,

He's only a pauper whom nobody owns!"

It is not the treatment which we should thoughtlessly bestow upon him. Send him away indeed we must to the hospital, which has been especially set aside for such cases as his, but let us do it kindly, and only after having fortified him, with a little food, rest, and stimulant, for the fatigues of the journey. We must not think of our noble calling in a narrow spirit. Practising it faithfully and zealously, we must extend its blessings as liberally to the poor as to the rich, remembering that charity is the noblest of all virtues, and the cultivation of which will bring peace to ourselves at the last.

(To be continued.)

THE TREATMENT OF CHOLERA.

By CHARLES R. FRANCIS, M.D.

CONSIDERABLE advance has been made in the treatment of cholera during the past twenty years, notably in withholding opium, and in not withholding water. I wish now to speak of the collapsed stage especially. Opium is inadmissible and I enquired in the earlier stages, but these are comparatively manageable; in collapse it is poison. Still there is a great want of uniformity of action in the treatment of cholera, doubtless owing to the absence of uniform efficacy in any of the thousand and one-varying plans which have been given to the world. I do not pretend to say that my plan is infallible; at the same time, my sphere of observation has been a very wide one, and the class of cases which have come under treatment have been most unpropitious, nearly all being in a state of extreme collapse; and the mortality has been so uniformly low under this treatment, considering the condition of the patients, that it seems, *prima facie*, to be worthy of a trial. But, with the treatment must be associated an amount of care, nursing, and watching, that will test the patience of the most assiduous. Yet it is essential, for without it no treatment will avail. I would premise by saying that I do not offer to the profession what has not been tried by others; on the contrary, sceptical members of the profession in India have had recourse to it, and can testify to the efficacy of the system. Nor do I pretend to much originality in it. I am indebted for the chief part of the treatment to my friend, Dr. D. B. Smith, late Officiating Professor of Midwifery at the Medical College in Calcutta, who had himself become a convert to it after witnessing its success in the hands of Surgeon Lithgow, of the 75th Highlanders; and to Mr. F. Webber, late Civil Surgeon in Assam, for his views on the subject of cathartics, the successful administration of which first drew my attention to the value of a diuretic in the treatment of cholera. The principles of treatment which I venture to advocate in this disease are as follows:—

1. Keep up the flagging action of the heart by diffusible stimulants. This I believe to be best effected by twenty minims of spirit, ether, nitro, combined with the same quantity of spirituous arom, and a little water. This draught should be frequently repeated every half-hour, or even every quarter of an hour, until the pulse is felt at the wrist. Then it may be

within the last year or two, diuretics have been advocated by more than one author, and I conceive that this is a step in the right direction. Few would venture upon so powerful a diuretic as this: but let me assure those who pause that they may do it with perfect safety. Mr. Webber, Civil Surgeon in Assam, has used it for a longer period than I have, and his experience of its efficacy and harmlessness is even greater than mine. It is well to combine a warm tincture with the tincture of cantharides, and a little tinct. lavender. and sp. ammoniac and ether; and, looking upon cholera as a disease of malarious origin, I have always added a few drops of liq. potass. arsenitis to each dose, following it up, in convalescence, with quinine, with a view to avoiding all chance of a relapse: for relapses are occasionally not uncommon.

Frictions.—With regard to frictions, if agreeable to the patient, (and they often are in spasms), I would encourage them. As I said before, good nursing is a *sine qua non*. So much may be expected from this, that a professional friend, well known in medical literature, once said to me that, if he were ill with cholera, he should like to be put under the care of some maniac (some one with peculiar views of his own), because such a one would be sure to surround him with all the comforts of a sick chamber, and himself see that his instructions were fully carried out!

Remarks.—It too frequently happens that patients, at these times, are merely made the receptacles for drugs. In the crisis of an epidemic, "incoherent therapeutical experiments" are made with no result. We learn in sanitary science, but in the treatment—the medical treatment—of cholera we learn nothing. Some there are who deliberately do nothing when a patient is in extreme collapse. They say—"Oh, why worry him? let him die in peace!" Dr. Balfour, when advocating the use of strychnine in cholera, says:—"God help those who fall into the state of collapse!" Now it is just in this very condition that I have found the treatment above defined so successful.

It may be presumed that, in the course of a long residence in India, I have had opportunities of testing the efficacy of various so-called cures for cholera. It is so; and I may safely say that, *in collapse* in cholera, I have found nothing equal to this plan of stimulants, water, calomel, and cantharides, and unwearied watching. Cholera, *before collapse has set in*, may be combated in various ways, according to the nature of the epidemic, of the case, or of the constitution of the individual.

I would add, in conclusion, that great care must be taken, in these collapsed cases, to ascertain the condition of internal organs. Patients, when apparently recovering, will be dying, it may be, of pneumonia, without any external manifestation of the latent mischief. Natives are very fond of lying prostrate on their backs. This should be prevented; and attendants must be told to move them from side to side occasionally. Dysentery is a very common secondary disease, requiring early detection.

Recovery from collapse will depend very much upon the normal condition of the heart. If this organ be in any way diseased, it may be unequal to the occasion. Collapse in serofulous patients, or in those suffering from any constitutional affection, is rarely, or with great difficulty, recovered from. But where there is nothing of this kind, and where all the organs are healthy, the chances are favorable. As this communication (which appeared, in part, in the *Medical Times and Gazette* of the 8th February last) is passing through the press, a professional friend,* in practice in Calcutta, is testing the efficacy of the treatment advocated, and informs me that he is abundantly satisfied with it. Will others follow his example, and favor the profession with the result in these columns?

* Ten very bad cases were admitted into his hospital, and nine have recovered under the calomel plan.—*Ed., I. M. G.*

FIELD SURGERY WITH OUR FRONTIER FORCE.

By BAMELT W. SWITZER, F.R.C.S.I.,

Assistant Surgeon, 6th Punjab Infantry; Civil Surgeon, W. Ind.

THE Punjab Frontier Force is one that is necessarily kept always in a state of perfect efficiency, to meet the enemy at any moment. Check by jowl with their foes on our border, who are always turbulent and restless, the motto of my own regiment—*Ready, Aye Ready*—might well apply to the force in general. All our regimental and hospital establishments are kept up on a war footing, and a single regiment, a station garrison, or for that matter the whole force, could march at an hour's notice on the war trail.

This state of regular efficiency is highly conducive to perfect results, when the machinery so constantly looked after is required to move. The gear is always found to work smoothly: no screws are loose; no rust clogs the wheels. Information that a hill tribe is assembling for a raid, which may reach us day or night, does not necessitate the frantic rushing to and fro of Brigade Majors, excited Commissariat Officers, staff Adjutants, or Mounted Orderlies, but the troops, cavalry, artillery, or infantry, as may be required, fall in quietly, and are on their road to the threatened pass in half an hour; and if at night, in such silence that no one left behind knows anything of the move till morning, or the firing amongst the hills tells the news.

To such a force no doubt action is welcome, and fighting a pastime. Recurred in great part from the tribes, they go to fight the men glorying in their bravery and prowess; for it has often been the case in hill campaigns, notably in the Unbetta, one, as also in the fight I now relate, that their friends and relations amongst the enemy called out and taunted, by name, the individuals they recognised in our ranks.

Close to Kohat, amongst the border hills, the Beozootee lead their nomadic life, a tribe the wildest of the wild, without villages or cultivation in their country, who live in caves, under overhanging rocks, or anywhere, in fact, where shelter is, whose means of subsistence depend on the barter of grass and firewood in our plains for food and gunpowder. Untempted savages, their daily life a struggle, their only joy a raid, very brave on their hills, but who only venture on our plains to sweep of cattle or women, the twentifolds of local wealth to such a people, for the sex, with them, is only on a par with the best of burden or a household chattel. Imbued with feelings of the most implacable but mercenary revenge, they, under a rude kind of bastard honor, exact the old Mosiac law of justice—"Eye for eye, tooth for tooth, hand for hand, foot for foot" (Ex. xxi. 24), or its value in silver, laying down codes by which the amount of blood-money is determined. Family and tribe feuds exist amongst them for generations; and, when not arranged satisfactorily in a pecuniary way, it is imperative that, supposing you and I were Beozootees, your grandfather having killed mine ages ago, I should kill you when I got the chance. With different tribes the money value varies, but a life is worth about Rs. 350, and the legs of a lamb half that. And so these people live, brave to rashness often, but devoid of any trace of civilization, believers only in their *kismet*; and when a man is hit to death, if he can but struggle straggles on a ram, and thus let his soul depart, it wings its way to the Beozootee happy hunting grounds. Of course they disbelieve in our surgery, or at least prefer their *kismet* to seeking our aid. When they do, however, patronise a dispensary, they look for some sudden necromantic power to be displayed in the cure of a hideous deformity or neglected accident, and are ill-inclined to yield to the snare, or the quiet under the healthfully slow process of gradual cure.

Kohat, which is but four miles from the Beozootee tribe 1

When the 3rd Punjab Infantry advanced on the sungur, and the 6th Punjab Infantry mounted the gully to support them, it was pretty evident that I should have some work before long, and that it behoved me to open the capital case. The doolie, carrying instruments, bandages, and hospital appliances, with a native doctor and hospital staff, were brought up in readiness, and the dandies* sent up the hill for the wounded, who soon came down. As far as I can remember, those who were seriously hurt presented themselves in the following order:—

1. Sepoy struck by bullet on a button of his uniform opposite xiphoid cartilage; it was a lucky button for him, as it turned the ball, which, passing into the abdominal parietes, a little to the right of the median line, coursed round in front of the liver, and lodged in the right side under the skin. The peritoneum was untouched, and as the ball could be readily distinguished, I cut down on it, and took it out on the spot. From the entrance to the artificial exit, it travelled six inches round the abdominal wall.

2. Jemadar shot through the left thigh, the ball passing in and out in front of the femur; no hæmorrhage: a wet bandage sufficed for him.

3. Sepoy. Bullet through left arm two inches above elbow-joint; no hæmorrhage; bone not touched: wet bandage.

4. Sepoy. Severe bullet graze on left arm, two inches below shoulder on outside. The bullet had gouged a piece out. Wet bandage.

5. Sepoy. Bullet entered right cheek in centre of masseter muscle; no hæmorrhage; bullet lodged, and not to be felt near wound by long probe; mouth not entered: compress of wet lint. I may anticipate, so far as to tell, that this bullet, which struck the right cheek, was felt next morning below the angle of the left scapula, where I cut it out. How it got there, it best knows itself.

6. Sepoy. Bullet through right arm to left of humerus, three inches above elbow, passing out behind; no hæmorrhage; bone not touched: wet bandage. This and No. 3 were very similar, but in different arms.

7. Major Hoste. Contused and lacerated wound on right temple from a stone which stunned and knocked him over, cutting a branch of temporal artery, and covering him with blood: edges of wound brought together, and wet lint.

8. Sepoy. Bullet entering the front of left shoulder, smashing head and neck of humerus, splintering shaft, opening joint, and passing out below angle of left scapula. Very smart hæmorrhage, most likely from posterior circumflex, as that vessel appeared to lie in the track of the bullet; the little finger, as a probe (the best), found everything in smash. A few pieces of bone taken away with bullet forceps, and wound plugged deeply before and behind with long strip of wet lint. Arm put in sling, and, being a Sikh, a good stoup of brandy and water, for he had lost much blood; plugging the wounds completely controlled the hæmorrhage.

9. Nalek. Bullet entrance at right angle of lower jaw, passing deeply through thick muscles of back of neck, and out a little to left of median line, one inch below scalp; bleeding pretty sharp, but easily controlled by plugging; bone not broken.

10. Sepoy (Zerein). Very badly chopped up; he was first hit in the right calf, bullet passing through and breaking fibula about two inches from its head. This poor lad was one of the foremost at the sungur, and, when wounded, his rifle and bayonet dropped from him down the hill. At this time the enemy were coming on, and he could not get away; as he lay on the ground, they came at him, and slashed him with their knives. His mangled wounds were, first, one four inches in length across the vertex, deeply notching both parietals, but not penetrating; second,

a slash cutting off all the cartilaginous portion of nose and the upper lip, laying the right angle of mouth open deeply, the nose and upper lip hung below his chin by a strip of the skin, the size of a goose quill; third, a cut passing deeply through the nasal bones into the nose behind the last; fourth, a shallow cut across the front of chin; fifth, a deep cut into the upper third of left arm on the outside, going to the bone, three inches in length; sixth, three separate slashes over the dorsum and fingers of left hand,—one opening the metacarpophalangeal articulation of third finger. His face was a horrid spectacle, with his nose and lip hanging down, and the cut had also sliced away the anterior half of the two front incisor teeth. I could at that time only replace the severed parts, and keep them as much as possible *in situ* with pledgets of wet lint and a roller, dressing his other wounds similarly, for evening was upon us, and we were moving towards cantonments. The other wounded of my regiment were not of sufficient interest to detail, being chiefly contusions from the stones hurled at them. In all, the right wing, 6th Punjab Infantry, which went into action 259 strong, lost two killed and twenty-one wounded.

The 3rd Punjab Infantry, who were double the strength and longer under fire, lost nine killed, two mortally wounded, nineteen wounded. The total list of casualties was therefore fifty-three.

Night had closed in before the wounded were housed in hospital, and then the field dressings were removed so far as necessary to give place to careful examination of the nature and extent of the lesions, that all might be rendered safe for the night. Zerein's nose and lip were sewn together with nine interrupted sutures, and I had some hopes of saving them; the others were made comfortable, and what needful fresh dressings were required, applied.

As this ended the field surgery of the day, I may also end my paper, reserving to a future opportunity an account of the progress of the wounded, and a few observations on the points of surgical interest in relation to gunshot wounds which occurred.

KOHAT, April, 1868.

A CASE OF SNAKE-BITE.

By W. J. MOORE, L.R.C.P.,

Surgeon, Rajpootana Political Agency.

As with most ailments not readily curable, empirical treatment and pseudo-specifics have been applied to a very great extent, in the condition resulting from the bites of poisonous snakes. To enumerate all the substances which have from time to time been imposed on the credulity of mankind as remedies, would indeed be an endless task. The ancient physicians extolled preparations of the serpent itself. Both Seneca and Pliny inform us that human saliva was believed to be a powerful remedy. A great variety of vegetables have been celebrated, the principal one being the *najaswala canabata*, or *spharrhiza macropis*, called by Sir William Jones *chudawara*. In Australia the root of the common male fern, *polypodium filix mas*, has long been used as a secret cure.* Waring† gives a list of fifty-five plants, of reputed efficacy in snake-bites; the famous Tanjore pill contains several vegetable materials, among others croton oil. The people of Scinde use a mixture of various vegetable substances, into the composition of which chopped onions enter largely. Among minerals, the oxides of metals have been especially reputed, under the idea that the poison of serpents acts upon the blood by attracting oxygen.

* Underwood on "Snake-bite," Bratiwate's Retrospect, page 37, July, 1859.

† Waring on "Medicinal Plants of India," *Madras Medical Journal*, January 7th, 1862.

* A dandy is a banook (song from a pole, carried by two men, and used for the hills, where a doolie is useless).

HINT FROM A HAKEEM.

By a CIVIL SURGEON.

It is not much the custom for the European physician to despise the teaching of the *Yunani Hakim*. Although our medical science is superior in advance of Eastern practice, it is well to recall it, in the spirit of Newton, that the European is but "as a child playing on the seashore, while the immense ocean" of Science plays unexhausted before him.

And we might also recollect that the *Yunani hakim* was "before him, on the seashore" picking up pebbles, "as a child." In illustration of my meaning, here is an old *pebble* that was picked up long ago which came accidentally into my possession. Every Civil Surgeon knows how out-of-date our patients grow impatient, and abruptly end their visits, when the nature of their malady requires protracted treatment. I was living in a malarious tract, a few years ago, where chronic spleen disease is very common. And a patient, who was disappointed at my unsuccessful treatment, suddenly disappeared. But, after a while, he re-appeared in my vicinity, and surprised me by his altered and improved condition. His spleen was reduced to the volume of a cricket ball, from having reached the milibullus. On enquiry, I found that the sufferer had turned his back upon European science, and that he had appealed *suavis fides* to the *Yunani hakim*. He had taken one drop of *quabbah ke tosh* (Sulphuric acid) *in a battasha*, or sugar-bubb, every morning for a month, which he said had "sent away the congealed blood" in the organ. The man was virtually cured. And I have kept this old *pebble* in my pocket ever since, with satisfaction to myself and benefit to many an unhappy sufferer from spleen disease. It is necessary to be careful, in administering the *quabbah*, to cover the hole made in the *battasha* with thick gum or flour paste. And I venture to say, that a more ingenious vehicle than this native Indian dodge cannot be found, at hand, to convey a drop of pure sulphuric acid into the human stomach. The sugar-bubble slowly melts in the stomach, and a trifling sense of heat is felt in the organ, without any other harm that I ever heard of. Now, if it be the case, that the altered condition of the blood, in chronic spleen disease, is analogous to the state of the blood in scurvy, here is a very choice bit of an important pathology unmarred by the hakim's practice—a *pebble*, in fact, thrown into our *new glass house*!

I may add that the biniodide of mercury ointment over the diseased organ is often combined with the acid treatment, but I have never found the *libba victie* of this ointment when trusted to alone. In some very obstinate cases, where the enlarged organ is pushed to the formation of an hypertrophied gland, I also add a pill, consisting of ferri iodidi gr. ij., potassii iodidi gr. ij., oili gr. i. But this is always given as an adjunct to the acid, whose curative action is decided, but *stovee* in the advanced stage of the disease.

SHEALKANTA OIL AS AN EXTERNAL APPLICATION FOR ITCH.

By KRISHNODH'S GHOSH.

Sub-Assistant Surgeon in charge of Bhangalpara Charitable Dispensary.

This plant (*Aegleone Moringa*) is well known throughout the country; it belongs to the natural order *Parvifloraceae*. All the parts of the plant are full of thorns. The flowers are of a bright yellow color. The capsules are of an elongated shape,

* I have observed the leaves of this tree to be very rich in a valuable fatty oil, and indeed the seeds. I had also spoken of its domestic use, as a food with medicinal and purgative properties, but these are very uncertain. It has been used to treat the complaint of actually and spurious *leucorrhoea* in the female, the seeds being a valuable addition to our indigenous *catappa* *sedan*—E. J. M. G.

and filled with seeds resembling black mustard; but these seeds, instead of being smooth, are rough at the surface. About this time of the year the seeds are collected, and oil of a pale yellow color is extracted. This oil is used for burning purposes by some people on account of its cheapness.

I tried this oil as an external application for itch with marked success. In twelve cases the oil was tried, and in every case recovery was effected within a week. I had the parts washed with soap before applying the oil. The recovery of twelve cases is no guarantee of its curative property, but I bring this before the readers of the journal to give them an opportunity of trying the efficacy of this oil.

The plant has a yellow oily juice of a disagreeable fishy smell. When this juice is applied over a fresh, small, unbroken pustule of scabies, the latter becomes enlarged and quite *distended* with pus. This action is rather peculiar, and suggested to me the idea that there had a direct influence upon the *acarus*. I once succeeded in getting a living itch-mite, and putting it under the microscope. I placed a small quantity of the juice mixed with water upon it, the creature died immediately. I never had the opportunity of trying the oil in the same manner, but I doubt not it has the same effect.

I have procured some oil with great difficulty, as the last year's produce is exhausted, and a fortnight hence the oil will be found in abundance. As soon as I get the oil I will try it on a more extensive scale, and lay the result before the public. In the meantime I would request my professional brethren to give the remedy a trial.

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

CASE OF CARDIAC EMBOLISM.

By SURGEON J. R. JACKSON, M.D.

Superintendent of the Central Prison, Meerut.

KUREMUT ALL, about twenty years of age, a strong, well-developed man, had been for three months in the Meerut Jail. About a month after admission he began to complain of feeling fatigued at work, and was listless. Three weeks ago he was sent to the mills to grind wheat; he became suddenly faint, and changed color. He was sent to hospital, treated for fever, and in two days went to the convalescent gang. He was again admitted into hospital, suffering from fever, on the 2nd March. His case appeared a simple one, and did not attract particular attention. He was treated with calomel, alkaloids, and had a liberal dietary, with stimulants and care.

On the 3rd March, at 3 p.m., he sat up in bed and took his dinner, after which he lay down, covering his head with a blanket. At 5 p.m. he was found dead, the arms and body showing that he had died but a very short time before.

POST-MORTEM 12 HOURS AFTER DEATH.

Body in good condition; by no means emaciated, muscular power well developed.

Lungs congested with frothy mucus; lower posterior parts deeply congested (by post-mortem congestion).

Other organs fleshy, with the exception of the spleen, which was soft, pulpy, and in the usual state of malarious decomposition.

Heart. Right side contained a large embolus. This was of a tough consistence, and adhered closely to the fleshy bands and calcareous carinae, and had to be torn from them in process of detachment. That portion of the embolus in contact with the substance of the heart was of a pale color, and closely resembled in texture and appearance half-cooked veal. At its free end it merged, but not very gradually, into a tough, black clot. The right auricle was completely filled with the embolus, which terminated at its end, with process extending into the inferior vena-cavae. The left side of the heart was almost empty, but there was in the ventricle, and closely adherent to the calcareous carinae, an embolic clot of a similar appearance to that of a veal in the right side.

On removing the liver, a large clot, the longitudinal half of it, having the same fleshy appearance as the cardiac embolus, and

FOUR CASES OF CHIONYPHE CARTERII (MUCE-DINOUS OR FUNGUS DISEASE OF INDIA.)

By HONORARY ASSISTANT SURGEON P. A. MISAS, G.M.C.B.,
Civil Surgeon, Hissar.

CASE I.—CHIONYPHE CARTERII AFFECTING THE RIGHT FOOT; AMPUTATION BELOW THE KNEE; OSTEOMYELITIS; RECOVERY.

DURING the past half-year very few operations were performed in the Government Charitable Dispensary at Hissar, owing to the prevalence of fever in the town, and in the villages near the canal. It is not my object, in the present paper, to enter fully into the question of the causes and effects of this fever. Suffice it to say that the loss of life caused by it was very great; that the sufferers were in many cases also affected by a serious diarrhoea, (a sort of "dysenteria incrementa,") or by dysentery; and that the survivors showed the effects of malarious influence in the shape of enlarged spleens.

Kama, a Jan cultivator, aged twenty-eight, a resident of the Hissar district, was admitted into the Charitable Dispensary at Hissar, on the 17th October, 1867, suffering from the "mugus foot" disease, of ten years' duration. The affected foot (the right one) measured eleven inches in length, nine inches round the toes, fourteen round the instep, and sixteen round the heel and ankle.

The foot was covered with sinuous openings, giving exit to a black granular substance, imbedded in scanty mucilaginous discharge. These openings were to be seen on both the dorsal and plantar surfaces, but chiefly over the malleoli. The toes were shrivelled and contracted; the general health was good; there was no organic complication, except that he was greatly emaciated, and was in the habit of taking opium at night to allay the pain. As to the origin of the disease, no information could be obtained, except that an abscess had formed on the ball of the great toe, and had been lanced by a village barber; that the swelling began afterwards to increase; and that more abscesses had followed, and left these openings as relics.

Two days after admission the patient was attacked with fever, and remained under treatment for twenty-five days, when he had completely recovered; and at his earnest solicitation, on the morning of the 14th November, I amputated the right leg below the knee under chloroform. The arteries were well secured, but a great deal of venous blood was lost. Three weeks later, when all the ligatures had come away, and the stump was nearly healed, he was again attacked by fever, and symptoms of osteomyelitis supervened; he complained of sub-acute pain in the stump. The tibia protruded through the anterior flap; the discharge became profuse; he passed restless nights; slight bleeding took place from the inner side, where the stump opened out, but this was checked at once by the application of tannic acid. Tonic's, stimulants, anodynes, cod-liver oil were given internally. Ere the thought of a secondary amputation was entertained, the character of the season changed, the cold weather set in, and the patient began to improve. The protruded bone began to be covered with healthy granulations, fever entirely subsided, and a marked improvement took place in his general health. He is still (23rd March) in the hospital, but intends to leave this in a day or two.

CASE II.—CHIONYPHE CARTERII AFFECTING THE RIGHT FOOT; AMPUTATION; RECOVERY.

On the 6th October, 1866, a Gosan beggar named Kama, aged about twenty-five, an inhabitant of Tosar, in the Fattelpoor district, was admitted into the Hissar Dispensary.

Previous history.—When in his thirteenth year, a hard swelling appeared in the middle of the right heel, which softened, suppurated, and burst, giving exit to a venous discharge which, he says, contained bluish-colored granules, then swellings next appeared in the different parts of the sole of the foot, and gradually extended to the dorsum and its sides.

At present he looks emaciated, but with the exception of the extreme enlargement, (the largest I have ever seen), and pain in the diseased foot, he suffered from no organic complaint.

A drawing of the foot, herein annexed, will show the ravages of the disease much better than any description can convey.



The measurement of the foot was:—

Length	12 1/4 inches.
Round the toes	15 "
Do. instep	19 "
Do. heel and ankle	19 1/2 "

I amputated the leg below the knee, under chloroform by a single flap on the 24th October, 1866. No blood was lost, for the arteries were well secured by pressure in the popliteal space, but there was considerable oozing of venous blood, which ceased when the stump was dressed. The wound healed by the first intention, and the patient was discharged on the 4th December, 1866, forty-two days after the operation.

CASE III.—CHIONYPHE CARTERII AFFECTING THE RIGHT HAND; AMPUTATION THROUGH THE FOREARM; RECOVERY.

Khammanoo, aged thirty, a Bagree Jant, and a resident of Mahesur, in the Jeypore territory, was admitted into the Hissar Government Charitable Dispensary on the 10th April, 1866.

Previous history.—About three years ago, a blue spot was observed near the index finger of the right hand, on its palmar aspect. This spot continued in the same state for a year without interfering with his daily vocations. Afterwards, a fistula formed on the dorsal aspect of the finger, but within twelve months, before he presented himself here, other fistulae formed; the size of the hand increased; and the pain became so agonising that he began to take opium to deaden it.

Present symptoms.—The right hand exhibits a dozen fistulous openings, through which ooze out the characteristic blue colored granules; the hand swollen; and below the wrist measured ten and a half inches. The fingers are deformed, being shrivelled and small. There is severe pain, of which the patient complains most bitterly; his general state of constitution was perfectly good. As the state of the patient's health warranted an operation, the limb was amputated on the 11th April, 1866, through the middle of the forearm, under the influence of chloroform. He was discharged cured on 2nd June.

The accompanying sketch will convey a better idea of the state of the hand than any description can.

CASE IV.—CHIONYPHE CARTERII AFFECTING THE RIGHT HAND; AMPUTATION; RECOVERY.

Dharrah, aged fifty, a potter, a resident of Khetroe, in the Jeypore district, was admitted into the Government Charitable Dispensary at Hissar on the 16th May, 1866.

Previous history.—About two years ago a small pimple was observed on the right ball of the thumb, which remained dormant for about a year; then several fistulous openings formed, and discharged a granular blue substance. The fingers contracted, and the pain began to disturb him. He therefore, as is usually the case, commenced taking opium. His general health being good, the limb was amputated on the 17th May, 1866, through the middle of the forearm.

The wound united by the first intention, and the patient was discharged cured on the 5th July, 1866. A sketch of the hand accompanies this.

REMARKS.

It is a curious circumstance that, with such a diseased mass as the above, the constitution remained unaffected. On account of the dull aching, sleep is disturbed, and appetite impaired, which cause a haggard expression of countenance and emaciation; but on the removal of the part, the system rallies in a wonderful



CASE II.

CASE IV.

of the following:—
 1. The average temperature of the body during the day is 98.6° F., and during the night 97.8° F., the difference being 0.8° F.
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The following table shows the results of the above experiments, and the difference between the average temperature of the body during the day and during the night.

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Hispanic, 20th May 1898.

The following table shows the results of the above experiments, and the difference between the average temperature of the body during the day and during the night.

Notices to Correspondents.

A. M. B. (1898) has written to the Editor of the Indian Medical Gazette, asking for information regarding the publication of his paper on the "Treatment of the Fever of the Indian Army." The Editor has replied that the paper will be published in the next issue of the Gazette, and that the author will receive a copy of the paper free of charge.

C. B. (1898) has written to the Editor of the Indian Medical Gazette, asking for information regarding the publication of his paper on the "Treatment of the Fever of the Indian Army." The Editor has replied that the paper will be published in the next issue of the Gazette, and that the author will receive a copy of the paper free of charge.

D. H. (1898) has written to the Editor of the Indian Medical Gazette, asking for information regarding the publication of his paper on the "Treatment of the Fever of the Indian Army." The Editor has replied that the paper will be published in the next issue of the Gazette, and that the author will receive a copy of the paper free of charge.

E. G. (1898) has written to the Editor of the Indian Medical Gazette, asking for information regarding the publication of his paper on the "Treatment of the Fever of the Indian Army." The Editor has replied that the paper will be published in the next issue of the Gazette, and that the author will receive a copy of the paper free of charge.

The Indian Medical Gazette.

Published by the Government of India, at the Central Printing Press, Calcutta.

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OUR JIVES.

Amongst the various articles which have appeared in the Indian Medical Gazette, the one which has attracted the most attention is that by Mr. J. B. (1898) on the "Treatment of the Fever of the Indian Army." This paper has been published in the 10th issue of the Gazette, and has received a very favourable reception. The author has shown that the fever of the Indian Army is a very common disease, and that it is caused by a specific micro-organism. He has also shown that the fever can be treated by the use of quinine, and that the use of quinine is the most effective method of treatment.

The following table shows the results of the above experiments, and the difference between the average temperature of the body during the day and during the night.

in the publication of many of their writings, and the entailment to which others have been subjected. He can only say in palliation that when he received charge of the paper, it was on the condition that the limit originally proposed for each number (twenty-four pages), which had been almost always exceeded under his predecessor, should be strictly adhered to. This Proseman rule has often obliged him to deter the publication of valuable papers, which were too long, or not long enough, and to publish others of less interest, which happened to fit the available space. For the same reason a rather needless censorship had been found necessary in other instances, in order to bring the contents of each number exactly within the twenty-four pages.

The ex-Editor is but too well aware that these are not the only shortcomings with which he can be charged; but he will say no more on a subject which is probably of small interest to his readers, and which cannot be a gratifying one to himself. Before finally laying down his pen, however, he cannot but regret that comparatively so little use is made of the *Indian Medical Gazette* by the Medical Officers in other Presidencies, as a channel for publishing the results of their experience. That most of the contributors to its pages should belong to the Bengal Presidency is of course natural; but it has never been the object of the publishers to make the paper the organ of the profession in any one section of India (whether political or geographical) *procellena*. Were the want of contributions from the sister Presidencies caused by the existence of similar papers in Madras and Bombay, it would be a subject of congratulation to all who are interested in the welfare of medical science. But this is not yet, neither are there, so far as we know, any grounds for hoping that it soon will be, the case; and until it is, neither a Presidency can boast a monthly medical paper of its own, we hope that our pages will be made to show that this paper is not the *Beagle*, but, as it professes to be, the *INDIAN Medical Gazette*.

DISTRIBUTION OF PRIZES AT THE MEDICAL COLLEGE.

The annual distribution of prizes at the Medical College of Bengal took place on the 23rd of April last, Sir Richard Temple, a fit representative of Anglo-Indian energy and progress, occupying the chair. We confess that we do not envy those who can look on such a scene without emotion. Year after year the taming tale is told. Year after year the benevolent scheme expands, the project of the wise emblemizer now gave to India the liberal medical education which he now enjoys; who took the first step in providing a class of native to native medical men, to whom the country owed a debt of gratitude for the instruction of her humble though more than 10,000,000 of people in their own vernacular tongue. You are sorry in the evening of your days, good old Lord William Barnack, Bessid, could he now look upon this young son of his beneficence, could David Hume, the friend of his library, would they not go with a throng of others, wondering what they do with an energy of a few generations, I mean his accented school, while their hearts would beat a deep, in grateful and adoring homage to Him who has given us all that the ages yield.

Another day, which can never again be so much the educational industry of British sons, on a wider platform, but with more intelligence, at the State meeting, were the details

showing the seed of sound medical knowledge, its active and efficient as ever, and which studies to an increasing hue, among the rising generations of the East, for the noblest occupation that can engage the mind of man; another day is added to those glorious universities, when it is the privilege of our rulers to point with pride to what England is doing to India. It is in her medical colleges and schools that England is founding the bond of union between her self and her conquered subjects. It is through the annals of these colleges and schools, who are being annually sent to the charge of dispensaries in remote regions, that this bond is being cemented.

England looks to her sons, who occupy professional chairs at these institutions, faithfully to discharge their trust. And the page of history tells us how well those who have already taken their part in the great work, have fulfilled their country's expectations. These men pass day after day, but only to give room to other workers, who, animated by the same lofty spirit, and with *cordis* for their motto, are "striving on, striving ever," to add to its perfection. "We have had our Allan Welles, our Mouton, our Martins, our O'Soughnessys, our Jacksons, our Murrisonns, and our Goodveys, &c., and as Sir Richard Temple told the assembly, "we have now our Fayers, our Clevers, our Maenanams, our Charles, and a host of others." With such men at the helm, the good ship, which was launched three and thirty years ago, and whose progress was signified last Thursday week, however much she may be occasionally endangered, compelled to sail close to the wind when it is adverse, or unhesitatingly to huff when it blows very hard, the good ship will never put back, nor pause in her career, but will eventually reach her destined haven, laden with the fruits of her journey, and ready then to yield to others the management of the course, on which she has been a successful pioneer. The time is approaching when the entire education of the masses may safely be entrusted to the graduates, who have been taught at the Medical College.

Progress, vital progress, is stamped on every page of the Principals (Dr. Chevers') able and interesting Report. There is one point, however, on which we venture to express a difference of opinion, *viz.*, the proposition to supply the vernacular classes with translations of European works, to serve as manuals. We cannot help thinking that this would be a *very* *unfortunate*. With all the arguments advanced in favor of manuals we cordially agree; but to prefer them to the works which are cordially object. There are indeed some subjects which are common to all countries, which are not affected by time and clime, and a knowledge of which may be conveyed in all languages, as well as in our language as in any other. Chemistry, for example, is a subject of this kind, but the practical part of medicine, on the other hand, varies materially in different parts of the world, and is very considerably influenced by the peculiar diseases on which it is based. In the Indian system, for example, we find a comparatively unknown European disease, which is a venereal, which is of a slender footing, there are several others. The principal of *one* *quadrans* has the French name, but the disease is a translation of an European work, and is not adapted to the mind of the native student, the language and opinion of the natives, which pass in review before the eye. It could not be *quadrans* the diseases as he is not a European, but a native of the country. It may be used to the purpose of a manual, but it is not a manual, and it is not a work of

to make it all out, that is, to do the work which is now done

by our undertaker. In not taking this abstract ground of argument, the saying will be, "In course of the day." But we would do better to proceed. The first and chief objection everywhere is to severity of study. No course of instruction, even if it were more than English, and he is as capable with it as a European, why should he be made to study as should a European? Experience has taught us that the notes of Indian original students, if made up carefully, are far more trustworthy than original books. Why then should we not avail our selves of this explanation? Why not make use of the accomplishment of which our educated Sub-Assistant Surgeons possess? Then, when we impose a course of lectures, it will be more than likely to comprise a manual, and we mean one that is a manual in the "Principles and Practice of Medicine" carefully

supported by either a native teacher of the subject, or any well-taught graduate of the University who had kept himself *au courant* with the medical literature of the day, would be a far more valuable guide to the young native doctors who at present leave our medical institutions without anything beyond the notes of their lectures, than the best translation of the best English book on the same subject. We content ourselves with the hope that the day is not far distant when original manuals for our vernacular classes will rise from the press, worthy, in their way, to take rank with the manuals which are now common to our schools at home. The urgent need only is required. If this be offered, we have every reason to believe that there are those who will step forward and commence the undertaking. If we are not mistaken, a native graduate, at this moment, engaged in preparing a vernacular treatise on the practice of medicine.

We have said that we believe the scheme of translations to be a backward movement. If it be thought desirable to give original manuals to the English class students, treatises on the several subjects of their educational course, which are intended to supercede the necessity of the young men burdening themselves with so many expensive monographs,—surely, if European professors can undertake to do this, as Dr. Charles Manamary in Bengal and Dr. G. Smith in Madras have done, and as others propose doing, it is not too much to expect the same of our graduates of Calcutta. The translation scheme has cost already many years' time, both here and in Bombay, but our numerous disinterested benefactors, proved to be a gain. We trust that very much more may well be made out of this possibility of gathering and treating, better than is at present done, the vast quantity of the translation literature now in our hands. In Government, and in Education, the Government of the Empire are very liberal. Medical Times were written by John Blandin, D. Sc. We have the distinct assurance of our Government that it will support any project which may be proposed, and which will, in any way, advance the interests of the country. Like our Government, we are not averse to any great and good project of India. At the same time, we would to be sure support a large deal of what is not even a shadow of service to the good of the people, and which is a waste of

(Continued.)

GOOD SERVICE PENSIONS.

On the subject of *Good Service Pensions*, the *Medical Gazette* writes, "The only recommendation of the Indian

Government, Her Majesty has been pleased to give a good service pension to Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals, John Campbell Brown, C.B., B.Sc., M.D., in recognition of Dr. Brown's long and worthy services to the Government. His pension, to Major-General F. Mayo of the Bengal Artillery, who will now be at the military school primary ward at a long Military Hospital, the Colonel's all was one of our best officers."

Apparently the instructions contained in the despatch from the Secretary of State for India to the Military Secretary in London have been only partially carried out. We are gratified to hear that the Government has not discontinued the award of Good Service Pensions in the field, in the Afghan campaign in 1849, to the brave and valiant Major-General Mayo, and we would be disposed to give the Government the credit of his being a good officer. He has received several years' pension for his good service to Her Majesty, as a Deputy Surgeon, to Her Majesty. He now receives, after having a more substantial recognition of his services. We believe that an opinion obtains, in the profession, that this pension will be withdrawn, under any circumstances, on the receipt of retirement in the service, but this is an error. It is distinctly laid down in the despatch referred to in the *Gazette* under notice, that ordinarily the good service pension will be continued upon officers of the effective list, but officers who are discharged on pension, or whom they are discharged from the service on full or half pension, will not be considered eligible for the award, and in illustration of this, we would observe that there are several Medical Officers, of Her Majesty's British Forces, who were admitted to the receipt of the pension long after they had left the service. We then a Medical Officer, who, as in the case of Dr. Brown, receives a good service pension whilst still on the effective list, would be compelled to give it up on retirement, *in the event of his then being called to the highest scale of pension for good service*, was a question which it was apparently deemed necessary to refer home for orders. Upon this reference the Secretary of State for India decided that, if a Medical Officer is called on to retire to the highest scale of pension from Government, or to the pension of an Inspector-General or Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals under the new rules, enjoying, in each case, an income approaching the Colonel's allowance,—that then the good service pension must be relinquished. Dr. Brown's retirement to a level of his new pension is as with his retirement.

MEDICAL SOCIETIES.

We regret to hear of the retirement of one of the very admirably gifted and ablest delivered by Dr. Chakrabarty, when occupying the Chair, on the 10th March last, at the annual meeting of the Royal Branch of the British Medical Association. Dr. Chakrabarty's address pointed out the utility of such an Association, what opportunities of usefulness were brought forward, and how much not only the profession, but society generally, benefited by preparations. "Had such an association existed in the dawn of our profession, it is probable that we should have had many more men than we have, and to less cost than we have." Dr. Chakrabarty truly added that many substantial preparations to be made by these associations, they must be carefully nurtured and supported." And why, we venture to enquire, should society not more mutually and supported than

is it? It is not a mere friendly gathering at the dinner table, where professional discussion degenerates, when the cloth is removed, into a *post-prandial* desultory conversation of perhaps an hour's length, but the scene of real intellectual toil, where the faculties are brought unclouded into the arena of enquiry, and where the leading professional questions of the day are investigated with the zest of genuine students; where men meet, honestly solicitous to promote true scientific and philosophical research, and to raise the profession above the condition of mere drudgery,—a level to which the practice of quacks and charlatans tends to reduce it. It is the privilege of such associations to endeavour to raise the *tone* of the medical profession above that standard at which unhappily *the world* is too apt to estimate it. As a General is measured by the result of a great battle, so is a Doctor by that of his draught or his pill. But whilst the former gets credit in society for other than mere military accomplishments, it is very questionable whether the latter does so for anything beyond his physic! We believe that quackery is, to a great extent, the cause of this. There is no profession in which the pretender is so likely to thrive as in ours. Send, cries suffering Dives, send for "the Doctor"—a generic name, including many types, ranging from Hippocrates to Hahnemann. And the pretentious quack is often preferred by Dives to the skilled physician. It was necessary for that prince of charlatans, St. John Long, to kill more than one patient before the world every dreamed of his being a quack, and even then his popularity was not perceptibly lessened. When called to account for his successive murders, (for in truth they were nothing less,) he published a volume proclaiming himself a martyr in the cause of humanity! A monument, bearing an inscription testifying to his worth, was raised to the scoundrel's memory; and it is said that, even yet, there are to be found, in English society, intellectual women whose eyes become bright with tears at the very mention of his name. But then St. Long was endowed by nature with easy ingratiating manners and a persuasive tongue, an imposing carriage, and a musical voice; with personal advantages, in short, which too frequently constitute the principal stock-in-trade upon which their fortunate possessor depends, for advancing himself in the great race of life, whilst his far abler, but less graceful, competitors, who started with him, are left behind. The wealth of some of these fascinating sharks testifies to the readiness with which their pills and potions—the panacea for every human ill—are swallowed by a gullible, because uninformed, public. Of what avail are Medical Councils and "prosecutions under the Act?" Quacks find their way to the front so long as the public encourages them. And these men, with the unthinking masses, give a stamp to the profession. Unhappily, too, the public have some grounds for refusing to give to the profession that status to which, were it composed only of those who ought to be allowed to enter its ranks, it should be entitled. A liberal education is not sufficiently insisted upon. A butcher once said to a London Surgeon,—"*My* father was a journeyman butcher, *I* have been a master butcher, and now *I* wish *my* son to be a gentleman butcher." We knew a medical practitioner who did not at all mind informing society that his father was a "utter." Now we have not the slightest objection to the sons of "men of low degree" being admitted into our profession, but we do insist that the sons themselves shall be, not only professionally, but liberally, well educated, and that they shall have some notion of the laws of good society. We do not require that the

sons of Esculapius should study in the school of Lord Chestersfield, (where, according to Dr. Johnson, they would acquire the manner of a dancing master, and the morals of a——) but in the practice of so noble a calling as ours, the paramount aim of which is to alleviate human suffering, it is of the utmost importance that its professors should be, in the truest meaning of the term, *gentlemen*.

But we are deviating somewhat from our subject. The society, whose claims to professional support were so ably advocated by Dr. Chuckerbutty, is striving, whilst it informs the profession, to educate the public. Its task is only begun; and, so far as it has gone, it has done well, but help is urgently needed. Will not more of the several hundred medical officers scattered throughout India assist in the good cause? We beg to assure our friends that their labours will not be thrown away. The humblest acolyte in the temple of science, the youngest Sub-Assistant Surgeon toiling in one of the remotest outposts of India, may find his exploits or his investigations chronicled when and where he least expects them. The Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association has found a fitting place amongst the societies at home. Its operations are watched with solicitude by the parent whose name it bears. The honey which it collects is being indented upon by the working bees of the professional hive in England and on the Continent. In happy accord with the authorities of the Medical College Museum, it is a pathological and clinical society combined. All contributors may depend upon their contributions finding, as before stated, their appropriate corner in the Museum, whilst a brief history of all the cases is chronicled in the catalogue, an abstract of the most important of each being, moreover, from time to time, recorded in the *Gazette*. It is a matter of deep regret that the society is so little supported by the native practitioners of Calcutta. We were greatly in hopes that the *entente cordiale*, which it was expected would exist between different classes, would have grown with the growth of the association, and that thus the intentions of its founder would have been abundantly fulfilled. And we will still cherish the hope that our native friends will see the importance of rendering their aid in what should be a joint endeavour of the whole profession.

We cordially endorse all that Dr. Chuckerbutty has said on the subject of vernacular medical education. It is through this that the masses will be reached; but a higher kind of education will always be required. The Sub-Assistant Surgeon must still be created, and these undoubtedly are the men to whom India must look eventually for the education of her "country doctors." We should therefore, on this account also, like to see them taking an active part in medical societies, joining their European colleagues in the society which is now working, and creating others, themselves taking the lead, for the diffusion of practical knowledge amongst those who are sent forth to take the place of the kobleris and haseons of Bengal. And, under European and Native guidance combined, we cannot but believe that,—with increased activity in working out the hidden treasures of Eastern pathology and therapeutics, and in the encouragement of closer professional union among themselves, by the establishment of these institutions in correspondence with the learned bodies of Europe and America—the profession in India might readily achieve a degree of approximation and influence which would render them the most fortunate

Meeting of the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association.

The Fifth Annual Meeting of the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association was held in the Theatre of the Medical College at 8 P. M. on Tuesday, the 19th March, 1868. Dr. S. G. Cluckerbutty, President, in the chair.

The proceedings of the business meeting held on the 5th February were read and confirmed. An abstract of the cases and papers read at the ordinary monthly meetings during the past year was also read by the Secretary.

Dr Cluckerbutty, in resigning the chair, said:—"It is now my duty to retire from the post of President, and to introduce a successor. In the gentleman whom you have elected you will have an able and energetic officer, who, I feel sure, will infuse a new life into all our operations, and compensate for the shortcomings of the past year.

The year which has just elapsed has not, however, been without results, as will be evident from the proceedings published in the *Indian Medical Gazette*. It is nearly five years since the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association was established: and it is satisfactory to note that it has proved at least one thing, *i. e.*, that there is no insuperable difficulty to the success of such an Institution. If each member of the profession did his part towards it, there is no institution in the country which offers a greater opportunity for usefulness. Important medical questions concerning pyæmia, osteomyelitis, cholera, small-pox, fever, dysentery, syphilis, drainage, water-supply, hospital construction, the status of the medical profession, &c. which are continually forcing themselves upon the public, can be nowhere else discussed with equal advantage. Had such associations existed from the dawn of our profession, it is probable we should have had now many more valuable facts than we have, and far less confusion. It is only comparatively lately that the value of such associations has been understood, even in Europe and America. In this country they are scarcely yet in their infancy. But if any substantial progress is to be made, they must be carefully nurtured and supported. Considering their vast influence on civilization, they are deserving of every encouragement. They are calculated not only to advance science, but also to lend important assistance to Government on many occasions. They excite an interest in the pursuit of the profession which would not be otherwise felt, and lead to investigations which would not be otherwise undertaken. That being the case, the wonder is that we have not got more than one such association. In Bengal alone there is room enough for three—an English, a Bengali, and an Urdu, for the three different classes of men educated in the Medical College. Up to the present there has been very little combined labor: and whatever there is, is obtained through the action of the Government Medical Department. That has its value; but it does not give us all that is wanted. In the nature of things, it is impossible that voluminous papers, even if sent in, could be all read in the midst of so many pressing duties, or published at the public expense: and besides there is no opportunity for discussing them, and so much of their value is lost. The combination that results from Medical Associations is far more satisfactory. Every one is allowed to express his opinions, and to publish his views to the world. The debates which follow create a warm interest on the subject, and every member returns from the meetings wiser and more instructed than he came. This, *inter alia*, is a great boon, as it enables us to know each other more thoroughly than we otherwise should, and stir up sympathies and friendships which would not otherwise exist. It is something to establish mutual goodwill and fellowship among persons who were strangers to each other before. It is something to learn the different views entertained on a subject by contemporaries in the same place. It is something to know the results of their practice. It is something to know their modes of treatment, favorite remedies, and interesting cases of pathology. And it is a great thing for society that the men whom it trusts with the lives and health of its members, are not the mere druggists of a trade, but the earnest promoters of true science and philosophy.

There is much work to be done in the collection of facts, and every new fact made out is a gain to civilization. Whether it relates to the natural history of disease, to the nature and actions of remedies, to pathology, during life, to the morbid condition

after death, to diagnosis, to new methods of cure, to new drugs, or to preventive medicine, its value is equally important: and there is no better way of promoting such enquiries than through the agency of an organized association. In the short time of its existence, our Association has already contributed something in this respect, and if it has failed to do more, it has shared the common fate of many older and more ambitious societies. We ought to be satisfied if we knew only that we are lovable workers, doing our part to the extent of our opportunities. We are but the sowers of the seed, the fruit of which will be gathered in due time by some future generation. Somebody must sow; and it is our turn to do it here. At the same time, we cannot do this, and discuss scientific questions, without immensely profiting ourselves. If we are only convinced that our skill and efficiency must be measured by the extent of our knowledge, we shall have achieved our great triumph over routine and the blindness of theory, and we shall have been made sufficiently unselfish to admit that we have all much to learn from each other. It is in this spirit that I would urge our members to review our past operations, and to give us their support for the future. It is not right that where there should be many, a few only should toil and labour. Our number is sufficiently large to do much good if the attendance at our meetings were larger; and our funds are encouraging if not highly prosperous. In time we may hope to possess a proper location and a library of our own. As our members become more numerous and active, we may also be able to maintain a journal of our proceedings, which shall not be inferior to the one we had to discontinue last year.

As I have referred to the three classes of medical men, let me speak a few words regarding the relation between the Native Medical Profession and the Universities.

In one way the Universities hardly meet the medical wants of the country. As the nation is gradually awaking to the superiority of European medicine, the demand for medical men educated in our colleges is daily on the increase. The number of practitioners passed by the Universities is too small to keep pace with that demand, and their pretensions are too high to allow of their services being generally available to all classes of the community. The Universities aim at securing a high standard of education, and a class of English-speaking practitioners who shall not be inferior in attainments to the graduates in Arts, Law, and Civil Engineering. This is very good, for it secures a high place for the profession, the members of which should be regarded as so many centres of civilization. But the very superiority of the education necessarily limits the admissions to this class, and the vast majority of them belong to the lowest grade, or Licentiate. Indeed it has been a frequent subject of surprise, how few seem to care to aspire to the higher medical degrees, and it has been questioned whether the institution of those degrees was not premature. I believe the proper way to get an answer to these questions is to ascertain the native feeling upon the subject. The difficulties of the examinations have nothing to say to it. There are many native medical practitioners who are competent to pass any examination, but who do not wish to be M. Ds, as they get on very well without any such title. In this country every medical man is called a "doctor," whether he be a surgeon, physician, or apothecary; and no precedence is allowed on the score of academic distinctions. This is the case here, even with graduates of the British Universities. Consequently there is neither honor nor remuneration to be gained by the possession of the degree of M. D. In the public service no distinction is made between an M. D. and an L. M. S., and promotion goes by seniority. In private practice, experience and ability are preferred to rank and high fees, and many a man who has no University degrees enjoys a popularity second to none. This is to be hoped, and be remitted in time, but for the present it exercises a great influence upon the minds of many, who very naturally hang back from examinations which can confer on them no apparent advantages.

But the truth is that the growing demands of the country are not for M. Ds or M. Bs., but for a large supply of practitioners of a lower class. There seems to be now a universal cry for more medical men, and every one who follows the profession of medicine finds employment enough to support himself with credit. As a necessary result of all this, more and more candidates are entering the profession every year. Our English and Vernacular classes are crowded with students anxious to qualify themselves in every branch of study, and to make themselves useful, not only as physicians and surgeons, but also

to frequent attacks of diarrhœa. Dr. Ewart believed that tubercular deposit in the lungs of Europeans were more seldom absorbed or cretified in India than in temperate climates, owing to the deteriorating effects of heat, moisture, malarial animal food of poor quality, and the difficulty of taking proper exercise during many months of the year. These depressing causes more than counteracted any good effect likely to be derived from a warm climate in the abstract. Dr. Ewart summed up his experience on the subject in the following propositions:—

1st.—Phtisis occurs among all classes in India—imported Europeans, Hindus, Mussalmans, Jews, Armenians, Eurasians, East Indians, and others of mixed parentage.

2nd.—Fully developed phtisis, causing death by disorganization of the lungs and of the intestinal glands, is rarer in India than in Europe.

3rd.—Scrofula, without tubercles in the lungs or elsewhere, but causing fatal diarrhœa or dysentery, is much more frequent than is supposed in India, both among Natives and Europeans, and much more common there than in Europe.

4th.—Tubercular disease of Peyor's patches, or of the solitary glands of the large intestine, causing ulceration and death by œsthenia, without any sign of deposit of tubercle in the lungs, is often met with in India.

5th.—Many scrofulous Europeans and Natives die in India from bowel complaints caused by the tubercular diathesis, after tubercle has been developed in the lungs, but before acute phtisical symptoms have appeared.

6th.—Tubercles are often found in the lungs of Natives who have died from cholera, fever, hepatic abscess, dysentery, or diarrhœa.

7th.—The advantage of sending Europeans, with an inherited phtisical diathesis, to India, or to any depressing and relaxing malarious climate, is very problematical.

8th.—The benefits hitherto believed to have been conferred on natives of Great Britain and other temperate climates, in whose lungs tubercle has already been deposited, by transfer to the plains of India, are not supported by modern experience on the spot.

9th.—Where disorganization has already begun in the lungs, even to a small extent, the change from temperate climates to India is positively and obviously injurious.

The next subject which Dr. Ewart brought forward was that of syphilitic "gummatous" tumours of which he exhibited three series of specimens from the College Museum,—one was about the size of a grape, and was found in the right optic thalamus of a Hindu, aged thirty, who had suffered from syphilis, was admitted into hospital with hæmiplegia of the left side, and ultimately died comatose. The second case had occurred in the General Hospital under Dr. Vans Bost. The patient had suffered four years before from syphilis, for which he had salivated himself six times. He was admitted into the General Hospital with chronic ulceration of the larynx, and died "from depression and failure of the heart's action," not from asphyxia. In addition to extensive ulceration of the larynx, a gummatous tumour, as large as half a hen's egg, was found in front of the bodies of the second and third cervical vertebra, springing apparently from the anterior common hæmangium. A smaller tumour was attached to the inner face of some of the lower costal cartilages. In the third case a gummatous tumour, as large as a hazel-nut, was found in the left lung of a patient who died of pelvic cellulitis. The College Museum also contains a heart, in the right ventricle of which are two syphilitic gummatous,—one about the size of a grape, the other as large as a hazel-nut. There is also contraction of the aortic orifice, and an aneurism of the left ventricle.

Lastly, Dr. Ewart brought forward two specimens of diphtheria which occurred during the past year in the Medical College Hospital, the subject of one being a child, that of the other a man of thirty-three. In both death supervened from œsthenia, occasioned by the overwhelming influence of the poison, and not from the mechanical impediment to breathing.

(To be continued.)

The Government of Madras has authorized the payment of the sum of Rs. 15,075 to the Registrar of the Madras University, being the amount of remuneration assigned to the Examiners in the Matriculation and First Arts Examinations in December, 1867, and the Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Law Examinations in February, 1868, in that Presidency.—*Madras Standard*, Apr. 1, 1868.

Reviews.

The Calcutta Journal of Medicine: Edited by MOHENDRO LALL SIKCAR, M. D.

It has been said, and we fear with truth, that, as a rule, a Bengalee does not work after he leaves school. Under the influence of the stimulus of prizes, of University honors, or of a lucrative appointment, he labors with a zeal and a success which has created considerable astonishment in our Western Seminars of learning; but the object of his industry once gained, he is too apt to degenerate and become lazy. There are, indeed, some honorable exceptions, and we could point to more than one notable instance where the national intellect is being vindicated from this reproach. Work, persistent work, with patient enquiry, and a careful uncolored chronicle of observed facts, will lead, in whatever line of study these are brought to bear, whether by Native or European, to useful if not to brilliant results. Hence, although we may decline to agree with him in the principles of his creed, we cannot but commend the spirit and perseverance which have induced Dr. Mohendro Lall Sikcar, single-handed, to start a "Journal of Medicine" in Calcutta, a periodical in which, although the "*sine qua non* of our law," still, as his professed "object is simply and solely the advancement of Medical Science, and the diffusion of sound knowledge of the laws and conditions of health," we will cherish the hope that our author will grow wiser as he penetrates deeper, and that we may yet be enabled to welcome him back to the ranks which he has, temporarily only left us, and not irrevocably deserted.

But Dr. Sikcar's Journal is not devoted exclusively to the discussion of homœopathic questions. It deals with the "principles of hospital construction," and advances original and suggestive opinions on what should be done with the Medical College Hospital; it places before the public the experiences of intelligent Native gentlemen with regard to malarial fevers occurring in their districts; it glances at the Medico-Political questions of the day,—the efforts made by Sub-Assistant Surgeons to secure for themselves an improved official and financial position in society; the appointments of Sanitary Inspectors General and their value; the reformation of jails, and the establishment of an aide-memoire for India; and last, not least, it proposes to "publish, in *vernacular* character, the most approved Hindoo works on medicine, with translations of them into English." This last proposition, if successfully carried out, will supply a great want. So much of these writings is to be met with only in manuscript, that they are as sealed books. A good English translation, such as an educated *Bengalee* Sub-Assistant Surgeon could furnish, would be invaluable to *practitioners* as well as to professional men; and we doubt not that, if Dr. Sikcar will apply in the proper quarter, he will meet with the assistance which he solicits in the purchase of "good readable manuscripts." In closing this brief notice of Dr. Mohendro Lall Sikcar's Journal, we confess we should wish to see it prosper in exact proportion as it keeps within the limits of rational no therie, and if its author wishes his hantling to be more generally fostered by the public, we think he would do well to make its contents more general, and to curtail the extent of its homœopathic disquisitions. Dr. Sikcar will pardon us for these remarks. We make them in no spirit of bigotry, but from regard for a former pupil of the Medical College,—for one who has attained so high a position amongst the *advances* of that noble institution, and whom we earnestly desire to see diffusing the blessings of orthodox European medicine throughout India.

"THE GREAT SULPHUR CURE."

On the Application of Sulphurous Acid, gaseous and Liquid, to the prescution, limitation, and cure of disease. By JAMES LEWIS, M. D., KIRKCADY, 7th Edition, Edinburgh, Edmonston and Douglas, 1868.

The great sulphur cure brought to the test and working of the new curative machine proposed for human lungs, in 1867. Papers, By ROBERT THOMAS, Surgeon, B. Med., Edinburg, Edinburg, Edmonston and Douglas.

hand without delay. The Syndicate of the University have been accordingly requested to place themselves in communication with Mr. Cusick, with a view to the preparation of a new plan conformable to the requirements of the University, and adapted to the position which the building is destined to occupy.—*Ibid.*

THE question of raising the salaries, and of improving the position of the native doctors, dispensers, and other medical assistants, appears to have now attracted the attention of the Government of India, and the Government of Bombay has made some observations on this important subject. Of all classes of public servants, this is the most poorly paid. With a view to induce young men of position and of sufficient intelligence to enter this department, the Bombay Government thinks it necessary that the condition of this class of servants should be at once improved, and their salaries augmented. The salary of the native doctors in the Civil Department ranges from Rs. 15 to 20 and Rs. 30 to 40 a month when an independent charge of a dispensary. In Bengal the pay of the ex-students of the Bengali class of the Medical College, who are also designated native doctors, commences at Rs. 20 a month. The salary of the native dispensers or compounders ranges from Rs. 9 to 15 a month. This scale appears to have been fixed some thirty or forty years ago, and since then no revision in the salaries or improvement in the condition of those officials has been made.—*Pioneer, 15th April, 1868.*

Short Notices of Recent Books.

Review of the History of Medicine. By THOMAS A. WISS, M.D., late Bengal Medical Service, London: Clarendon, 1868.

The author of these two volumes has undertaken an enormous task; and if he has failed to accomplish the end in view successfully, it is rather because of the vast extent of his subject, than from any want of energy or industry on his part. He has attempted to treat of the history of the art of healing from the most ancient period to the present century, and our readers need not be told that such an undertaking would involve more than the lifetime of a single individual. In the work before us, which has been printed in Cork, and whose type and paper are of most inferior quality, Dr. Wiss treats of the history of medical science under five separate periods. These, too, are arranged not according to chronological sequence, but rather in their order of progress, from the purely empirical to the rational method. We cannot but think that such a scheme possesses many disadvantages, but we, nevertheless, will lay the author's classification before our readers. They are as follows:—(1) The primitive oriental period, in which the efforts of the Aryan race are recorded. (2) The ancient period, in which the second or western branch of the Aryan race cultivated the *ars medendi*. This period embraces the account of the Greek and Roman systems of medicine, and extends from the time of Thales and Pythagoras to the time of Sextus Empiricus, or towards the end of the second century. (3) The transition period, in this we find a sketch of the Egyptian and Jewish systems and of the decline of learning in Europe. (4) The restoration period, when learning began again to flourish in Europe, and the study of medicine was revived. At this date the sciences began to be studied by the ancient monks, and attention was given to the Arab translations of the classical writers. Finally (5) the philosophical period. This extends from the revival of literature and medicine in Europe, in the fifteenth, to the beginning of the nineteenth century. This is, perhaps, of all the epochs, the most interesting to the student, since it was at this date that medicine travelled from the limits of rule empiricism, and assumed its foundation on the solid basis of anatomy and physiology. In dealing with the subject in each of these phases, our author is most interesting and instructive, and calls extracts from writers of all kinds. His strongest point, however, is evidently his acquaintance with Indian manuscripts, from which he frequently quotes. The testimony advanced from these sources is most attractive to the uninitiated; but it remains to be seen whether, in some instances, the author's statements are not open to serious question. However, the Indian student will find Dr. Wiss's pages full of overflowing of ancient Hindu and Brahmin lore; and though he will not learn much of the influences which operated in placing medicine in its present

position, he cannot fail to profit by taking up the "History of Medicine" and scanning its pages.

The Stone Age by Sven Nilsson. Edited by SIR JOHN LUBBOCK. London: Longmans, 1868.

ALTHOUGH this work is not properly related to medicine, it is on a subject in which so many of our readers must be interested, that we desire to bring it under their notice. It is really a double work, since it contains, in addition to the text of the author, an "introduction" by Sir John Lubbock, which embraces an epitome of the modern views of geologists as to man's place in the world. The introduction shows us that, from the first appearance of man in the globe up to the era of Christianity, four distinct races of human beings have peopled Europe, there being, *first*, the men of the first Stone Age; *second*, those of the second Stone Age; *third*, those of the Bronze Age; and *fourth*, those of the Iron Age. In the first, man was ignorant of the metals, and constructed weapons of unpolished stone. In the second he employed weapons of polished stone. In the third he used implements of bronze, and in the fourth he became conversant with the valuable properties of iron. Sir John describes each of these races, and gives a terse and lucid résumé of the evidence, geological and otherwise, on which the belief of our best archaeologists is founded. Professor Nilsson's portion of the work constitutes the greater bulk of the volume, and is accompanied by numerous well-executed illustrations. The author takes up the men of the Stone Age in Sweden, and having described the rules they have left us of their habitations and industry, he compares these with the productions of savage races of the present day; and he traces the traditions of the Sagas and Scaldas back to the period of the "men of Stone." His conclusion is that, originally, Sweden was inhabited by a race which, in habits and craniological characters, were identical with the present Esquimaux; a conclusion now maintained by many excellent geologists who have investigated the relics of the French and Flemish bone-cavers.

On Chloroform. By CHARLES KIDD, M.D., &c. London: Renshaw, 1868.

Dr. Kidd is well known as an amusing and somewhat enthusiastic advocate of chloroform, and in the book now published, (an enlargement of a former treatise,) he has placed together all the conceivable arguments in support of the use of this anaesthetic. The work is divided into ten chapters, of which the following are the principal contents:—(1) The history of anaesthetics. (2) Either, the earliest of modern anaesthetics. (3) Value of etherisation in lessening shock. (4) On some analogous hydro-carbons. (5) The discovery of chloroform. (6) The four stages of chloroform anaesthesia, and the operations adapted to each. (7) The contra-indications to the use of chloroform. (8) Local anaesthetics, and their benefits. (9) Use of anaesthetics in child-birth. (10) Fatal results of anaesthetics. We must do Dr. Kidd the justice to say that he certainly proves his case. We would indeed add that he over-proves it, and by the excessive zeal which he displays, and the tendency to special pleading which he evinces, may cause those who are themselves ignorant of the fact to look on his opinions with considerable suspicion. There is, too, a violence of style and a somewhat confusing mode of expression throughout the pages of the work, which are not creditable to the author. The condemnation of Richardson's method of local anaesthesia, by the cold ether spray is, as regards temperate climates, absolutely without foundation.

Vaccination invariably reviewed. By F. E. JENCKES, M.D. London: Clarendon, 1868.

The title of this brochure is one fairly and honestly given, since the author reviews, in a most straightforward and unprejudiced fashion, the arguments in favor of, and opposed to, vaccination. The question resolves itself into two, *viz.*, *first*, the actual value of vaccination as a prevention of small-pox, and the period through which the operation retains its beneficial influence; and *second*, the dangers of vaccination from the possible introduction of other matters into the organism. So far as we can see, the evidence adduced and discussed by Dr. Jenckes leads to the conclusion that vaccination is unquestionably a prevention. In regard to the period, he contends that a prevention, the efficacy of the vaccine matter extends over an average course of twenty-one years; but where the operation has been performed on both arms, and has produced four or five pustules, it may be regarded as a safeguard for life. Concerning

whatever to prove it. Take, for instance, the case of an abscess of the liver. Where did the germs come from to produce it? He considered all these changes in the animal body to be changes of oxidation, and that they required only oxygen and certain conditions of heat and moisture for their production. The same might be said of the purely inorganic elements. These cannot be said to combine with oxygen, except under certain conditions of temperature and moisture; but it would be equally fair, and equally absurd, to say that phosphorus was oxidized through the influence of *lactica* or *virgines*. Mr. Adams's paper has appeared in the two last numbers of the *Medical Times*.

Dr. Jenner has been made a Baronet, and every one will admit that the honor has not fallen on unworthy shoulders. Sir W. Jenner is equally beloved as a man and respected as a physician, and I believe he is the youngest Medical Bar not on record. It is reported that the purple fever or epidemic meningitis is again making its appearance in Dublin, and is extending its ravages. This remarkable affection has, till lately, been very little understood, and on this account the able author which Mr. J. N. Radcliffe has written upon it, in the just-issued second Vol. of "Reynolds's System of Medicine," is worthy the attention of those who wish to form an opinion on the point.

The "Sick Club" question is now attracting a good deal of notice in Birmingham and Manchester, and I should not be surprised if the movement just begun in those two "radical" towns would lead to a serious revolution in the system of medical remuneration. Some of our profession think that it is as absurd to expect a physician to give up his time gratuitously to the distress of an individual, as to ask a lawyer to refuse a fee for a client, or a doctor to forego his annual income. But whether this view be correct or not, it is at all events a glaring and that the privy counsellors of the Sick Club should be abused by the admission of numbers who are in such comfortable circumstances that they can well afford to pay their own doctor, because they are poorer brethren in the country districts, especially the able patients, and have to attend some thousands of examples at a single or remuneration than 2s. per head. What would the counsellors of London physicians if rich and poor alike goaded into the hospitals? And this is quite an analogous case.

Dr. O'Connell Sturges has been appointed Assistant Physician to Westminster Hospital. He had a hard tussle with his opponent at Manly.

Dr. Mackham, in addition to the Poor Law Inspectorship, has been appointed Medical Advisor for the Metropolis to the Poor Law Board. I believe the post is a recently established one, and I am not quite sure that it is not a sinecure.

Sir Deane Gilchrist does not seem to be very secure in his chair of the Baron's Institute, "Deloret" without recognizing him, and refuses to give his name in his list. The question, however, is not yet settled.

The fusion of the two medical schools at Birmingham—the Queen's and Sydenham Colleges—has taken place, and there is some probability of the union being successful one. At present, however, it would seem as if the staff of professors had the advantage in point of numbers at least, over the students. The Catholic University in Ireland has not yet received its charter, nor is it likely to receive it as political affairs seem to turn.

The Progress of the Medical and Collateral Sciences.

The Biliary Coloring Matters and Chlorophyll—It is our business with the coloring matters to have a firm of the opinion of chemists, that the coloring matter of the biliary calculus is allied to the green coloring matter of leaves. This subject of the analogy between the two substances has recently been taken up for investigation by Dr. T. L. Phipson, who, in a pamphlet reprinted from the *Quarterly Journal of the Chemical Society*, has reached the conclusion of biliary colorings. His researches were especially directed in regard to certain biliary concretions, and they fully confirmed that biliverdin differs from chlorophyll only by the elements of two equivalent atoms of carbonic acid. Phipson's conclusions are, that biliverdin is a

coloring matter of leaves in autumn may be converted into a brilliant green by the addition simply of sulphuric acid. The yellow coloring substance of certain biliary concretions may likewise be converted into green by the addition of sulphuric acid, which possibly converts it into biliverdin.

How to preserve Anatomical Specimens.—As many of our readers may be desirous of preserving anatomical or pathological specimens, and may be manufacturing with the excellent process of the Bismuth, we here give them details of the operation. The specimen has to go through four separate stages, and washing, tracing in fat, tanning, and drying. The specimen is made to traverse the vessels, and afterwards it is directed, with alcohol, *Sesqui*, ether is employed in like manner, and allowed to remain for some time in order completely to remove the fat. The oil distilled water is injected into the vessels to expel the ethereal solution of fat, and solution of tramm in boiling distilled water is subsequently injected. The oil, highly treated as previously dried by being passed through filter of calcium is forced through the vessels until complete desiccation is produced. The specimen will now retain its normal dimensions, and may be exposed to ordinary conditions without fear of change.

Swallowing Needles.—So many different tales are prevalent concerning the effects resulting from swallowing needles, that the following somewhat cruel experiment of Professor Zapp, of Pavia, acquires importance. The Italian scientist experimented on seven animals by causing them to swallow needles, and he succeeded, and at various intervals, made post-mortem examinations. In some cases, two or three, and in others as many as forty needles, whole or broken, were administered, and with the following results:—(1) Of eighty with sharp points, the points of some were directed towards the mouth, and of others toward the pharynx, but none were returned in the alimentary canal, nor was there produced any disturbance of the system. (2) The animals which were kept alive were found to have excreted all the needles in from four to 150 hours of the date of the experiment. (3) Of the animals killed before the examination of the needles, only one had a needle in the small intestine (duodenum), all the others the needles were found in the large intestine. (4) Curiously enough, the pins took longer in being expelled than the needles, and excretion took place more rapidly when the points were turned toward the pharynx. (5) The needles lost their brightness, but the lustre of the brass pins was improved.

An improved Clinical Thermometer has been devised and manufactured by M. Castro, one of the Parisian instrument makers. Its chief advantages are its strength, its very small size, its minute bore which enables one to estimate the course of the temperature rapidly, and an arrangement by means of which it is easily introduced in the axilla, mouth, or rectum, when used to record temperature.

The Vaso-motor Nerves of the Brain.—In a recent number of *Lectures on the Nervous System*, H. R. Notting publishes a paper on this subject, in which he points out that the facts originally stated by Squigli, Bernard, and others are in the main perfectly correct. His experiments were conducted on the brains of animals, and as the structures were not narcotized in any manner, they are on this account the more reliable. He especially observed the vessels of the piamter before and after section of the sympathetic nerve, and found that the innominate effect of the section was to produce dilatation of these vessels. On passing a gently and current through the peripheral portion of the nerve, because of the dilator of the vessels to diminish. He has in fact observed also another striking effect, that after section of the sympathetic the irritation of the senses causes contraction of the vessels of the pia mater. This he accounts for by supposing that some of the vaso-motor filaments are supplied by the cranial nerves, which anastomose with the carotid plexus in common with the carotid canal.

Curious disease of the Hip-joint and its treatment.—There is a report of an important paper by H. R. Silliman in the *Medical and Surgical Review* (No. 11 of 1867). The author records a long list of cases, and details at some length on the treatment of the disease, dependent on nutrition, which the author proposes in the rich and poor cases. These different treatments should always be borne in mind by the practitioner.

The Arsenic Bismuth—M. P. ...
 S. ...
 W. ...

The Action of the Chloride of ...
 M. ...
 N. ...
 T. ...

The Mono-Spectra in Pathology, Dr. W. ...
 H. ...
 M. ...

The Methyl Compound of Morphia Strychia ...
 M. ...
 W. ...
 H. ...

Vaccine S.
 M. ...
 H. ...
 W. ...
 T. ...
 M. ...

A new
 M. ...

M. ...
 M. ...
 T. ...
 M. ...

Effect of Various Preservation of Thims—M. ...
 M. ...
 T. ...

The Anatomical Elements—M. ...
 T. ...
 M. ...
 D. ...

The Contact and Intermittent Current in Paralysis—
 H. ...
 S. ...
 N. ...
 W. ...

The origin of urinary deposits has recently been ...
 H. ...
 K. ...
 W. ...
 M. ...

Effluvia, Diffusion and Dialysis—O. ...
 H. ...
 M. ...
 M. ...

Action of Curin on Batrachians—V. ...
 S. ...
 H. ...
 M. ...

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

ON CHOLERA.

BY C. MACNAMARA,

Surgeon to the Calcutta Ophthalmic Hospital.

Definition.—A disease which is capable of being generated at all seasons of the year in certain parts of India, and occasionally over vast tracts of Asia, Europe, and America; it shows a marked predilection for those living under insalubrious conditions, or whose health has been impaired from disease, or depression of the nerve force; it is very apt to be developed among new comers to a locality in which the disease prevails. Cholera is generated indiscriminately among persons of both sexes and all ages. It is characterized by nausea, faintness, and a feeling of oppression in the præcordial region, griping pains in the abdomen, frequent purging, (the stools being alkaline when passed, and in appearance resembling rice-water,) constant vomiting, partial or complete suppression of urine, and profuse perspiration. The skin is inelastic, and that of the hands and feet shrivelled and dusky; the eyes are sunk, and the features pinched; cramps are felt in the limbs; there is difficulty of breathing, intense thirst, excessive restlessness, rapid and small pulse, and suppressed voice. The external temperature of the body is slightly below 96°, and a peculiar sweetish sickly odour (fishy) is exhaled from the body, breath, and dejections. If left to nature, about one-half of those attacked with cholera recover of themselves, reaction supervening, and often being accompanied with fever, and not infrequently with suppression of urine and various other complications; or the disease may terminate, within a few hours from its commencement, in fatal collapse.

History.—The early Sanskrit writers are our most ancient authorities in the science of medicine. Of these Chararka is believed by the Hindus to have derived his knowledge from a mythological personage known as Dhawantari, coinciding in character with Esculapius. Chararka's works are incomplete; but in the *Siddh* of his disciple Susruta, we meet with the following description of a form of "Vishuka." The patient is attacked with "vomiting, purging, faintness, thirst, pain in the abdomen, yawning, forgetfulness, burning heat in the stomach, duskiness of the surface of the body, pain in the head and heart." The worst symptoms are "blueness of the gums, lips, and nails, diminution of the senses, coldness of the body, sunken eyes, suppressed voice, a feeling of complete lassitude," but "if burning of the palms of the hands and body, accompanied with sharp vomiting" occur, the patient is likely to recover; and should "he digest his food, all danger is passed," the patient obtaining immediate relief, the purging stops, and he is in comfort." If this description refers to cholera, the disease must have been in existence for many centuries, Susruta being mentioned in the *Mahabharata*, which was compiled before the Christian era.

These Hindu authorities lived and wrote in the North-Western Provinces of India, and it is remarkable that they describe Vishuka as being a sporadic disease,—a character it has retained up to the present time in the North-West, with the exception of waves of the disease which seem to pass over the country from time to time.

Hippocrates, Galen, and Whang-shoooh† are witnesses to the existence of cholera in their day, both in Europe and China, and they have been succeeded by a series of Grecian, Roman, and Arabian authors, bearing record to the fact of the

presence of cholera in the various countries in which they lived up to the present time.*

The literature of the middle ages is singularly barren in original observations regarding the science of medicine. Men occupied themselves rather with the ancient terms of art than with actual observation, and, in their critical researches, overlooked the important events that were passing before their eyes;† and this is precisely what is now going on among Hindus and Muhammadans in India. The Bards and Hakims pore over their ancient works with the greatest avidity, but are utterly blind to the necessity of noticing what is passing around them. Consequently, we have but few records in Persian or any other Orient al language to enlighten us as to the history of the diseases of India.‡ Otherwise there can be little doubt that we should have evidence of waves of epidemic cholera passing over the length and breadth of the country long prior to our occupying it.

The earliest record of the existence of cholera in Hindustan, from the pen of a European, occurs in the "Lendas da India" by Gaspar Correa. He says that, during the spring of the year 1593, 20,000 men had died in the army of Zamorin, the enemy of the King of Cochin, and that the cause of this mortality was enhanced "by the current spring diseases, and also small-pox, besides which there was another disease, sudden-like, which struck pain in the belly, so that a man did not last out eight hours' time."

The same author informs us that in the spring of 1543 he met with cholera in an epidemic form at Goa; that the natives called it *morubey*, and that the mortality was so great that it was with difficulty the dead could be buried; "so grievous was the throes, and so bad a sort, that the very worst portion seemed there (in the stomach) to take effect, as proved by vomiting, with draughts of water accompanying it, as if the stomach were parched up, and cramps that fixed the sinews of the joints and of the flat of the foot with pain so extreme, that the sufferer seemed at point of death; the eyes dimmed to sense, and the nails of the hands and feet black and arched."

In 1563, Dr. G. D'Orta,§ another Portuguese, gives us a vivid description of cholera as he met with it at Goa. He says the Arabs called it *hachais* (*haisa*), the name it is known by throughout India to this day. He adds that the disease is always most severe in "June and July."

Linschot, a Dutchman, who resided at Goa for some few years prior to 1589, remarks that "the diseases which these changes of the season bring to the inhabitants of Goa are several, among which that commonly known as *morubey* occurs, which comes on very suddenly to those subject to it, with swelling of the stomach and continual vomiting, till they fall into a faint. This disease is common, and proves deadly to many."||

There seems, therefore, no reason to doubt that epidemic cholera existed in Goa, the only province in India known to Europeans during the sixteenth century, and that its phenomena, and the time of its principal visitations, were precisely similar to the disease as seen there at the present day.

In the seventeenth century we have evidence of the presence of epidemic cholera in Batavia¶ (1629), in the province of

* Celsus A. C. *Celsi Medicina*, lib. IV, Chap. XL.

† De Cholera, Chap. 16, Alexandri Tralliani.

‡ Aretæus, lib. II, Chap. V. Celsus Aretæus, lib. III, Chap. XX.

§ Avicenna, p. 42, Edit. Rome, 1593.

† Hacker on the Epidemics of the Middle Ages. Translated by Dr. Balguyon, London, 1816.

‡ Contribution to Literature of Cholera. By G. Gaskoin, *Medico-Chirurg. Review*, 1867, p. 217.

§ *Medico-Chirurg. Review*, 1867, p. 217. Gaskoin on the Literature of Cholera.

¶ Quarterly Review, 1867, p. 32.

* An account of the diseases of the East Indies, by T. Bourne. Translated and published in London, p. 26.

* Hippocrates *Col. de morb.*, vol. lib. v, Sec. VII, fol. 114, Ed. fol. Francofurti, A. D. 1624.

† Transactions of the Medical and Physical Society, Calcutta, Vol. I, p. 24.

6, 18, 28,* and in February 1792,† numbers of 1600,‡ and 1500,§ of the disease, first at Serampore, where, at one time, a Brahmin, was killed at a meal, and afterwards, in the province, in 1793.

In 1792 it is said to have been very extensively in Upper Hindostan, and, in 1793, to have been in Bengal, and probably nearly everywhere else in both India, Ceylon, and China.

The account of the war between the province of cholera and the continent of India is given by Dr. Parry, as a witness, in his History, 1774, and as a resident in Curtis's Works, in 1803, and is also given in the Edinburgh in 1807. It is a sad and interesting story, but having a more common oracular character than that of Bengal, and, in the thirty-three years (1774-1807) written, particularly, by, and for the use of, Dr. Girding, and others of a work in London, in 1787, on the "Spasmodic Affliction of India, &c.," which he never gives any credit to his opponent, Dr. Parry, and, therefore, that, except of Dr. Parry's letters, which contain some general notices of the Faculty at Madras, which were printed in 1782, and also of the history we now designate cholera as cholera.

It is a story which is so full, so somewhat prominently forewarned, and so full of imagination, or, indeed, on the part of the author, as to give an 18th century history, and a perfect right to talk of cholera as an epidemic, and a classical, and, in the heading of epidemic diseases, as they phrase it, but, saying, thus, we are the case, we are hardly being any fat, talking to me, with a description of the disease as cholera, among the writings of English physicians in India, during the latter part of the eighteenth and in the first part of the nineteenth century.

In 1774, Dr. Parry, of Madras, writes, §—"I am happy to hear you have or assisted the army to change its ground, for there can be no doubt, from the circumstances you have mentioned, that their situation contributed to the frequency and violence of the attack of this lingous disease, which, as you have observed, is a violent cholera morbus, the same they had at Trinne name." (It is to be noted Dr. Curtis remarks that this must refer to some occasion long anterior to the war of 1782.) Dr. Parry goes on to describe that it is often epidemic among the Blacks. "In the first campaign made in this country, the same disease was most widely fatal, and earth, in, and thirty Europeans of the late war, died with it, I have met with many single cases since." In 1776 cholera was endemic among the natives in the Andra Valley in Assam, and throughout the Travancore country.

In 1781 we find cholera prevalent during the month of March in the district of Ganjam. It attacked a division of some 5000 Bengal troops marching through that province, under Colonel P. Ross. He reports that he "saw those who, he knows than five hundred men, to be hurried into the hospital on the 22nd of March. He says:—"Death raged in the camp with loss not to be described, and disposed to be devoured by the pestilence. In vain I laboured to discover the cause of our misfortune. I attended the troops from about length found that *there had been a pestilential disease among the people, which, he says first attacked the sick, and that part of our camp was already drinking the water, and the ground." In the course of a few days 11,000 men were killed, and 1000 affected with this disease. On the 29th of March, however, the attack was reduced to 9000, and on the 1st of the following month the force was able to march, leaving the ground, and left behind. It will be observed that Colonel P. Ross's estimate of the disease as being cholera, he did not publish, and in the following quotation from a des-*

patch of the Supreme Government to the Court of Directors, to contain is made of cholera. This document is dated 27th April, 1781, the occurrence of the disease is noticed, and the question which it raises in this document mentioned in terms of the manner of it. After alluding to its progress into Calcutta, the letter proceeds:—"The disease, to which we allude has not been confined to the country of Ganjam; it afterwards invaded its way to this place (Calcutta), and after chiefly affecting the native inhabitants, so as to occasion a great mortality during the period of a fortnight, it is now generally and heavily pursuing its course to the northward." The progress of this epidemic has never been recorded, but we have, at any rate, evidence of cholera raging throughout the district of Ganjam in March and April, 1781, of its traveling northward to Calcutta, attacking the inhabitants of that city and the intervening country, and passing on to the same westerly direction. Here, unfortunately, a blank occurs in the history of its progress, but we find that in April, 1788, cholera first cut in Hurdwar, and in less than eight days is supposed to have cut off twenty thousand victims.

This is precisely the course, and about the same time which subsequent waves of cholera have taken when passing over India, and it seems to me that this fragmentary history is presumptive evidence that the epidemic was of a similar nature to that which occurred in 1817, and on subsequent occasions. This position is strengthened by the fact that Dr. Girding says:—"Spasms were the first disease which appeared among the troops who arrived at Madras in October, 1782. More than fifty of these fresh men were killed by them within the first three days after they landed in that country, and in less than a month's time upwards of a thousand had suffered from attacks of these complaints." He goes on to describe the disease:—"Floodings of the surface of the body, especially of the hands, flatness of the pulse, spasmodic contraction of the lower extremities, the hands and feet become sudden with cold sweats, nails livid, pulse more feeble, but cold, thirst insatiable, vomiting incessant, which, last, if not checked, soon terminates the existence of the patient." This is evidently an account of the disease we recognize as epidemic cholera. Fra Paolo da S. Bartolomeo, in a work published at Rome in 1796, gives a curious account of cholera. He says:—"The disease is called *morbus assa*, or *coromandis*, in the language of Malabar, *chaicaga* in Sanscrit, vulgarly *morbus assa*, and not *morbus de chaic* as described by Sennert. It is an intestinal colic caused by the cold wind from the Ghattes, or from bathing in the cold mountings. This disease is frequent in Malabar in October, November, and December, when the wind comes from the Ghattes loaded with particles of nitre, it is as common on the Coromandel Coast in April and May, and often carries off thirty or forty persons in a village during one night, for, unless instantly relieved, it destroys life in the course of a few hours. In 1782 the disease broke out with terrible ferocity, and destroyed an enormous number of persons." In the month of May, 1782, cholera was raging in an epidemic form at Trinne, and our first effect at anchor there was severely affected. § M. Sennert, in his Travels in India, also mentions the existence of epidemic cholera along the Coromandel Coast from 1772 to 1781, so that we have independent evidence of the existence of this disease in an epidemic form in Bengal during March, 1781, in Madras, and, in fact, along the whole of the Eastern Coast of India in 1782; and at Hurdwar in the Punjab during the year 1783.

* Report on the Epidemic Cholera Morbus as it visited the Territories subject to the Presidency of Bengal, by James Jamieson, Calcutta, 1829.

† Essays on the Hepatic and Spasmodic Affections in India, by J. G. Parry, M.D., p. 126, 127.

‡ Ganges and India Mountain, p. 80.

§ Dr. W. C. Macleod reports on Epidemic Cholera, p. 10.

¶ On the Madras Reports, p. 13.

* *Ganges and India Mountain*, p. 14, p. 15.

† *Essays on the Hepatic and Spasmodic Affections in India*, by J. G. Parry, M.D., p. 126, 127.

‡ *Ganges and India Mountain*, p. 80.

§ *On the Madras Reports*, p. 13.

¶ *On the Madras Reports*, p. 13.

I conceive this, therefore, to be a history, though far from a detailed one, of the first wave of epidemic cholera which passed over India since the English occupied the country; and it seems that the reason for our not possessing clearer indications of the circumstances of the disease arises from the fact that it was hardly recognised as cholera. Moreover, it was not till 1786 that the Hospital Board was established in Bengal and Madras, before which period no returns of the sick were made. Mr. Scott adds, that the reports from that date up to 1802 were kept in no regular order. Our possessions in India also, prior to 1781, were surrounded by vast tracts of unsubjected country, beyond which the course of the epidemic could not possibly be traced; but the details above given are, nevertheless, important, as indicating the fact that, within twenty-four years of the battle of Plassey, we have evidence of a wave of epidemic cholera passing over a considerable portion of India.

During the month of October, 1787, epidemic cholera committed terrible ravages at Arcot and Vellore. With regard to this outbreak, Mr. Davis, a member of the Madras Hospital Board, remarks:—"I found in what was called the Epidemic Hospital, three different diseases, *viz.*, patients labouring under cholera morbus, an inflammatory fever, with universal cramps, and a spasmodic affection of the nervous system, distinct from cholera morbus. I understood, from the Regimental Surgeon, that the last disease had proved fatal to all who had been attacked with it, and that he had already lost twenty-seven men of the regiment in a few days. Five patients were then shown to me with scarce any circulation whatever to be discovered; with their eyes sunk within the orbit; jaws set, bodies cold, and extremities livid.* They were being treated with castor-oil."

During the year 1790 cholera was very prevalent again in Ganjam; in 1794 at Vellore, where it was described as the "Causis."

From the returns kept in the Office of the Bengal Medical Board during the early part of the present century, and which relate exclusively to the European troops, I find that in 1808 five cases of cholera are reported,—one at Meerut, one at Delhi, another at Muttra, and two in Calcutta. In 1809 three cases occurred, and in 1811, 1812, 1813 no less than seventy-nine cases of cholera are reported as having taken place at Chunar, but not a single one from any other station in the Presidency. During the year 1814 instances of cholera occurred at Cawnpore, Nagpore, Benares, Meerut, Dinapore, and the Presidency; in all forty-six cases, and eleven deaths. These are the first deaths reported from this disease among our European troops in Bengal. In 1815 and 1816 there were no cases of cholera; and in this Presidency only two cases occurred among the troops at Benares in 1817, although the disease was raging throughout the whole of Bengal, showing that statistics, drawn simply from the reports of our European troops, are hardly to be relied upon as a criterion of the existence of cholera in India.

It appeared in a crowded barrack in Fort William, in 1814, among recruits just arrived from England,† and in an epidemic form at Jaulnah during the same year. With regard to this outbreak, Dr. Cruickshanks subsequently explained (in 1831) that "I entered these cases in the Hospital Returns as bowel complaint in 1814, because the matter ejected by vomiting and stool was of an aqueous or mucilaginous consistency, containing no bile." Mr. Scott observes with regard to this report:—"This paper of Mr. Cruickshanks is of great importance, inasmuch as it evinces that cholera did exist to an extent not hitherto suspected to have occurred at so recent a date, and also that, even under these circumstances, no trace of it is found in the public records; for, unless we had been guided by the in-

cidental remark of Dr. Duncan, made five years after the occurrence, and had most fortunately been able to refer to Dr. Cruickshanks, the medical returns of the corps never could have led to the knowledge of it. Hence, as already observed, though cholera very rarely appears in the sick returns of former times, it is by no means to be thence inferred that it did not then exist."*

We are, I think, therefore justified in arriving at the conclusion that it was nothing new for cholera to spread over India in an epidemic form prior to 1817 and 1819. The nature of the disease was then fully recognised, and the country subjected to our rule, so that British Officers were for the first time in a position to report upon the cholera as it affected the natives of the country.†

(To be continued.)

EXPERIMENTS ON THE ACTION OF THE COBRA POISON.

By J. FAYRER, M.D., F.R.C.S.E.,

Surgeon, Bengal Army; Professor of Surgery in the Medical College of Bengal.

Third series.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

12-45 p. m.—A fish, (*Ophiocephalus marulius*.) about fourteen inches long, was bitten once near the tail by a large fat cobra at 12-50, and was put into water immediately.—1 p. m. Fish seems sluggish.—1-5 p. m. Jumped out of the jar of water.—1-8. Fish active; plunging about in the jar.—1-14. Plunging; broke the glass jar. Put into another vessel.—1-16. Seems sluggish; can be taken up by the tail.—1-22. Turning on his side; plunging; jumps out of the jar.—1-25. Exhibits convulsive movements; lying on its side. 1-30.—Nearly dead.—1-40. Dead. Another fish of the same size, not bitten, but kept for the same period in a similar jar, is alive.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

22nd April.—A dog was bitten by a full-grown bungurus fasciatus at 1-13 in two places on the inner side of the left thigh.—1-16. No paralysis of leg such as is seen in cobra bite. Dog seems uneasy.—1-28. Dog seems unaffected.—1-36. Dog lying down; seems sluggish; nothing very striking in his appearance; breathing perhaps rather hurried.—1-55. Sluggish; struggles and drags the leg a little.—1-56. Vomiting a quantity of bilious fluid. Snorting; restless.—1-58. Seems very restless; lies down; is evidently nauseated, and tries to vomit.

2 p. m.—Respiration hurried and irregular, 112 in the minute.—2-15 p. m. Sluggish and nauseated; breathing quick.—2-30. Sluggish, but can be roused; makes efforts to vomit; breathing slightly oppressed.—4 p. m. Same state. Dog died on the afternoon of the 25th.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.

A young mongoose (*herpestes mnlaccousis*) was bitten two or three times by a full-grown cobra, at 1-24 p. m. on the 30th April, on the inside of the thigh, from which the hair was first removed. Blood was drawn by the bites.—1-27. Lies stretched out, and rigid from convulsion.—1-29. General

* Scott's Report, p. xi.

† Prior to 1769 the Company's territories in India were confined to an area containing some 15,000 square miles. In 1765 the Company acquired command over Bengal, but not till 1775 over the zamindari of Benares. From 1792 to 1799 the Nizam's territory, the Carnatic, Gorakhpore, and Bareilly came under their rule; in 1801 Bundelkhand; in 1802 Kuttack and Balasore; the Duab, Delhi, and Ahmadnagar; in 1803 Gujarat in 1805, and Kumdon, Sagur, Huttah, and Darwar in 1817.

* Scott's Report, p. xi.

† A Concise Narrative of Paris connected with the Disease which occurred in the District of Jesso, by K. Tytler; Calcutta, September, 1817. Printed by C. M. Pratt and Co.

typhoid, and twitches of muscles—1-30. Dead.—1-50. *R. j. merta* strongly marked.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.

22nd April.—A pythia (No. 3060) was bitten freely on the mouth by a large cobra at 1-20 p.m.—1-45. Quite motionless—1-55. A typhoid at 2-45 p.m. Snake unaltered.—2-50. Fully recovered—4 p.m. Seems well. Dead—Apparently well.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

A large abnan was bitten three times on the body, and once between the eyes, by a fulgid cobra, of a light color, at 1-27 and 4 p.m.—1-10 p.m. Snake motionless—1-15. Next stage—2-10. Snake unaltered—2-50. Snake unaltered. The next day at noon he was perfectly well.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

23rd April.—A cat was bitten by the same cobra that bit the dog, at 1-27 p.m.—1-50. Cat uneasy, not paralysed.—1-53. Restless, headlong, hurried—1-40. Cat lying down, seems unconscious; muscular twitches and hurried breathing—1-55. A typhoid observed.

2-50. Anxious, rather distressed; has bitten its tongue, and has with mouth half open, and tongue protruded.—2-50. Is quite motionless for the influence of the poison. Lies on one side; when placed on its feet, drops with its belly on the ground, and then falls over on one side; constant twitches of the limbs, and frequent violent efforts made to rise, but quite in vain. Heart's action feeble, 108.—4 p.m. Dead. The blood, examined twenty minutes after death, showed no perceptible change.

EXPERIMENT No. 7.

A dog was bitten by a Bungarus fasciatus, about six feet long, on the inner side of the left thigh, at 1-27 p.m.—1-23. Dog restless; lying the wound; respiration hurried, probably from excitement—1-35. No apparent change; no paralysis as in case of cobra bite—1-50. Seems rather weak in the hind leg, but otherwise quite well and playful—2-50. Dog seems well; lying down. The next day at noon the dog was quite well, and ate his food. He died a day or two later.

EXPERIMENT No. 8.

24th April.—A cat was bitten by a half-grown Bungarus fasciatus in the thigh, from which the hair had been previously removed at 1-48 p.m.—2-50. This cat from the first was restless, and apparently cowed, keeping its mouth open, and its tongue protruded. It had an abscess in one cheek. Within the first hour there has been little change; the animal is purring rather more strongly. The nose round the neck being rather tight, was somewhat slackened, and at 3-40 p.m. the cat was found to have expired.

24th 1st. The cat found dead.

EXPERIMENT No. 9.

A mongoose was bitten in the inner side of the thigh by a large cobra at 1-41 p.m. and was put into a cage immediately at 1-48; apparently not affected. No paralysis of leg; very active in cage; trying to get out—2 p.m. Mongoose eating vigorously some raw meat; seems quite unaltered. Was quite well next day.

EXPERIMENT No. 10.

2nd April.—A cobra was bitten by a large Bungarus fasciatus at 2-12 p.m. at a place where some of his scales had been first removed.—2-30. Seems quite well.—4 p.m. Seems well.—2-50. Well.

EXPERIMENT No. 11.

A bull-size dead rat and another full-sized cobra in the mouth, were made to cause their jaws respectively in each other's mouths at 4-37 p.m. Both cobras were then put into a wire

cage. They were fast and vigorous—1-42. Both snakes very active and angry in the cage—2-50. Both snakes unaltered, constantly striking at each other. The next day at noon they were quite well.

EXPERIMENT No. 12.

A large cobra and a very small cobra were put into a large wire cage at 1 p.m. The snake struck at the mongoose, and they grappled with each other frequently, and apparently the mongoose must have been bitten as the snake held on to it, about the neck or head. At 1-15 p.m. there was no effect on the mongoose; both it and the snake were much excited and angry, the former having its tongue—2-30 p.m. No effect on the mongoose. The snake is bitten about the neck and shows the burning wounds—1-55. They are both occasionally darting at each other, but the mongoose jumps over the snake, and tries to avoid it. Next day at noon both were well; the snake frequently struck at the mongoose, but did not appear to injure it; both seem very savage, but the mongoose would not bite the snake; he jumped over it.

There had been two cobras in the cage with the mongoose during the night, both equally fierce, and striking each other and the mongoose; but the latter was unharmed. He was bitten once by the cobras rather severely on the head.

EXPERIMENT No. 13.

On Wednesday, 27th May, 1868, I made the following experiments; the idea having been suggested by a letter addressed to the Editor of *Engineering*, March 20th, 1868, by Mr. W. Clarke, C.E., who, relating his experiments on poisonous snakes in India, in 1854, mentions the extraordinary effect that creosote had in destroying them, and suggesting its use, or that of analogous chemical compounds, in the treatment of snake-bites. The effect of an analogous chemical compound, carbolic acid, on the snake itself I have as yet only ascertained. The therapeutic value remains to be determined, though, in anticipation, I express my doubt as to its being more beneficial than anything else, unless applied early enough to decompose the poison before its absorption into the nervous circulation; and thus we could seldom hope to effect. I am quite satisfied that the application of carbolic acid, or perhaps even of coal tar, to the walls and timbers, and apertures by which their entry into a house could be effected, would have a most beneficial effect in keeping snakes at a distance.

At 12-33 noon I put a few drops of carbolic acid into the mouth of a large and very vigorous cobra, and it seemed to produce almost immediate effect. The snake struggled violently, opened and closed the mouth, went rapidly into a state of convulsion, as evinced by a series of spasmodic peristaltic waves of the whole length of the body. In less than five minutes it was evidently powerless for evil, and unable to strike or even move from the spot, but was frequently convulsed. The convulsed movements continued getting fainter, and did not entirely cease for twenty minutes, when it was quite dead. This cobra was over four feet six inches in length, and peculiarly active and vicious.

EXPERIMENT No. 14.

I poured a few drops of carbolic acid on to the floor of a large wooden cage, with a wire front, in which there was a large bungarus fasciatus. The snake was not handled, and the carbolic acid could scarcely have got into the mouth, though it touched the head. The bungarus immediately withdrew his head from the spot where the acid fell, and became very much excited and convulsed, the tail being for a time quite rigid. It turned over on its back in about three minutes, and lay almost motionless for about five or six minutes more, during which slight convulsive movements occurred, as in the cobra, and in less than ten minutes it was quite dead. This snake was two

feet long, and very powerful, sluggish as the bungarus always is, I believe, in the day time; but very active when roused.

Life in this snake was much more rapidly extinguished, and by a smaller dose of the poison, than in the smaller cobra. As they lay stretched out side by side, convulsive twitchings were apparent in the cobra for some minutes after the bungarus was quite dead. This would indicate that the bungarus is much more susceptible than the cobra, for it was apparently destroyed by the vapour, or, at all events, by the very small quantity that might have trickled down from the head into the mouth. After death, the mucous membrane of the mouth was natural; whereas in the cobra that had drops placed in the mouth, those had completely whitened the mucous membrane, and coagulated the poison which had exuded from the fangs.

I hope to test the merits of carbonic acid and other analogous chemical compounds as therapeutic agents in snake-bite on some future occasion. In the meantime, its use, as a preventive against the entry of snakes into houses and other places where they may prove dangerous, or as a means of getting rid of them where they have taken possession, is suggested, for there can be no doubt that the drug is most deadly and disagreeable to the reptiles.

ON SNAKE-POISON.

By CHARLES R. FRANCIS, M.B.

DURING the past few weeks the subject of snake-poison has not been allowed to slumber. It has been taken up warmly by the Profession and by the Press, and it may fairly be expected that useful results will follow. Dr. Mohendro Lall Sircar has commenced a series of interesting experiments with a view to testing the truth of Dr. Halford's statements. These he has been unable to confirm,* and additional negative evidence is therefore furnished in favor of the pathology of cobra poisoning consisting in *nervous shock*. In Dr. Sircar's experiments, three fowls, a dog, a cat, a jackal, a fish, a young cobra, and a long slender snake, (*Coluber lineatus*?) known locally as *kanore*, were bitten by cobras. All died in the usual way, and even the young cobra felt the influence of the poison. It became lethargic, and the snake-charmer thought it would die; but in the course of half an hour it roused itself, and became as vigorous as ever.

It will be remembered by the readers of the *British Medical Journal* that, subsequently to his former experiments, Dr. Halford caused a cat, big with young, to be bitten by a cobra. The cat died, and the kittens in the uterus (there were four) were found dead on opening that organ. On examining the blood of the cat and of the kittens, the same appearances were found

in each, viz., an abundance of the "foreign cells." That the kittens were poisoned through the blood of the cat is perfectly clear, and the question arises, (setting aside for the present any enquiry as to the cause of the discrepancy, in the results of their investigation of the blood, between the observers in Calcutta and in Melbourne), can the young of any animal which has been bitten by a cobra be poisoned by *its milk* when swallowed and taken into the stomach? Physiology answers, no. The poison, *once in the mother's blood*, will be reproduced in the secretions, we can readily understand; and, if milk so impregnated were applied to an abraded surface on the young, symptoms of poisoning would doubtless follow; but would they follow if that milk were presented to the stomach? It is well known that, as a rule, a poison which, if introduced into a *wound*, will rapidly produce a fatal result, may be *swallowed* with perfect impunity. I am not aware of any exception to this rule.

Professor Christison mentions, in his book on Poisons, that "a pup of Professor Mangili swallowed at once the whole poison of four vipers without suffering any inconvenience, and that of six vipers was given to a blackbird, that of ten to a pigeon, and that of sixteen to a raven, with no other effect beyond slight and transient stupor." Such facts as these settle the point at once. The question then arises, can a poison, when presented to the stomach in all its original virility and entirety, is not absorbed by that organ, but which passes through the intestinal canal without doing any mischief, be taken up into the system when introduced into the stomach after having been secreted from the blood into the milk? Before answering this question, we must know in what shape the poison exists under the two circumstances. Is it the same in the milk as it is when swallowed into the stomach? or has the essence of the poison, as it were, been secreted in the former; and is the active principle thus brought into contact with the absorbents taken up by them when the original poison would be rejected? The readiness with which milk becomes impregnated with active principles is well known. Drugs given to the mother find their way through the milk of the former into the stomach of the child, and operate occasionally more energetically upon the one than upon the other. Some kinds of food, which have little or no effect upon the parent, act like poison upon the infant. To quote once more from Professor Christison. He tells us that at Aurillac, in France, the milk of certain cows caused violent vomiting, with other symptoms of cholera, in consequence, it was believed, of the cows having fed upon a particular herbage—the *expurblia* or *seris*, a species of *spurge*; that Professors Oudis and Marc were appointed by the Society of Medicine of Paris to report upon the accident; that they did not consider that any of the received explanations were at all satisfactory; and that *they were disposed to ascribe the poisonous alteration of the milk to a principle formed by a vital process*.* Now what are we to understand by this last statement? It is not, I imagine, presumed that the poisonous alteration took place independently of any poisonous constituent in the blood. May it not have been that what was comparatively innocuous in the food, or even in the blood, became intensely deleterious in the milk? This, I am aware, is very likely begging the question; and it may be urged "why go so far for an explanation when we see, and especially in India, how readily milk is vitiated in stormy weather in the rainy season, when the air is charged with electricity; and this quite irrespective of poisonous food?" True; but *is the vitiation of the milk so vitiated* I have first left the animal. It is *drawn milk*, milk left to stand, which becomes changed, not the milk as it

* Dr. S. Weir Mitchell has failed to discover anything of the kind in the blood of those poisoned by rattlesnakes.—*Medical Times and Gazette*, 2nd February, 1858.

* This view is quite sufficient to account for all the symptoms which result from the introduction of the poison of serpents into the blood; the slow and difficult re-purification; the languid circulation of the attenuated blood, with the altered character of its elements; the dilatation of the pupils; the fœcidity at the mouth; and the general lethargy, followed by convulsions and death.

* This is not apisonism snake. It is known also, in Bengal, as *B. a. cobra*. The term *kanore* has been suggested by Dr. Sircar, because of the resemblance of the snake to the one described under that name by Bussell in page 42 of his book. The fact of its having succeeded in the poison of the cobra would however, afford further proof that harmless snakes are not proof against the cobra which are poisonous. This was proved the result, too, which was observed by Messrs. Twining and Broome in 1825. In the course of their experiments, they employed an innocent water-snake, called *allipon*, to be bitten to wards the tail by a cobra. It died in less than two hours. These observers further prove that a poisonous snake is apparently insusceptible of the poison of another species. A *hobra*, known in Behar as the *snake of the snake charmer*, (*Ophiophagus colubus*?) of Bussell, a snake with four poisonous fangs in the upper jaw, two on either side, and a cobra were made to bite each other, with no results whatever.

† Of December 21st, 1857.

* There is no difficulty of course in understanding that a vegetable which is innocuous when eaten, will act deleteriously, also, when taken into the system by way of the milk. The question here is, will the essential principle of a vegetable which will not poison when eaten, have that effect when taken into the milk?

was fed to the child. Thus, I have as usual, proved the fact of its passage into the milk, and of its conveyance to the infant. It is, however, to be observed, that *Hydrophobus* is more, and not less, abundant in milk, than in any other fluid of the system. It is, as we sometimes find, passed to the infant with a milk, which is equally rich in every respect, as that of a cow or goat. But regarding that point, as being a point of view, rather than of fact, we are not to be surprised to find, that there were, in the fluid, phenomena, which, if not accounted for, the variation in the cases reported by the various Observers. More, I think, I am inclined to believe, that the milk, being passed, by the child to the infant, which was introduced into the blood, through the placenta, and that the *total principle* of the poison, led to the fatal consequences. Of what is so, has been composed, is a question, which, must be answered, before we can determine the difference between its constitution, when secreted from the placenta, and its constitution, after it has passed through the blood into the milk. In the course of the experiments conducted by Dr. Fayrer, and recorded in the *British Medical Review*, of February, 1867, the fresh poison appeared to be a viscid homogeneous fluid, displaying certain two characters, when examined either by the naked eye, or the microscope. Dr. Buchanan examined fresh poison under the microscope, and was so struck by the magnificent appearance, of a heavily gorgeous and resplendent, that he ran into the mess-room to call his brother officers to come and see it; but, when they arrived, the entire surface was changed, the beautiful junction had vanished, nothing tangible being left. Dr. Mohrstedt and Saer, on the other hand, tells us, in the *Cochran Journal of Medicine* for April, 1868—that he found fresh snake-venom consist of a fluid, which he calls *hyaline mass*, and *coagulated cells*; and he argues very justly that, because these cells were not found in the blood of animals poisoned by rhus, therefore the active principle could not reside in them.

The question is at present involved in some obscurity, and it will be desirable to make further observations upon the constitution of snake-venom when fresh in the blood, and in milk, after it has passed through the blood. That cobra poison was taken from the mother to the young, has been proved by Dr. Hillhouse's experiment upon the cat, whose kittens were afterwards found dead in the uterus; and now whether the young of any animal contaminated with snake-venom will be able to swallow the parent's milk, can only be proved by a similar experiment, which I propose to make on the next opportunity. I hope others will be induced to conduct a similar experiment, which will probably be the most satisfactory and valuable, which will have a bearing upon the subject. It is, however, not necessary to enter into details here, as the subject has already been fully treated by the late Dr. Parry, in the *Medical Magazine*, for a series of years, and the pages of our monthly journals, if allowed to pass from the mother, if any one of the passages had the usual symptoms of hydrophobia, the examinee will be dead, that the poisonous principle has passed from the mother to the young, through the medium of the milk. This experiment is worth making, as it will afford an opportunity, which will be true to the nature of the pathogenesis of certain diseases, which are transmitted from the parent to the offspring.

There are not a few instances, also, recorded, which have generally interested me, and which I have already mentioned. It is stated by two very intelligent and intelligent individuals, who would I have no objection, whenever I have an opportunity, that a Hindoo mother was seized at a certain moment, with a child, who was slightly raised from the ground, with her two children, one being in

front at the breast. In the course of the night the elder child cried out, that she had been bitten by a snake, and, tragically, in the confusion which ensued, the mother was bitten likewise on one of her hands. Both died under the influence of the poison, which was that of a cobra. And the infant, whom the mother had taken to her breast to nurse, (for it had begun to cry,) died also with symptoms of poisoning. A source of fallacy exists in the possibility of the infant having been bitten too; but my informant assures me that it was not. The other case is that of a calf, who was killed by sucking milk from its mother, who had been recently bitten by a snake. Here again we have the same source of fallacy, the probability being indeed greater in this case that both mother and young were bitten. The explanation given by my informant is this:—the snake had only succeeded in the capture of such snakes, (swallowed itself round one of the hind legs of the cow, and sucked its milk; that the mother remained unharmed, but that the calf imbibed the poison which had been left upon the udder. This is evidently an error. The cow was doubtless bit poisoned at all, bitten by the snake. What gives a just view of probability to the truth of this statement is that the calf was seen to suck at the udder, which led to a suspicion of its being under the influence of snake-poison. It died shortly afterwards, *convinced*. The teller of the story adds that the cow was taken ill subsequently to the calf, and was found dead in the stall two or three hours afterwards.

I can only say in conclusion, as I said before, that *experimentum in corpore verum*.

A COURSE OF LECTURES ON THE PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE OF MEDICINE DELIVERED AT THE MEDICAL COLLEGE OF BENGAL.

By CHARLES R. FRANCIS, M.B.

Late Professor of the Faculty of Medicine, Sec. Sec. Sec.

PART OF AN INTRODUCTORY LECTURE.

(Continued from Vol. III, No. 3, p. 120.)

My usefulness is in the degree to which you, upon the moral training which has led to my youth, and upon the religious instruction which has been conveyed from his relatives or friends. My, a native youth, I am assured to find, as both into the world, I copy the words of what is right. His conduct is his own, and is not that of his father. He is obliged to work for his own sustenance, and by the force of his own amiable character, he is able to exert an influence in the society of his fellow-men, by his skill, coming an instrument for great good, to the benefit of his people, respected by all. He takes an interest in the welfare of his immediate neighbourhood, and of his fellow-men, if they be in want of human instruction and civilization. "As a Physician," and one of our oldest chiefs, says, "it is worth to be a man of industry," and I can add that you must do this, also, depends upon the charity of the Subaltern. It is, I repeat, the duty of my young men to be just, and to be just. If it would better to feel that, in your kind way, you are to be just, by breaking up the antagonism of the Government upon the part of your countrymen, and to be just, how much better this than, by being unfaithful, and depending in a servile or slavish manner to the call of duty, and depending in your whole body. It sometimes happens that Subalterns and Surgeons are obliged to exercise their influence in a somewhat irregular manner. For example, owing to a variety of causes, which it is not necessary to en-

* The original text in this passage is a little disarranged, and is given, but I follow the present.

quire into here, the rank of Sub-Assistant Surgeon is not always understood by Europeans. Many educated Europeans do not know the difference between a Sub-Assistant Surgeon and a Native Doctor; nay, in some instances, between him and a compounder. Consequently, the rank not being recognized, orders are given, it may be, to come and see a patient, when the patient should have been sent to the hospital, or, in the absence of any hospital, to the Sub-Assistant Surgeon's quarters. Now this is not the time to stand too much upon one's dignity. It may be an urgent case, and therefore, notwithstanding the irregularity, which it is very easy politely to point out, it is one's duty, in the cause of humanity, (in the *enthusiasm of humanity*;) to go and see the patient.

There are certain preliminary branches of instruction, with which you are expected to be familiar, before you commence your attendance on those which are final. You must know something of materia medica, chemistry, and botany, in addition to anatomy and physiology; for, without a knowledge of these several subjects, you cannot be accomplished physicians.

Materia Medica is so intimately associated with the practice of medicine, it has so direct a bearing upon the treatment of disease, that you require a more complete knowledge of it than of chemistry and botany. We live in an age when it is very much the fashion to depreciate the value of drugs. Nature, the *res medicatrix nature*, is everything now. Certain drugs have their value nevertheless. Indeed, as with other gifts, it is their abuse, and not their use, which has brought the riches of the pharmacopœia into disrepute. We have gone back to the days of our wise ancestors, and ascertained that we had got into the way of giving too much medicine. But then, not content with a medium course, we must needs maintain that, to give any medicine at all was a mistake. But you will see for yourselves that it is not a mistake to prescribe a sedative where rest is required, quinine or arsenic to counteract the effect of malaria, or iodine to dispel a bronchœcœ. Thanks to ipecacuanha, when prescribed in appropriate doses, the mortality from dysentery is everywhere much reduced. Nowhere is this so strikingly seen as in the Army. With this drug in his hand, the Army Surgeon is prepared to meet the foe in perfect confidence as to the result. It was not so in former days, before Surgeon Docker, of Her Majesty's 6th Foot, gave to the world his new mode of prescribing ipecacuanha in drachm doses, to be repeated according to circumstances.* It is only within the last ten years that this system has worked such wonders. Prior to the commencement of the last decade, the mortality from dysentery in the European Army in India was above 11 per cent. It is now below 5. You must watch the effect of medicines very closely, and satisfy yourselves that the result which you see is the effect of the drug prescribed. There doubtless are some disorders of the system, not amounting to actual disease, which will rights themselves, and for which no medicine whatever, nothing beyond a little hygienic treatment, is required. Others again absolutely require the physician's aid. They, too, would after a time terminate without the intervention of remedial measures, but they may extinguish the patient's life in the process. There are other diseases and conditions which would never be cured without medicine.

A knowledge of materia medica raises you above the level of mere artisans. You know the history and all the interesting features, whatever they may be, of the tools which you are using.

* Mr. Docker has reintroduced large doses of this drug. Ipecacuanha was prescribed in drachm doses, in Spanish America, more than 150 years ago. His application of the drug is novel.

Botox has never commended itself to the Native or Indian students of India. But, apart from its value as a means of mental cultivation, and as an elegant accomplishment, a knowledge of botany may be of great service to you when separated from your medical stores. You may be sent on duty, for instance, into the interior of the hills of India, your medicine chest may become exhausted, and you would then be glad to avail yourselves of the resources which surround you in the growing vegetation of the district. Now, if you are botanists, you may discover a fair substitute for quinine in the *berberis aquatica* and *acutata* with which the Himalayas, at certain elevations, are covered; an efficacious astringent in the juice expressed from the bark of the *sapindus racemosus*; and a valuable antiseptic in the powder covering the capsules of the *pathria longifolia*. All these and many more, to be found in different parts of the Himalayas, are valuable indigenous remedies. I have been glad to avail myself of them on more than one occasion similar to what I have instanced as not unlikely to befall any of yourselves.

With chemistry you will have made yourselves more or less familiar. It is probably the most fascinating pursuit which can engage the mind of man; and the danger is that medical students, who are required to know so many branches of study, may devote more than their proper share of time to chemistry. A physician, who is also a practical chemist, has undoubtedly a great advantage over one who knows the subject only theoretically. A Sub-Assistant Surgeon so qualified would be of incalculable benefit to society and the State when settled down in remote districts in medical charge of dispensaries, where he would have frequent opportunities of testing the reputed efficacy of certain bazar medicines, and of eliciting the true value of native drugs by scientific chemical processes. The time, I believe, is not far distant when the English class students at our colleges will, in addition to what they are taught already on this subject, go through a course of practical instruction for some months in the laboratories attached to our Medical Store Departments. This will give them a facility in analysis and pharmaceutical operations, which it is very desirable that Medical Officers so situated should possess. I am sorry to have to say it, but it is unhappily so, that Sub-Assistant Surgeons, when they are appointed to the charge of dispensaries, are apt to look down upon such operations as derogatory, fit only for the Native Doctor or Compounder, and to assume the *odium eius dignitate* before they have earned it. This is very wrong. In England medical practitioners have no hesitation in dispensing their own prescriptions, nor should Sub-Assistant Surgeons.† The result of their superciliousness, in this respect, is that they forfeit the respect of all right thinking people, and they do not maintain for themselves that status amongst the European portion of the community from whom we are so desirous that they should receive it. Indifference in one thing leads to indifference or neglect in another, and the promising young student, from whom we expected so much when he left his *alma mater*, is spoken of as being above his work. Inspecting Officers report unfavorably of him in their *Inspection Reports*, and, in truth, the misguided youth is not fulfilling his mission. Gentlemen, take warning by what I say, and wipe out the reproach which many of your predecessors have brought upon the whole body.

In connection with other branches of study, qualifying for practical physicians, which you are required to know, is *Hygiene*. Now this is of far greater consequence than at first sight is apparent. The Professor of Hygiene has reported to me that the students pay very little attention to his lectures, and that

† This applies to Europeans.

the microscope. The instrument is called "Examiner's." I give you the history of it as nearly as I can. Hygiene, especially in our country, is a neglected part of our education, so that I do not know how many of you must have seen the microscope. But a knowledge of the structure of the human system is a part of the duty of a physician. It is by a knowledge of the relations of the organs, by which he is enabled to make "his medicine." "Physiology" is now taught in our schools, but this branch of education, we have neglected for many years. I know of various systems which are given in various ways. Many we can't move along together. We are in the end, I repeat. The general and mental improvement, we require for the evolution of the microscope, is not a simple matter. A person who drinks, like an eagle, and who consumes the best, pure and best of life, that that nation can furnish, as sources of nourishment, and who, for the last few years, have been, practically, ignorant of the nature of hygiene, are established in the error. Mr. L. L. Smith of Europe, and in India, A. S. P. B. have been, except in eye diseases, and the children of the poor, who have been supplied with a "pain-killer" will never be able to make a better world, than his "learned brethren" who have a higher opinion of his danger, and, like the physician of the East, contrives to keep his patients well. The physician who seeks the laws of health, and strives to prevent the disease, is the real friend of society. The "society" is the country, or of land which is associated so generally, with the usages of the people—a people who are the "society"—and it is exceedingly difficult to be a good citizen. And it is only when an educated gentleman, of your class, for example, like Baboo Kunaylah Dey, rises up, to bring the light of truth into the Canadian darkness, that we would justly thank him (would that they were a noble tribe) the best customs of native society in India, that a physician can be expected. But I will revert to this subject hereafter.

I do presume that you have become thoroughly acquainted with anatomy—the very basis of all professional knowledge, and with its foundation—physiology; that you know the intimate structure and functions of every organ in the body when in a state of health, and that you are therefore fully prepared to enter on the study of their diseases. A knowledge of anatomy and physiology will help you to knowledge of pathology and therapeutics. But you can never be good mortal anatomists or physiologists, nor, without an intimate acquaintance with physiology, can you hope to correct interference of the pathology of diseases. If you have been careful and anxious, you will hardly structure in the dissecting room, you will not be so difficult in recognizing abnormal conditions, as in the examination. You will not at last read in the records of medicine, but a frequent attend on the "pathology of disease" will hardly enable you to do so. And especially, if you who carefully watch the progress of the disease, and, in the event of a fatal issue, find the cause of the disease, and then the explanation (for, in the most complete examination is the whole of the symptoms) of the disease, I repeat, who do this throughout the course of a patient's practice, in preference to cramming the memory with names, as the two lower University Scholars do, and who do not care to attend to the most successful method of treatment. You will not do so, and finally come to the end of your life, with a few scraps, and without the aid of the microscope. The opportunity of this course, I repeat, will afford you. The revelations

of the microscope, are often rewarded by the assistance in examining what are ordinarily estimated with care.

Our knowledge of the highest apparatus of modern science, power for so many years, is a wonderfully striking fact. Known, indeed, it must have led to the Greeks and Romans, to Aristotle, Smeaton, and Flavius, the application of the instrument to science was left to that fruitful field of discovery, 1665, from which time, from the days of Mr. Gray's water microscope, to the splendid achievements of our own era, the construction of this instrument has gradually progressed, until it has come to be, so to speak, one of the brightest crystallizations of the human intellect. By the aid of the microscope, the lower natural history may add rich harvests to the ever-widening fields of science; the alchemist or man's first step to knowledge to escape its scrutinizing enquiries; and even human life may hang upon its verdict. All alike acknowledge its value to the lover of science, the chemist, and the medical jurist. And without it, in the present advancing state of natural knowledge, the physician's means of diagnosis cannot be said to be complete. To illustrate this with examples. A person who has hitherto enjoyed fair health, with the exception of occasional attacks of intermittent fever, is suddenly, under the influence of some strong mental emotion, prostrated with one of the attacks. There is no rallying, in spite of every effort to promote it, and death takes place in the cold stage. There has been no history of a fatty heart, not the slightest suspicion of its existence during life. But the experienced physician, nevertheless, expects to find when he makes the *post-mortem* examination. A rough way of ascertaining the point is by pressing a piece of white paper up on a section of the organ, when, if fatty degeneration has taken place, spots of grease will appear. But this occurs only when there is much fat. When the degeneration is extensive. A more complete method consists in taking a small portion of one of the muscular papillae, (to which the tendinous cords of the mitral valve are attached), and teasing it carefully into minute portions with very fine needles. If fat be present, it will be seen under the microscope in the form of oil globules, which, if the degeneration be excessive, will have quite usurped the place of the transverse strie of the ultimate muscular fibre. Such a case actually occurred under my observation during the past season, in a specimen illustrating the fatty degeneration is now in the Museum. The result of the *post-mortem* examination was most satisfactory to the friends, in whose minds there existed a great doubt as to what the cause of such a sudden death could possibly be attributed. Fatty degeneration, and recognized, is progressive; and doubtless it was so in the case under review. In previous paroxysms of the fever, the degeneration had not probably advanced so far as to interfere with the reactionary muscular vigor of the heart, in the present paroxysm—severe, it was said by the relatives, than any previous one; the result doubtless of the strong mental emotion—there was more than muscle, and there was no power sufficient to propel the accumulated blood forward. It stagnated, therefore, in the heart.

Take another case, one with which some of you will be familiar. I allude to one Fox, a German Jew, who was admitted on the 29th September, complaining of cough and severe pain all over his chest. Two months previously he had been ill in a similar way under the care of my colleague in the adjoining ward, and had left the hospital relieved, after being under treatment for five weeks. Since then he had not again, and had been admitted into the General Hospital. He was so charged, somewhat relieved, at the end of a fortnight. He then, very shortly afterwards, came to the Medical College Hospital, on my admitting day, and was received into my ward. In addition to the cough and pain, I found

extreme superficial tenderness over the whole surface of the chest, with a pungent warmth, such as we see in cases of insolation. The percussion note in the right infra-clavicular region was dull, and there was large crepitation, almost amounting to gurgling, in this region, especially towards the sternum. Crepitation was diffused throughout the right lung. The respiration was coarse at the back of the left lung, above and below, and there was crepitation in the left axillary region extending downwards. He was admitted, remember, on the 20th. On the both he complained of a burning sensation all over his body, and he was very hot. He had been very restless the whole of the previous night. The urgent symptoms subsided under the tentative plan of treatment, and on the 27th October, when passing through the wards at 11 p. m., I found him sleeping quietly on his side, the respiration being *very* hurried. The following morning, when sitting up on the side of the bed to wash his face, he suddenly showed an inclination to fall. He was immediately supported into a lying posture, and stimulants were given, but without benefit. He shortly became insensible, and died within an hour. At the *post-mortem* examination, we found more or less engorgement in both lungs, the left being more engorged than the right. Diffused through the former were rounded patches of congestion. Old strong pleuritic adhesions existed on both sides, being especially marked on the right. The heart weighed ten ounces, and had a weak, flabby appearance. The walls of the ventricles were much thinned. As in the last case, a microscopic examination revealed the real cause of death, *viz.*, fatty degeneration, which was here so extensive, that the oil globules had entirely displaced the transverse striae in the part examined. The engorgement of the lungs, from which the poor man had suffered for some time, was a progressive condition dependent upon a heart being daily deprived of its ability to pump the blood through the different organs of the body. Death was caused by asthenia (a condition of which I shall have to speak when we come to discuss the various causes of death), death beginning at the heart.

The microscope is of especial value in assisting us in one diagnosis of disease of the kidney. A few years ago, a medical friend of mine, in England, asked me to examine the urine of his brother, a clergyman, who had died comatose some months previously. The medical practitioner, who had attended the patient, had been educated before the days of Bright's discovery, and he had terrified the widow into a belief that her husband had died of some disease of the brain, which might be transmitted to the children. I took the urine, which had been carefully preserved, to Dr. Lionel Leake, in whose laboratory I was working at the time, and we examined it together. It was clear, of a dark red color, acid, and contained some large crystals of uric acid. There was no albumen, but the microscope revealed the existence of fragmentary casts from the uriniferous tubes of the kidney. The patient had died of Bright's disease, and the coma was a purely secondary condition arising from the effects produced of the blood circulating through the brain, instead of being eliminated by the kidneys. You will occasionally have opportunities of seeing this condition in the cholera ward. Where a suppression of urine has continued for two or three days, uronuria almost sure to follow.

His Highness the Maharajah of Vizianagaram lately endowed the Civil Dispensary at Vizianagaram with the sum of Rs. 200,000, and has since that offered Rs. 150 a month towards its support. At the request of the Committee, the Maharajah has granted a further sum of Rs. 550 to be used in procuring iron beds and suitable bedding for the patients.—*Medical Standard*, 3, vol. 1292.

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

NOTES ON FOUR CASES OF POISONING BY CHLOROBYNE, TREATED AT THE MEDICAL COLLEGE HOSPITAL, CALCUTTA, DURING 1867.

By S. C. MACKENZIE, M.D.

Officiating 2d Assistant Surgeon, Presidency General Hospital.

The following cases occurred during my tenure of office as House Surgeon to the Medical College Hospital, Calcutta. I think the publication of my notes may not prove uninteresting to the readers of the *Medical Standard*, as such cases have hitherto been of rare occurrence, and none have been reported in this country.

CASE I.

E. G., aged thirty-three, a Eurasian female, was admitted on the 4th June, 1867, at 7 A. M. During the early part of the morning she had quarrelled with her husband for having gone into the country the previous day against her wish, and, while in a fit of rage, she drank an ounce of chloroform, which was kept in the house.

When admitted into hospital, she was perfectly comatose; her breathing was stertorous, and pupils contracted. The stomach was emptied by the stomach pump, and strong coffee and other stimulants were freely administered. As she could not be roused, galvanism was resorted to, and applied to her body, and mustard to her extremities. These remedies, however, proved of no avail. She gradually sank, and died at 2-30 p. m.

The autopsy was made by the Police Surgeon nineteen hours after death. The vessels of the brain were found to be much congested, and both cavities of the heart full of dark blood of the color and consistency of black currant jelly.

CASE II.

L. C., aged nineteen, a Eurasian female, was brought by her friends to the hospital at 9 o'clock on the morning of the 5th September, 1867.

The persons who accompanied her stated that, some short time before, her step-mother had found fault with her, which had proved so much on her mind, that she resolved to commit suicide, and to effect that purpose she had swallowed the contents of a bottle of chloroform supposed to contain one ounce.

When admitted, she was quite sensible, but drowsy and stupid, her pupils were considerably contracted, and were not affected by light. An emetic was immediately administered, by which the stomach was emptied of a large quantity of semi-digested food impregnated with the odour of ether. Strong coffee was then given, and she was made to walk for about thirteen hours, when the narcotic symptoms passed off, and she was allowed to rest.

Two days after, namely, on the 7th September, she was discharged cured.

CASE III.

J. M., a police constable, aged fifty, but much older in appearance, and much emaciated, apparently through disease, was admitted into hospital, quite insensible, at 9 p. m. on the 13th September, 1867, with stertorous breathing, a cold clammy skin, and pupils contracted to the size of a pin's point. All endeavours to rouse him proved fruitless; he gradually sank, and died four hours after admission.

The autopsy on his body was made eighteen hours after death, when it was found that the vessels of the brain were congested, the heart full of dark blood, the whole of the stomach and much inflamed, with a few ulcers in the duenum.

From the story told by his relatives, it appears that he had been suffering from dysentery for some time, and had been in hospital, but losing patience, he had taken his discharge, and had returned home the day before, namely, on the 12th September. The following morning, however, he felt worse, and went, as advised by a friend, to a chemist's shop, and purchased an ounce of chloroform. He began to take it in small doses, but finding it relieved the pain he was suffering from, he continued to take it until, by the afternoon, he had finished the contents. He was found by his wife, later on, in a very insensible state, and was brought to the Medical College Hospital.

CASE IV.

T. G. W., aged sixteen, a young tea planter, was brought to the hospital on the 10th September, and admitted into hospital on the 11th.

process of feeding could be seen. The sigmoid flexure and rectum were thick and contracted. The mucous membrane was covered with a brownish yellow exudation, about a line in thickness, which could be stripped off the surface of it, leaving an abraded-looking membrane. This exudation had, under a low power, a perforated or honey-comb-like appearance, and, under a high power, was seen to consist of cells and granules, with much fatty matter. On the folds of this part of the intestine many transverse ridges of various sizes appeared, which seemed to have been the seat of recent hemorrhage. Small circular ulcers could also be observed in abundance over the membrane. The glands along the colon were enlarged and pigmented, the liver was enlarged, and congested—the subject of fatty degeneration in a slight degree—and bilious stools. The spleen was much enlarged, hard, congested, and friable.

The kidneys were congested around the pyramids, and the cortical substance of both was undergoing degeneration.

REMARKS.

I have not been able, in any of the works in my possession (including Atken and Reynolds), to find any allusion to, or description of, the lesion of the stomach described above. Dr. Medical, in the second edition of his "Clinical Lectures on Diseases of the Digestive System," (the cases Nos. 46, 89, and 90, pp. 239 and 241) in which lesions of the stomach were observed. These lesions consisted of "patches of injected vessels," "five or six pat. boxes of ulceration, one or two of them quite circular with dark, yellow, and brownish sloughs in the centre; the others larger and more or less irregular, also with central sloughs; a dark brown mark of impaction without softening at the cardiac extremity," and "a thickened and somewhat softened condition of the mucous membrane, which presented here and there an angry dotted red appearance, with marks of one or two small ulcerating ulcers." These appearances, though evidencing the fact that the mucous membrane of the stomach is apt to participate in molar changes more peculiar to the colon, do not seem to be the same in nature, and certainly fall short in extent of the phenomena disclosed by my autopsy. In this the pathological process is evidently an organized adenocarcinoma membrane, and the pathological process appears to have been one of abnormal development of the so-called peptic cells contained in the gastric follicles, and perhaps of the epithelium covering the membrane intervening between the glandular inflections. That the glands were primarily the agents in this cellular outgrowth is, I think, pretty strongly indicated by the mammillated aspect of its surface, and still more so by the detached bulbous villi of the pyloric membrane, apparently the product of the larger compound follicles scattered over this part of the viscous surface of the organ. The physical characters of the exudation were so like those of the membrane covering some parts of the colon, but it is impossible to consider the stomach lesion different or differently produced. The case appears to be a typical example of one of the most common and easily understood forms of metastasis, namely, the transference of morbid action from one part to another of a continuous membrane, and falls into the same category with similar phenomena in the course of eruptive fevers.

The gastric process seems, however, to have been more gradual and less intense than the colic. If such is the case, then the phenomena observed in the stomach seem to furnish the essence of the dysenteric process, an abnormal proliferation of normal epithelial and glandular cellular elements. It is in consonance with pathological analogy to suppose that, with a moderate amount of the poison supposed to cause the disease will simply produce this proliferation, a greater amount will cause such greater pervasions of nutrition as interstitial infiltrations, denudations, ulcerations, &c.

The other pathological features disclosed by this *post-mortem* examination, the pigmentations and atrophy of the intestinal mucous membrane, the altered character of the blood, the serous infiltrations and effusions all common enough in cases of chronic dysentery, the mode in which this pigment originates, whether it is a deposit or degeneration, has not been as yet worked out. The atrophy of the ileum and its glands, in such cases, does not easily fit in with the character of the morbid process of the large intestine, which seems to be an excess of growth, though of a perverted kind. This man had not reached that time of life when there is a natural enfeebling and a waste of the same-like glands of the ileum; and yet I have never, except in similar cases of chronic dysentery, a more complete atrophy of the mucous element of the membrane.

JESSOP, 11th April, 1868.

A CASE OF APHASIA.*

By G. D. McRITCHIE,

Civil Surgeon, Hurler, Onto.

With reference to M. Broca's theory of the faculty of speech being located in the third frontal convolution of the left hemisphere of the brain, I beg to place on record the following singular case which lately came under my observation. Miss Braham, aged forty-five, was admitted into the Hurler Jail Hospital on the 9th January. On the 3th instant she had received a lattin blow on his head. The only external injury visible was, however, only a slight contusion wound on the left and anterior surface of the scalp. No depression of bone, or fracture of the skull, was detected. He was quite sensible; limbs not paralysed; pulse fair, but *had lost the power of speech*. He could utter no articulate sound whatever. When told to protrude his tongue, he was unable to do so, but tried to draw it out with his fingers. A sharp pinprick was at once administered, and he was placed under close observation. No change occurred in his symptoms until about eight days after the accident. He could now put out his tongue quite in the straight line, and uttered the words "Ram, Ram, Ram" pretty plainly; but an attempt at expressing any other word proved a failure. I might mention that, having been concerned in a riot, his injury, though it lessened the punishment to which he would otherwise have been sentenced, did not excuse him altogether. He got only two months' rigorous imprisonment. On the 15th February, as being quite well in all other respects, he was discharged from the Jail Hospital, and set to some light labor.

He continued in Jail up to the 23rd March, on which date he was released. He had regained to a considerable degree the power of speech, but his utterance as yet was not quite distinct. He seemed not to have sufficient control over the movements of the tongue to regulate its action suitably for clear expression. He speaks as if drunk had caused a temporary impediment in his speech.

13th April, 1868.

TWO CASES OF POISONING BY MAJON OR MAJUM.

By P. CULLEN, M.D.

Civil Surgeon, Hoshingabad, Central Provinces.

CASE I.

MUSSAMET ALLARKEE, aged thirty years, was brought to hospital, between 11 and 12 o'clock on the night of the 30th of April, in a delirious state, caused, it was stated, by eating some sweetmeats about six hours previous to admission. Her friends had given her some tamarind syrup mixed with dhye, which had produced vomiting.

On admission, her symptoms were: pupils considerably dilated, but sensible to the light; pulse about 90, rather feeble; temperature of body rather lower than normal; could sit up, but not stand; talked moderately, and kept picking at the bed clothes; when the light was held near her face, she would put out her hands as if to lay hold of it, but appeared unable to direct her movements properly, and, after various vain attempts, would make a sudden grab at it. A sulphate of zinc emetic was administered, but it was with the greatest difficulty she was got to swallow it, and cold was applied to the head, and she was made to occasionally inhale a little carbonate of ammonia. She vomited a little in about two hours' time, and then fell off to sleep. At 8 o'clock the next morning she was quite well.

CASE II.

Musammud Baggeah, aged fourteen years, daughter of the above, (Musammud Allarkee), was brought to hospital with her mother, and was said to have partaken of some of the same sweetmeats, but had not had anything given to her, nor had she vomited.

* This so-called Aphasia, as generally understood in the British Isles, the patient was simply dumb, for the time. Had he been able to write, he would, probably, have written clear answers to questions, although he could not give utterance to them. In some cases, where a change in the use of the memory of words, or of the commanding power have taken place, the expression, whether by speech or writing.—*Edw. J. M. G.*

of the patient, and the patient's condition was such that it was impossible to give any more of the medicine. The patient died on the morning of the 2nd of June. The autopsy was performed on the morning of the 3rd of June. The lungs were found to be completely solidified, and the heart was found to be completely solidified. The stomach was found to be completely solidified, and the intestines were found to be completely solidified. The liver was found to be completely solidified, and the spleen was found to be completely solidified. The kidneys were found to be completely solidified, and the bladder was found to be completely solidified. The uterus was found to be completely solidified, and the ovaries were found to be completely solidified. The brain was found to be completely solidified, and the spinal cord was found to be completely solidified. The lungs were found to be completely solidified, and the heart was found to be completely solidified. The stomach was found to be completely solidified, and the intestines were found to be completely solidified. The liver was found to be completely solidified, and the spleen was found to be completely solidified. The kidneys were found to be completely solidified, and the bladder was found to be completely solidified. The uterus was found to be completely solidified, and the ovaries were found to be completely solidified. The brain was found to be completely solidified, and the spinal cord was found to be completely solidified.

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CASE OF SNAKE-BITE, CURED BY STIMULANTS.

By IMBOD BATSUR MOONJEE, M.D.

Scholar in the Science of Homeopathy.

Sherrest, a female, age 40, her husband, a young man, wife of a squire, was cutting grass in a field at 10 o'clock on the morning of the 20th of June. She was bitten on the right leg by a snake, by a snake, which, probably, was a cobra, immediately after the first stroke of the scythe. The woman was at first badly injured, and at 10.15 she was taken to her home, where she received the first aid. The patient was in a state of collapse, and she was taken to the hospital at 11 o'clock. The patient was in a state of collapse, and she was taken to the hospital at 11 o'clock. The patient was in a state of collapse, and she was taken to the hospital at 11 o'clock. The patient was in a state of collapse, and she was taken to the hospital at 11 o'clock.

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LIST OF MEDICAL OFFICERS WHO PASSED AT THE LAST COMBINATION EXAMINATION FOR THE THREE PRESIDENCIES IN INDIA.

No.	Name	Matriculation	1st Class	2nd Class	3rd Class
1.	A. S. J. ... M.B.
2.	A. S. J. ... M.B.
3.	J. H. N. ... M.D.
4.	B. J. ... M.B.
1.	J. J. ... M.D.
2.	F. A. ... M.D.
3.	L. A. H. ... M.D.
4.	W. H. ... M.D.
1.	W. R. G. ... M.B.
2.	J. D. ... M.B.
3.	A. S. J. ... M.B.
4.	J. L. K. ... M.B.

LIST OF BRITISH MEDICAL OFFICERS WHO PASSED AT THE LAST COMBINATION EXAMINATION FOR THE MAHARAJA'S SERVICE.

No.	Name	Matriculation	1st Class	2nd Class	3rd Class
1.	C. ... M.D.
2.	W. ... M.D.
3.	C. ... M.D.
4.	M. ... M.D.
5.	F. ... M.D.
6.	S. ... M.D.
7.	C. ... M.D.
8.	M. ... M.D.
9.	M. ... M.D.
10.	S. ... M.D.
11.	R. ... M.D.
12.	C. ... M.D.
13.	M. ... M.D.
14.	G. ... M.D.
15.	E. ... M.D.
16.	H. ... M.D.
17.	S. ... M.D.
18.	G. ... M.D.
19.	C. ... M.D.
20.	A. ... M.D.
21.	J. ... M.D.
22.	K. ... M.D.
23.	H. ... M.D.
24.	W. ... M.D.
25.	C. ... M.D.
26.	B. ... M.D.
27.	B. ... M.D.
28.	R. ... M.D.
29.	A. ... M.D.
30.	B. ... M.D.
31.	A. ... M.D.
32.	W. ... M.D.
33.	M. ... M.D.
34.	C. ... M.D.
35.	A. ... M.D.
36.	F. ... M.D.
37.	R. ... M.D.
38.	F. ... M.D.
39.	S. ... M.D.
40.	H. ... M.D.
41.	M. ... M.D.
42.	M. ... M.D.
43.	L. ... M.D.
44.	D. ... M.D.
45.	J. ... M.D.

400. S. J. ... M.D. ... The patient was in a state of collapse, and she was taken to the hospital at 11 o'clock. The patient was in a state of collapse, and she was taken to the hospital at 11 o'clock. The patient was in a state of collapse, and she was taken to the hospital at 11 o'clock. The patient was in a state of collapse, and she was taken to the hospital at 11 o'clock.

* For further details see the Indian Medical Gazette, June 1, 1898, p. 192.

each Mofassil hospital. By studying the *Yajur Veda*, proper medicines may be found for all diseases."

In the *Education Gazette* there are given no fewer than four "fried" antidotes to snake-bite. The first method is to make a paste of the seed of the croton fruit, which, wherever the bite may be, must be plastered on the eyes of the patient, so that it may come well in contact with the pupils. We are not surprised to read that "when this medicine comes in contact with the pupils of the eyes, the patient will cry out that his eyes are gone." The writer concludes rather ambiguously:—"This medicine may be given to a dying man." The other antidotes seem to be quite as specific.—*Pioneer*, 27th April, 1868.

MR. JOHN GREEN, late a member of the Subordinate Medical Department of the Presidency of Madras, has been appointed Secretary by the Dewan to the Rajah of Venkatagur, C. S. I.—*Madras Standard*, (Pioneer, 24th April, 1868.)

Notices to Correspondents.

IMPUTATION OF THE PENIS.

ASSISTANT SURGEON C. CURRAN, R. M.'s 8th Bnt., has favoured us with an account of three such operations which he performed in one week at Fort St. George, Madras, by a solution prepared in the case, we have not reported before. It is not the fact that these were important cases being reported in such a time is worth recording, especially as the operation is not so often done under the cognizance of a Military Surgeon, as is generally supposed it could possibly be, or remain in the case. MR. CURRAN'S patients were all natives of Perak, Malacca, Two were children of the same, and all suffered from enlargement of the penis; the other, a Malay boy, from an epithelial cancer of that organ, with enlargement of some of the regional glands, which were also removed. The third case was that of a young Hindu suffering from elephantiasis of the penis. In the cases all well.

FRANÇOIS.—We are not aware that either Muhammad or the apostrophical name of whose patients was described by Lry had been disposed of in any way, or that we have the simple power of the case, or the singular of the letter, through a light on the subject.

EXAMINATIONS IN NATIVE LANGUAGES.

UNBROKEN requires whether a young medical officer who has not passed in the vernacular languages is entitled to staff allowance when temporarily exchanged of a regiment, the medical officer of which is on privilege leave. The question of passing in the languages has nothing to do with the question. An officer going on privilege leave draws his full pay and allowances, and may make whatever private arrangements he pleases in his vacant hours; but the latter cannot claim anything for his services, which are rendered voluntarily. Government merely requires that an officer taking privilege leave shall find some one to substitute for him, and it is for the purpose to settle their own terms. A Medical Officer acting for another, who is absent on general leave, will draw the full allowance, if a substitute is found for him in the language, if he is not the holder of a position. It is not necessary to stipulate for the services of the substitute, but the substitute must draw more than their own pay. (See, for instance, Secretary of State's Despatch No. 334, 7th November, 1861.) They have passed the "Lower Standard," an order of the Secretary of State, No. 255, 16th November, 1866, para. 7.)

ST. MIDDLE.—For a notice on the subject of the "Widow's and Orphan's Fund" applied for by the Government in the name of the Gazette. We will send the subject to the next length, in the next number.

NAME ILLEGIBLE, A LAC DUPIRE, London. Your contributions shall appear in the next issue.

Communications have been received from

- G. E. POOL, Civil Surgeon, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat.
- A. R. HALL, Assistant Surgeon, Bombay.
- DR. T. MALABY, Civil Surgeon, Mysore, from whom we shall be glad to receive contributions in the future.
- P. CLEGG, Civil Surgeon, Madras.
- J. E. HAMILTON, Colonel Surgeon, 10th Brigade, Royal Artillery.
- C. M. K. SELL, Surgeon, P. O. Hospital, and C. S. I. Surgeon, Mysore.

Domestic Occurrences.

DEATHS.

- FRANÇOIS.—Dr. Col. (H. C. H.) 21st May, JOSEPHUS FRANK, infant son of Dr. J. A. FRANK, aged 15 weeks, died 23rd day.
- BROWN.—Dr. J. J. BROWN, aged 85, died 21st day, at the St. M. N. ROBERT, Day 6, son of Surgeon Major BROWN, 30th Garrison Regiment, and lately in a staff.

* Expressing as this case admits, the results seem to be a simple gonorrhoea. We are glad to hear, on the 1st of account of this patient, that although there has elapsed to an, a very slow disease re-appearing.—Lb, 7, 2, 6.

The Indian Medical Gazette.

It is particularly requested that all contributions to the *Indian Medical Gazette* may be written on large paper as possible, and only on one side of each sheet of paper.

The Editor is not responsible for any mistake that no possible mistake can be committed in the preparation of the same.

No proof of the same will be sent unless much trouble.

Contributors should forward their articles in the month as possible, as delay must inevitably occur in their publication.

Business letters to be forwarded to the Publishers, Messrs. Wymans Bros., and all professional communications to the Editor, direct.

Subscribers changing their address are requested to notify the same.

THE CO-OPERATION OF THE PROFESSION THROUGHOUT INDIA IS EARNESTLY SOLICITED.

SPECIAL NOTICE.—Subscribers are particularly requested to notify any change of address, as without an responsibility for non-receipt of copies of the *Gazette* can be assumed by WYMAN BROS., Publishers, 11, rue de la Harpe, Calcutta.

HARE STREET,) Calcutta, 1868.)	WYMAN BROS., Proprietors.
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"You have chosen the path, not of politics, but of science. Among those who have preceded you in it, and in our own particular department, we find some of the highest ornaments of British history; and I will not do you the injustice of supposing that there is any one among you who would not prefer the reputation of Harvey or the Hunters to that of many ten twentieths of the courtiers and politicians of the periods in which they lived."—SIR BENJAMIN BRODIE.

DISTRIBUTION OF PRIZES AT THE MEDICAL COLLEGE.

(Continued.)

In the course of the proceedings, Dr. Chevers announced a fact, the importance of which cannot be over-estimated in its relation to native medical provision for the people. In introducing to the Chairman a successful prize-man, and one of the best of the students who were leaving the College, he stated that the young man was contemplating a visit to England in the view to competing for an Assistant Surgeoncy in the Indian Medical Service.

There are now no restrictions which bar the door of entrance, into this hitherto exclusive preserve, to the natives of tropical climates. All may enter who can. Recently do we congratulate the aspiring youth upon the result of his College career, and find sincerely do we trust that he will attain the object of his journey home. But the handicraft is on the wall. He is not the first of the best men of the College who have considered the prospects held out to Sub-Assistant Surgeons in Bengal too poor to induce them to declare for Government service here. He is following in the steps of students who, having taken the highest honours attainable at the Calcutta University, are now studying in London and Edinburgh in the hope of one day being borne on the roll of the Bengal Medical Establishment, or becoming Medical Officers in charge of regiments, of Civil stations, (including that of lunatic asylums, dispensary, and jail), invested, it may be, with Magisterial powers in the latter; or becoming professors in Colleges; or obtaining, in short, to every advantage and every prize which is to be gained, were it only for the favored few who had friends in the "house of the John Bull."

It is a significant sign of the times. Let these few words journey on, the part of those who are expected to become

bers would of course gladly receive the amount of their subscriptions back, to wit, those who are not likely to become entitled to an annuity, to say nothing of the *non-receipt* of it for several years. Others again, those who have paid more than its half value, which, were the annuity available, would entitle them to receive it, would prefer waiting and realizing in due time this important addition to their income. Nowhere else would an investment to the same extent yield a like return.

There are these two distinct classes of subscribers, with conflicting interests. But with so slender a capital wherewith to supply the necessary number of promised annuities, it is not probable that the Government would reduce it still further by giving back any subscriptions to those who did *not* wish to remain and wait for them. It is indeed "a fact that men now-a-days are thirsting to leave the country." "Fiat Justitia" goes so far as to say that "their interest in it has gone; it stinks in their nostrils." This may be so; but other causes, of a far more potent nature than any gubernatorial disregard of our wishes with respect to the Retiring Fund, have combined to produce this unhappy and, so far as the welfare of the people of India is concerned, most unsatisfactory result.

SUBORDINATE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

AMONGST our extracts will be found a letter addressed by "Sub-Medicus" to the Editor of the *Pointer*. The writer adopts a tone, with reference to this journal, which is very unbecoming and which, moreover, conveys the idea that we do not sympathize sufficiently with the Department whose cause he pleads, and which we pleaded ourselves in a leading article published in March, 1866. The Subordinate Medical Department may rest assured that their cause is safe in our keeping; safer, shall we say, than in that of "Sub-Medicus," when he would have us publish a letter which could only tend to injure their prospects with the Government, whilst its singular mixture of raillery, pathos, and derision would certainly not secure for himself the sympathy which men are ever ready to extend to all who are *patient* in misfortune.

We subjoin an extract, and would then ask the members of the Department whether they consider that their interests would be advanced by the publication of such a letter in its entirety.

"How long, O tender and gracious Government, how long! How long are they (the much and sorely aggrieved members of the Subordinate Medical Department) to remain unheard, unheeded, undressed their pressing grievances? In behalf of nearly 500 hard-worked and badly-paid servants of Her Britannic Majesty in India I ask this urgent question. But I sicken when I know I ask in vain for a reply. I might as well whistle a jig to a milestone, in view to eliciting a caper therefrom, as to expect to find this question answered, at least by any high ¹unctionary of this mighty and masterly inactive rule of ours. Our Government has a heart of adamant, and ears of some tougher, impenetrable substance still."

We cannot but express extreme surprise that "Sub-Medicus" should venture to think that the Editor of the *Indian Medical Gazette* would allow the journal, which he has the honor to conduct, to become a medium for the utterance of such sentiments. That much remains to be done for the Subordinate Medical Department, no one is more thoroughly aware than ourselves; but we would counsel its members to exercise

patience yet a little longer, and to rest assured that their interests are not lost sight of by the Government. We are very happy to receive communications from all who are desirous of enlisting our services in their cause; but we must insist upon the communications being couched in suitable language, or, like the letter from "Sub-Medicus," they will not be published.

ON INSOLATION.

IN our April number we published the commencement of a paper, (to be continued hereafter,) by Surgeon Barnard, on the "Pathology and Treatment of Coup-de-soleil or Insolation;" and the subject has likewise come under discussion, at a meeting of the "Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association," in Calcutta.

The profession is under considerable obligation to Mr. Barnard for drawing attention to a mode of treatment, in heat asphyxia, which, we believe, has not, in that disorder, been adopted to the extent that it, perhaps, might have been; although we venture to think that the amount of success which the author predicts for it is hardly to be anticipated, viz., recovery in nine cases out of ten. Mr. Barnard speaks of the condition, which he would treat in this way, under the synonymous terms "coup-de-soleil" or "insolation;" but we take leave to designate it under, what we conceive to be, the more appropriate head of heat asphyxia.

The treatment of a disease should always, where possible, be based upon its pathology; and, although different causes may lead to the same results, requiring much the same treatment in the main, it is absolutely necessary that we should separate these causes clearly in our minds, as a due consideration of each may lead to more correct notions of their individual pathology. Asphyxia, for example, is a condition which may be produced in several ways; the lungs may become engorged from cobra, or like, poisoning; from drowning; under the influence of heat alone; or of heat *plus* drink or a vitiated atmosphere, &c., &c. It may be good practice to keep up artificial respiration in each of these cases, but, with reference to the agent which, immediately or remotely, has produced the asphyxiated condition, something more may be required, too. If it be a case of ardent fever, quinine in large doses may be absolutely called for. It strikes us that Mr. Barnard lays too much stress upon artificial respiration, *per se*. Were it not that we satisfied ourselves, at the discussion which took place at the meeting of the Medical Society, that the author of the paper quite intended to include, in his category, what is sometimes spoken of as "ardent fever" synonymously with insolation, we should have inferred, from a perusal of his paper, that he had not so intended; for, in none of the cases cited by him is the characteristic feature—the pathognomic sign of the disease—*viz.*, *pungent heat of the skin*, once mentioned. We are to understand, then, that artificial respiration would be the remedy on which Mr. Barnard would most rely in ardent fever, as much as he would in pure *ictus solis*, *coup-de-soleil*, or sunstroke, where the individual had been simply *struck down*, his nervous system prostrated under the influence of the shock, *but where there was no pungency of skin*.

This brings us to the question—What is insolation? We

* We have reviewed Mr. Barnard's paper, without waiting for his final communication, which, we under stand, does not affect the text.

have always been taken, but at intervals of several minutes.

This case is very singular, and I have not seen a similar one, with the exception of that reported by Nott, 1814, and that now published in the *Journal of the Medical Association*, 1847. The latter case is very peculiar, and is very similar to the present one. It is also very curious, inasmuch as the patient, after the cessation of the convulsions, was not conscious of the attack, and it was not until the attention of the physician was called to this point, that the existence of the convulsions was ascertained. The case was not mentioned in the *Journal of the Medical Association*, 1847, and I have not seen it since. It is very singular, and I have not seen a similar one, with the exception of that reported by Nott, 1814, and that now published in the *Journal of the Medical Association*, 1847. The latter case is very peculiar, and is very similar to the present one. It is also very curious, inasmuch as the patient, after the cessation of the convulsions, was not conscious of the attack, and it was not until the attention of the physician was called to this point, that the existence of the convulsions was ascertained. The case was not mentioned in the *Journal of the Medical Association*, 1847, and I have not seen it since. It is very singular, and I have not seen a similar one, with the exception of that reported by Nott, 1814, and that now published in the *Journal of the Medical Association*, 1847.

It will be seen, on reading the foregoing details, that the heat was not in the face, but in the rest of the body, and that the heat, rests in an very decided degree in the body, it is by no means established that this is the origin. Still, there is ample evidence to establish that the heat is something more than mere heat in the face, and that it is not from Mr. Bernard's own favorite method of treatment. We have, Sir Thomas does not mention any other method of treatment.

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NOTICE.

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March last, with reference to educational progress in Jeypore. The former takes exception to "Observer's" letter, and says that "most of the statements are exaggerations," whilst "many are not true." It is not true, for example, that the Maharajah considers the establishment of a school of arts more important than a medical school. We are heartily thankful to hear it. He goes on to say that he believes the day not far distant when a medical college will be again established in Jeypore, and "on such a system, too, as will redound to the credit of this State and all concerned." This is indeed a matter for rejoicing. Dispensaries are now being established, adds Lieutenant Jacob, for the first time, all over the State, and there is a Medical Hall in the city which can meet the demands, not only of its own dispensaries, but the wants of other States also. Hygiene and prison discipline are now being introduced. Lieutenant Jacob then wishes to do justice to an absent man, Colonel Price, to whom, says the writer, all the credit in road-making, and other engineering improvements, is entirely due. Dr. Burr is entitled to none of it. This is the substance of Lieutenant Jacob's letter. He concludes by regretting that we have not made the *amende honorable* to Dr. Valentine for the "unjust imputations" cast upon him in our article.

Dr. Valentine begins by thanking us for giving him an opportunity of "pointing out the groundless nature of these charges," and solicits another for informing the profession, who have been so grievously led astray by "Observer," of the real causes that led to the abolition of the school. From Dr. Valentine's statement, it would appear that a report of the working of the school was called for after it had been six years in existence, no report having been submitted during the whole of this time. It was drawn up and sent to the Government of India through the Inspector-General of the Medical Department. The Government of India forwarded it to the Governor-General's Agent, who was requested to explain certain obscure points in the report, and to give his opinion upon the working of the school. The Agent's opinion was unfavorable. He recommended that the school should be broken up, and the students be sent to Calcutta for instruction. The Maharajah was then addressed by the Government. It was suggested to him that he should place the school upon a more extended basis with a view to his original intentions being satisfactorily carried out; but that if he did not feel disposed to do this, he had then better break it up, and let the scholars be educated in Agra. His Highness became naturally desirous to know how it was that an institution which he had treated so liberally should have yielded so unsatisfactory a return; and he wished to be informed, moreover, of the nature of the facilities which would be afforded for the instruction of the students at Agra and in Calcutta, if it were decided to send them to either of these towns. Meanwhile, Dr. Burr made an effort to secure the continuance of the school, and the supreme Government consulted Dr. John Murray. He, too, decided against it as being an incomplete establishment, with a defective system; and recommended Agra. Dr. Ewart, the Officiating Principal of the Calcutta College, and Dr. Moore, of Aboo, strongly recommended that the school should be continued. The Maharajah and Council, however, considered that it had better be abolished. The fiat went forth. *Delecta est*. The medical school of Jeypore is no more.

Dr. Valentine then tells us that the Maternity Charity is an

utterly worthless institution, and that nothing can be said in its favor. He condemns "Observer's" communication in strong terms, calling it a production "three-fourths of which have no foundation whatever in fact;" the remaining fourth requiring so many deductions, that scarcely a grain (?) of veracity is left.

So much for these communications. The editor of a journal is mostly dependent, for the information which appears in its pages, upon contributors who are kind enough to keep him *au courant* with all that is going on beyond the reach of his own "ken." He cannot always analyse the facts communicated to him; and if they are authenticated by the name of the writer, (further vouchers cannot be demanded,) he must be satisfied. He becomes a chronicler of passing events, and, when required, a commentator. The Editor of the *Indian Medical Gazette* offends no one willingly; and if any personal injustice is caused by his publications or remarks, no one regrets it more than himself. This journal is not intentionally a vehicle for the display of personal animosity or flattery.

The main fact in connection with this correspondence, which is interesting to all who have medical progress in India at heart, is the downfall of an institution which *might* have rivalled those of a like nature which are doing so much good in Calcutta, Lahore, and elsewhere. We have recorded our opinions on this subject, under another heading, in the present number; and we can only say here that we sincerely trust, with Lieutenant Jacob, that the day is not far distant when a Medical College, with hospital attached, will rear its head in Jeypore upon a foundation similar to that of like institutions in Calcutta, and from whence Sub-Assistant Surgeons shall be given to India of a type, as regards physique, superior to that of the Bengalis, and willing to serve the State in any part of the country, (though destined for Rajpootana especially,) without being afflicted with those terrible attacks of *nostalgia*, or home sickness which so interfere with the efficiency of that otherwise most useful native medical officer.

MEDICAL ORDERS.

With the present number of the *Indian Medical Gazette* we have issued, in the Supplement, a reprint of all the recent Orders affecting the Indian Medical Service from the original Warrant dated May 16th, 1844, to the present time.

This will likewise be published in octavo size, and be available separately, in the form of a pamphlet, at 1 Rupee a copy.

We would recommend our medical friends to secure this present opportunity of possessing themselves of these several Orders, offered as they are in so compendious a shape.

At an ordinary monthly meeting of the Medical and Physical Society of Bombay, held on the 4th instant, a paper contributed by Dr. Beatty, on the efficacy of large doses of nitre in curing fever, was read. The dose advocated is ten grains every second hour. Dr. Beatty states he has now lost all faith in quinine as a remedy for intermittent fever in the tropics, and, moreover, has almost abandoned its use as a febrifuge since he learnt the great efficacy of nitre used after the manner recommended by Dr. Sawyer, of New York. "It appears as though Nature herself," says Dr. Beatty, "intended this remedy to be used, as she has so bountifully supplied it in those countries (and for example) in which this particular form of fever is so prevalent." None of those present at the meeting had tried the remedy in question in large doses, or had any of the best faith in quinine. It was, however, resolved that a trial of nitre, as recommended, should be made.—*Times of India, (Proceer, 20th April, 1868.)*

Bengal differed in no essential point from ordinary intermittent or remittent malarious fever, had been confirmed by his experience in this water field now under observation. He would now redeem the promise made by him in 1866 to treat of the questions of malaria, of the pathological relation borne to the various organs by the diseases which it induced, and of the treatment of, and prophylaxis against, its effects. Malaria had never been isolated, but from the constancy with which it was generated wherever heat, moisture, and decaying vegetable-matter were found together, and from the similarity in their effects on the system in all places, we were justified in attributing a distinct identity to it. It was generally supposed that malaria existed mainly as vapour, and entered the system through the lungs; but he was convinced that the entire dermo-intestinal system was as often the channel through which it was introduced. It was well known that water absorbed malaria, but it had not yet been proved to have decomposed it. Much grosser substances, such as metallic mercury finely divided, could enter the system through the intestines or the skin. Dr. Juggo Bando Bose instanced two tanks in his own village, both of which were filled with vegetable debris by the cyclone of October 9th, 1847. One was immediately cleared out, and its water remained perfectly wholesome. The vegetable matter was left to rot in the second, which became so foul that the fish in it died, and no one could use the water for a month. When the people began to use this tank again, all who drank from it, or even bathed once in it, suffered from the fever. It is a question whether all the organs on which malaria exercises a deleterious influence are primarily affected, or whether some are only affected secondarily, owing to the disease set up in others. Dr. Juggo Bando Bose thought that the blood was the part of the body mainly affected, (either primarily or through the action of malaria on the organs concerned in its formation and distribution,) and that the altered state of the blood led to changes in other organs. He attributed the leucocytæmic state of venous blood less to increased formation of white corpuscles than to the decreased formation and the more rapid disintegration of the red ones.

The present epidemic is essentially a malarious one. It has lately spread to villages in the vicinity of Mimaree, Bachee, Tarkeshwar, &c., and is still rampant in Panama and several of its old haunts. The duration of the epidemic in any district varies from one to six years, but averages three and a half years. The fever is generally intermittent, more rarely remittent, and always of a low and congestive, not æsthetic and inflammatory, type. Periodicity and periodicity are its two most striking characteristics. Each individual attack may consist of from one to twelve, or thirteen paroxysms of fever, but these attacks continue to recur, at intervals varying from two to six weeks, for many months, or even for six or seven years. For the first three or four years not at once is the disease. In one case a stay of six months in the malarious district brought on a fever which continued to recur for eighteen months.

The disease only differed in a few points from ordinary intermittent or remittent fever. The first paroxysm was generally preceded only by slight chilliness, and the later ones, by none. Dr. Juggo Bando Bose had, however, seen some alarming cases of ague with colds, preceding the first paroxysm, and he had heard of two such cases which ended fatally. The sweating stage and subsquent remission are generally well marked. Sometimes there is only a slight remission, and sometimes the sweating stage is attended with vomiting, or even fatal collapse. The periodicity of this collapse seems to bear no relation to the duration or severity of the disease, or to the state of the season. The first invasion of the fever may be quite sudden, or may be preceded by headache and languor, &c. The first paroxysm usually begins in the afternoon, but subsequent ones in the morning. The worst cases occur when last the disease yields a secondary, it is then that local symptoms are most common. The approach of the fever is usually sudden. The fever is generally been only superadded during the cold and hot stages of the other paroxysms, which gives place, after three or four returns, to coma, the original congestion, or a further prolonging of length to diffusion. In other cases there is at first slight wandering, passing gradually into continuous delirium, and ending in a typhoid condition. Hepatic complications are not common, they may begin with nausea and pain at such a paroxysm, followed by jaundice, and ending in hepatic abscess, or chronic enlargement. Sometimes jaundice sets in periodically, and the patient dies delirious or comatose. In the worst cases the liver has probably become suddenly or organically. All these inflammatory complications are of an æsthetic type, and tend to become more so as they go on.

The mortality is very great in this stage of the fever, which lasts for three or four months.

The next stage, lasting eight or nine months, is marked by the return of the febrile attacks, at intervals varying from a fortnight to six weeks, and by the gradual supervention of chronic changes in the solid viscera, such as chronic enlargement of the liver or spleen, Bright's disease, and dropsy, depending on œdema, kidney disease, or obstruction of the veins by a diseased liver. If the disease last for more than a month, the spleen is almost certain to be enlarged. It sometimes becomes enlarged from mere residence in a malarious district without the occurrence of fever. The mortality in this stage is comparatively small.

After eight or nine months, the disease enters on its third stage; the fever comes on at shorter intervals, at length it becomes quotidian, and ultimately continuous. Death takes place from the weakening effect of the fever, or from chronic visceral disease, and the mortality is much greater than in the second stage.

Death sometimes occurs in the cold stage of a paroxysm, owing probably to the right side of the heart becoming paralysed from its over-distension by venous blood.

As regards treatment, Dr. Juggo Bando Bose did not believe in the theory of "change of type." He remembered the sensation caused in Calcutta by the first promulgation of Dr. Todd's views; and though no one would now advocate the use of brandy at the rate recommended by that author, there was certainly a great improvement in treatment since then. Treatment was now conservative, and the importance of husbanding the patient's strength was recognised. General bleeding was never wanted, and local bleeding should be very sparingly used in cases of local complications. General bleeding had been advised when death in the cold stage threatens, on the principle of relieving the distension of the heart; but the heart was not like a distended bladder which we could be certain of emptying. Any bleeding which would insure a diminution in the heart's contents would be too large to be safe. The general principles of treatment were the same as in any intermittent fever. Where there was local congestion, (as of the heart or liver,) we should try to mitigate this by gentle antispasmodic treatment (such as shaving the head, cold small doses of calomel, and blisters in case of head symptoms) before giving quinine. We should not lose too much time waiting for a perfect remission, which might not always occur; for the sooner the fever returns the worse does the local complication become. Nourishment, in the shape of milk, broths, and wine if necessary, should be given early. The occurrence of fatal prostration in the sweating stage should be looked out for, and met with stimulants and nourishment, &c. Iron, arsenic, and tonics should be given after the fever is checked.

As long as the fever recurs at intervals, quinine, though sometimes valuable, is still very valuable. But when, in the third stage, the fever becomes continuous, quinine is useless. Arsenic and strychnia are highly spoken of in this stage by Juggo Bando Bose. However, he did not find any one of these particularly valuable, but rather relied on food, and on regulation of clothing and diet, and, where possible, change of air. In cases of chronically enlarged spleen, animal broths, and a green-staining of the mæstrum, but when the fever returned, they should be reduced in quantity, the being especially excluded on account of its bulk. Even more care is required when the liver is involved, all fatty matters, and sometimes even milk, should be excluded. Medicinally, spirituous preparations should be treated with iron, cod-liver oil, and tonics, and quinine, strychnia, or arsenic during the febrile attacks. Where the liver was engaged, the mineral acids and counter-irritation were indicated, with occasional gentle purgatives.

Of the two great remedies in this disease, quinine and change of air, the latter, in too many cases, was not practicable. For eight years' very extensive experience of it, Dr. Juggo Bando Bose must say that his faith in quinine was somewhat shaken. It checked fever rapidly, but did not seem to obviate the tendency to its recurrence. The inhabitants of districts where the epidemic fever prevails maintain that quinine only checks its appearance without eradicating the poison from the system; that it induces a state of constitution favourable to return of the disease; and that its prolonged use is followed by a melancholic state shown by the coming on in the evening of headache, lassitude, and burning of hands and feet, &c. Dr. Juggo Bando Bose did not believe that quinine generated any poisons, or the occurrence of fever, but he did think that the cases effected by it were less permanent than those by strychnia, arsenic, or some native remedy, and he had also noticed the sub-

The above is not only a valuable addition to the literature of the history of medicine, but also a work of great practical interest. It is a work of great interest to all those who are concerned with the history of medicine, and also to all those who are interested in the general history of the human mind. It is a work of great interest to all those who are concerned with the history of medicine, and also to all those who are interested in the general history of the human mind. It is a work of great interest to all those who are concerned with the history of medicine, and also to all those who are interested in the general history of the human mind.

Reviews.

THE "DIALUTIA JOURNAL OF MEDICINE"

It is not a rare thing to find a journal very interesting and also of some value, written by the pen of a doctor. I have had occasion to read a number of these of various origin, and in the usual way, I have been disappointed. Articles were omitted that would have been of great value, and without any reason being given. There was an abundance of errors, and a number of them were of a serious nature. The editor of the journal, Dr. [Name], was given the opportunity to explain. He said that he had no idea of the value of the journal, and that he had no idea of the value of the journal. He said that he had no idea of the value of the journal, and that he had no idea of the value of the journal.

CURACU.

THE BENGAL MEDICAL REHIRING FUND AGAIN.

The Bengal Medical Rehiring Fund, which was established in 1870, has been re-established. The fund is intended to provide for the re-hiring of medical officers who have been discharged from service. The fund is intended to provide for the re-hiring of medical officers who have been discharged from service. The fund is intended to provide for the re-hiring of medical officers who have been discharged from service. The fund is intended to provide for the re-hiring of medical officers who have been discharged from service.

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SUBORDINATE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT. THE PUNISHMENT OF THE "PROMPT". The Bengal Medical Rehiring Fund, which was established in 1870, has been re-established. The fund is intended to provide for the re-hiring of medical officers who have been discharged from service. The fund is intended to provide for the re-hiring of medical officers who have been discharged from service.

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WARRANT MEDICAL OFFICE.

SUBORDINATE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "PIONEER."

MY DEAR SIR,—I would esteem it a great favor if you would permit me to address, through the medium of your valuable paper, a few words to the members of the Subordinate Medical Department. What I have to say to them would be to this effect. In the month of April last I addressed a letter to the Editor of the *Indian Medical Gazette*, embodying the grievances of the service. I have the melancholy happiness to be a humble member of. I spoke of these grievances at length, and in very plain and open terms I showed most plainly that we were unfairly dealt with by the Government; that we deserved not the hard treatment we met with; and that the apathy and indifference displayed towards us and our sufferings, alike by the high officials in the parent service and the Supreme Government of India, partook of a criminal nature. It is the business of these our officials to heartily support us; and it seems surely the duty of the Government to maintain the just balance of justice among its servants. I pointed the strong finger of censure at the head of our Department for the apathy displayed towards us, and I showed that the Government, by its many recent concessions to the collateral Warrant Services, (while we as a body have been apparently studiously withheld most unfairly from us every measure of justice. What then are we to do? A desperate disease needs a desperate remedy. I'll quote to you what the Editor of the *Indian Medical Gazette* has been pleased to say in reply to my letter:—

"The subject shall not be overlooked, but your communication is hardly admissible as it is. The very heading, 'How long, O Lord, how long,' would, we fear, do injury to the cause which is really deserving of universal sympathy. Why not submit another memorial, temperately worded, drawing attention to the grievances complained of? And, by the way, why not agitate the question of another Widows' and Orphans' Fund? Much misery would be averted if such a Fund were re-established, though it should be on a firmer basis than the last."

Our hearts have grown sick and tired of waiting. In vain have we fed ourselves upon hope. We must act again. The Editor of the *Indian Medical Gazette* deemed my letter inadmissible. He has stated his reason, and it is a woefully trifling one, or perhaps my letter may have been too exhaustive, too lengthy. It was so in a measure. But I could not hide in a nutshell that lachrymose tale of our misfortunes which needs an ocean's flow.

"The subject shall not be overlooked." Let us watch how the leading Medical Journal of Bengal may speak of us.

In the meantime, I bring myself in some measure conspicuously to the front in this matter. I propose that another memorial be drawn up for laying before the Indian Council. I propose that, with a view to my being enabled to place myself in communication with a competent legal adviser in this matter, each member of the Subordinate Medical Establishment addresses me here to the effect that he is willing that I should so move in his interests, and that he is prepared to meet any trifling expense that the measure or movement may entail. May we prosper.

Yours truly,
SUB-MEDICUS.

Cannore, 8th May, 1868.

INSPECTOR-GENERAL MOUNT.

It is more than a fortnight since the *Gazette* contained the announcement that Inspector-General Mount, at the head of the Army Medical Department in Ireland, had been placed upon half-pay. As Mr. Mount has been nearly thirty full years in the service, of which no less than twenty-two years were passed abroad, it seemed to us that, whatever were the reasons for the announcement being made, they could not be of a nature to cause such a distinguished officer of the department any injury or annoyance. He might have sought for half-pay perhaps, although it seemed unlikely, placed as he was with regard to his retiring period on full service pension. We waited for an explanation of the *Gazette*; and if what we hear to-day—if it be the whole truth connected with the case—it would appear that Mr. Mount has been ill-used, and has a right to appeal from the authorities to those who represent authoritatively the force of public opinion and the legal power of redress

for the reversion of a harsh and unwarrantable sentence. Mr. Mount, be it remembered, is no ordinary man, though if he were a mere office drudge who had gained all his distinctions by hard sitting on easy chairs, he would be entitled to redress for ill-treatment. He was in charge of the Field Hospital for the wounded in the Crimea. He was in China and in New Zealand during two wars, in which the Doctors had more to do than the Generals. He has won the Victoria Cross—a doubtful honour for a Surgeon, but not for a man, and Mr. Mount may say he could not have helped doing what he did on the day of the Balaklava charge, if he is scolded for having such a decoration on his breast. He is a Companion of the Bath; but, what is more to the purpose, he is a very energetic, if somewhat "troublesome," Medical Officer. Now what has he done to be forced on half-pay? For forced he has been, in spite of his appeals, remonstrances, and reclamations. Some twenty months ago Mr. Mount came home from New Zealand and was appointed to Aldershot. Thence he was ordered to Calcutta to take charge of the Medical Department in India—a coveted post, for it is worth more than £3,000 a year, hard cash, and is not very onerous. Mr. Mount, fortified by the opinion of a Medical Board, asked for a respite; he begged for a few months more at home to recruit his health, on which three severe campaigns and tropical service had made inroads, which were augmented by a recent personal injury from an accidental fall. He offered to go to India if the officer next on the list for that post did not like to face the £3,000 a year and a Calcutta compound, with a bungalow at Darjeeling or Simla. He was refused, as we hear, any sort of consideration or delay. "Said or half-pay" was all Dr. Logan had to say, and the Duke of Cambridge, with a laudable desire, we suppose, to strengthen the hands of the Inspector-General, although his Royal Highness must be acquainted personally with Mr. Mount's services and character, approved of the decision. It seems to us in this view of the facts exceedingly unjust, and we look in vain for anything in the case to warrant such an arbitrary and almost vindictive proceeding. Dr. Logan has, we suppose, good warrant in the rules and regulations of the service, and he will have to show it, and even then the House of Commons may find that Mr. Mount is a victim to a high-handedness of dealing which enforces the truth of the maxim *Suum cuique laqueum injuria*. If Mr. Mount made false positions and vexatious excuses, the punishment of compulsory half-pay and its consequent disgrace was very severe. If his pleas were valid, his treatment has been in the last degree discreditably to Dr. Logan.*—*Army and Navy Gazette*, (Pioneer, 27th April, 1868.)

Short Notices of Recent Books.

A System of Medicine. Edited by J. RUSSELL REYNOLDS, M.D., F.R.C.P. London: Macmillan & Co. 1868. Vol. II.

In looking at this great work, it is at first somewhat difficult to say whether most praise is due to the Editor for the discrimination he has shown in gathering round him the very lights of the profession, or to the contributors for the care and industry they have displayed in bringing their labors up to the most recent advance of medical science; or, finally, to the publishers, who have displayed so much creditable enterprise in issuing a work, the publication of which must have been attended with so much anxiety and expense. However, we may safely thank all three for one of the best and most comprehensive treatises on medicine which have yet been attempted in my country. The volume before us deals with the whole series of nervous diseases, and with one department of the diseases of the digestive system. The Editor contributes an Introduction, and the articles on Epilepsy, Writer's Cramp, Hysteria, Muscular Anæsthesia, Torticollis, and, assisted by Dr. Bastian, the articles on Congestion of the Brain, Cerebritis, and Softening of the Brain, and Adventitious Product in the Brain; Dr. F. E. Anstie contributes articles on Alcoholism and Neuralgia; Dr. T. K. Chambers those on Ecstasy, Catalepsy, Somnambulism; Dr. T. Hughlings Jackson those on Convulsions and Apoplexy; and Dr. C. B. Kædicke those on Cholera, Locomotor Ataxy, and on all the

* We should like to hear the other side of this case.—*Ed., I. M. J.*

vantages of protoxide of nitrogen as an anæsthetic. This gas,—laughing-gas,—known for so many years, and tried so often for the purpose of producing anæsthesia, has, thanks to the Editor of the medical journal, been creating quite a furore here. The method of employing it is different from that which used to be employed on former occasions. The patient is compelled to breathe the gas, and it only, and the consequence of this is said to be the absence of anything like delirium. It must not be denied that in a great many instances, small operations, such as tooth-drawing, abscess-opening, tendon-cutting, and so forth, have been performed under its influence without pain to the patient; but there is one serious objection to its use, *viz.*, that it tends to produce asphyxia. In almost every case the face and skin, after a few inspirations, become completely livid. This has led most of our scientific men, experienced in the science of anæsthetics, (Dr. B. W. Richardson to wit,) to very gravely condemn its use. Mr. Paget, who has employed it in one or two cases, thinks that this lividity is a serious symptom, and that nothing can be said of its efficiency until observations have been made on several thousand cases.

The visit of the Prince and Princess of Wales to Ireland seems to have passed off very successfully, but we have not learnt whether any of the expected Knightships or Baronetcies have been conferred. The Dublin Medical Press warmly urged Mr. Adams' claims to recognition at the royal hands, but we have not heard that the distinguished President of the Irish College of Surgeons, and Surgeon in Ordinary to the Queen, has received the laurels which his countrymen were anxious to see conferred upon him. The royal party appears to have displayed an excess of enthusiasm in all that related to Cardinal Cullen and the Catholic University. But we believe that the Queen's University, an institution especially connected with the State, and established for the last eighteen years, was not taken any notice of. This appears to me to have been a little unfair, and can only be explained, I think, upon the ground of political expediency. The Queen's University now numbers nearly 1,000 graduates, while the Catholic Institution has none at all. *A propos* of the Queen's University, I may mention that the vacancy in the Senate caused by the death of the Earl of Rosse has been filled by the election of Dr. William MacCormac, of Belfast, a distinguished graduate, who is not only a scholar and physician, but is keenly interested in all that relates to Irish secular education. I may also mention that the petition of the University praying for representation in Parliament will very soon be laid before the House. It is already most liberally signed.

I am glad to be able to contradict a report set afloat here by one of the medical journals, to the effect that Professor Huxley had resigned his Hunterian Professorship at the College of Surgeons. It is absolutely untrue. Professor Huxley has not been very well lately, and he went out of town to Wales for change of air. Hence doubtless the rumour, unless, indeed, the thought was fathered by the wish of some ill-disposed aspirant for the professor's gown.

The *British Medical Journal*, "seduced of" some jealous young chemist, is striving to drag Professor Frankland into a new-paper controversy on the subject of his recent discovery of an elaborate process of water-analysis. Dr. Frankland's colleague, Dr. Odling, has written an amusing letter to the journal, in which, after mildly chiding the Editor for his assumption of a power of criticism which he (Dr. Odling) evidently denies to him, expresses his regret that he has not been lucky enough to meet with the approval of the Editor of the *British Medical Journal*. I think it will be admitted by impartial critics that the journal has displayed bad taste, and worse judgment, in allowing itself to be led away to gratify the malicious pique of some partizan.

Connected to some extent with this question of water-analysis is the problem of the distribution of cholera by water. This is exciting a good deal of debate at some of our societies. Dr. Letiely, a chemist of some note, stands almost alone in contending that water has nothing to do with the transmission and distribution of cholera. Mr. Netten Radcliffe, on the other hand, who holds strongly to the water theory, and who has published the most elaborate Report in the last Report of the Privy Council, has nearly the whole profession on his side. At a recent meeting of the "Association of Medical Officers for Health," the matter was talked out rather fully; and from a careful examination of the report, I am bound to confess that Mr. Netten Radcliffe had made the best of the argument.

The recent death of one or two of the prisoners at Coldbathfield Prison has once more opened up the question of the gene-

ral treatment and punishment of criminals. There can be little doubt, from the evidence on the trials, that one at least of the prisoners met his death through phthisis brought on by starvation and over-work. It would seem that this sad result might have been avoided by a more vigilant exercise of power on the part of the Medical Superintendent. It is true that the victim in this case was most refractory, but then it ought to be borne in mind that, whether a prisoner be violent or not, his work and food should stand in a direct ratio, and not in an inverse one, as the authorities at Coldbathfields seem to have considered.

The case of Dr. Stirling, who was lately sent home from the Cape by Commodore Randolph, has received the attention of the Press, and doubtless the result will be the reinstatement of this ill-used gentleman. The facts which have come to light show that the doctor was right, and the naval officer egregiously wrong. The Commodore had some sharp altercation with Dr. Stirling, because he was late in visiting a gouty officer, who should have been in hospital, and to attend to whom, under the circumstances, was a special act of courtesy on Dr. Stirling's part. Yet for this squabble he was sent off the station. Had he been simply a naval assistant surgeon, he might have demanded a court martial; but even this wretched resource was cut off. Really these cases are becoming much too frequent.

Mr. Sampson Gangee is fighting in the Birmingham papers for the abolition of all unpaid medical services, and Birmingham is the cradle of reform.

It is not yet known on whom the honor of Principalship of the Edinburgh University will fall, but strenuous efforts are being made to obtain it for Sir James Simpson. Few more worthy, or better qualified candidates could be found.

The Progress of the Medical and Collateral Sciences.

The Physiology of the Spinal Cord.—In a memoir sent in to the Belgian Academy of Sciences, M. Masius, of Liège, describes the results of some experiments which he recently conducted upon dogs, and which seem to prove that the spinal cord possesses a motor centre which has not hitherto been recognized by anatomists. This new centre, to which M. Masius gives the name of *ano-spinal*, is situate in the lower part of the lumbar portion of the cord, and presides over the tonic and reflex contraction of the *sphincter ani* muscle. Of the importance of M. Masius's labors, we have the testimony of the Commissioners who examined his memoir. One of these, however, M. Pochan, questions the soundness of the author's conclusions, which he says are opposed to the well-known pathological fact that the *sphincter ani* does not always lose its power of contraction when the spinal cord is injured. M. Schwann, the originator of the cell-theory, thus pronounces his opinion on the subject. The experiments of the author prove incontrovertibly that in dogs there exists, in the spinal cord, at the level of the intervertebral disc between the 6th and 7th lumbar vertebra, a clearly defined nervous centre which presides over the reflex movements of the *sphincter ani*, and that the centre which presides over the tonicity of that muscle is found in a similar position. But to assume the identity of these two centres would be unjustifiable on the evidence. M. Schwann suggests that further experiments should be made before definitive conclusions are drawn.

Grave Uterine Retroflexion.—M. Richelot applies the term "grave" to those cases which have been rebellious to all the usual methods of treatment, and which are associated with intense pain, which is either spontaneous, or is the consequence of fatigue. His mode of treatment consists in bringing about structural union between the neck of the uterus and the wall of the vagina. He states that this plan is easily carried out by the application of caustics, and that it is neither obstructive to conception nor to parturition.

Formation of Fat from Albumen.—Physiological chemistry in these days teaches us doctrines very different from those of a quarter of a century since. At that time we were taught to imagine that fats in the animal body could only be derived from

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

ON CHOLERA. No. II.

By C. MACNAMARA,

Surgeon to the Calcutta Ophthalmic Hospital.

CORRIGENDUM.

First paragraph of former paper, read "98" for "90."

EARLY in March, 1817, a death from cholera occurred in Fort William, but, being an isolated case, no particular notice was taken of it. About the 11th of July we hear of the simultaneous outbreak of cholera in the districts of Patna, Mymensing, and Sylhet; * the former situated to the extreme west, and the latter to the east of the Province of Bengal. In August and the following months Calcutta was affected, 25,000 of its inhabitants having been under medical treatment for the disease. Of these 4,000 died; † but it is worthy of notice that scarcely a case of cholera occurred among several thousand prisoners confined in the Alipore Jail.

Copies of some of the original reports, from which these details have been compiled, are still preserved among the M. S. Proceedings of the Bengal Medical Board, and are well worth studying; but they do not appear among the Office records in the order above indicated, no special reports on cholera having been called for, or received by the Board until the end of the year.

The Proceedings of the Medical Board, to which I shall frequently have to refer, consist of a series of day books in which entries have been made regarding the current work of the Office. These records are particularly valuable, therefore, in tracing the history of a disease such as we are now considering, because they give us the opinions entertained by the members of the Board at the time the events brought to their notice actually occurred,—ideas which might very probably have undergone considerable modification if recorded at a subsequent period, and reviewed by the light of further experience or knowledge of the matter in hand. This fact is well illustrated in reference to the correspondence regarding the outbreak of the cholera of 1817.

The first notice in "the Proceedings" of this epidemic is in a letter from Dr. Tytler, Civil Surgeon of Jessore, to the Judge of the district, dated August 23rd, 1817. He writes:—"An epidemic has broken out in the bazar, the disorder commencing with pain or uneasiness in different parts of the body, presently succeeded by giddiness of the head, sickness, vomiting, griping in the belly, and frequent stools. The countenance exhibits much anxiety, the body becomes emaciated, the pulse rapidly sinks, and the patient, if not speedily relieved with large doses of calomel, followed by one of opium, it carries him off within four and twenty hours." ‡ As the disease was spreading rapidly, and the natives were pained-stricken, and rushing from the town, the Judge thought it advisable to close his Court, and immediately reported the circumstance to the Supreme Government, enclosing a copy of Dr. Tytler's letter. Upon receiving this communication, Mr. W. B. Bayley, the Secretary to Government, forwarded it to the Medical Board, urging them to give the matter their immediate attention, and to advise the Government on the subject. In their reply (the 6th of September, 1817) the members of the Board remark "that the disease is the usual epidemic of this period of the year, increased perhaps in violence by the peculiarities of the present season, and not improbably by certain local causes affecting the health of the inhabitants of Jessore. It is understood that

in certain quarters of Calcutta a similar epidemic prevails; and it is probable that there is no considerable town in the low and humid climate of Bengal that is at present entirely exempt from its operation. The obstruction to ventilation in native towns from rank and luxuriant vegetation powerfully aids the influence of the season, and as this cause may operate in a greater or less degree in different places, the prevalence and fatality of the epidemic will probably be increased or diminished.

"A great alarm seems to have spread itself among the natives of Jessore, which the suspension of public business by the Magistrate would not be calculated to check, though there is no doubt, however, that apprehension may aid as well the diffusion as violence of an epidemic; yet it is probable that the consequences arising from that cause may in the present instance have been beneficial, correcting the influence of an overcrowded population." I have quoted this letter at length, because it appears to me, not only an important document as bearing upon the history of cholera, but it also gives us an idea of the recognised views of the etiology of the disease held by medical authorities in India in 1817.

It will be observed that the members of the Board, who probably served in this country some twenty years prior to the date of their letter, remark that the disease is the usual epidemic of the season. We may conclude, therefore, they were perfectly familiar with its phenomena; but throughout the original correspondence, neither the Government, the Medical Board, nor Dr. Tytler mention the epidemic as cholera. Curiously enough, the first notice we have of this fact is in a letter from the Magistrate of Calcutta forwarded to Government on the 16th of 8th month, 1817. He observes that "a disease is prevalent in the town and suburbs of the species of cholera morbus." This statement having been sent on to the Medical Board, they declare the disease to be cholera morbus, and that "it generally prevails to a greater or less degree at the present season of the year. It has, however, of late been far more fatal than at any former period within the recollection of the oldest inhabitants, running a course generally in a few hours, and sometimes in a few minutes," § phenomena which, nevertheless, had been ascribed to it, a century before, by the Portuguese at Goa, and in other localities.

I have already noticed the existence of cholera at Patna and Mymensing in July, 1817, and in Calcutta early in August. At this time it also appeared at Dacca and Naraingunge. On the 23rd of the month it was raging throughout Jessore, and in Chittagong, on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal; at the same moment it appeared in Rajshahye, a central district lying east of the Ganges, and afterwards in the high and distant tract of Bhagulpore and Mangley. By the middle of 8th month the inhabitants of Purneah, Dinagpore, Balasore, and Cuttack were affected. On the 17th it had spread to Buxar, Chupah Ghazepore, and, towards the end of the month, to Moorshedpore. †

In October the districts of Banleh, Berhampore, and Rongpore came under the influence of cholera; and, in fact, within three months from its appearance, the disease had been general throughout the Province of Bengal, including some 195,000 square miles, and within this vast area the inhabitants of hardly a single village or town had escaped its deadly influence. There were some remarkable exceptions to this rule, as, for instance, in the enormous city of Moorshedabad, which appears upon good authority, to have been entirely free from the disease.

* M. S. Proceedings of the Bengal Medical Board, for 1817.

† Report on the Epidemic Cholera Morbus as it visited the territories subject to the Presidency of Bengal in 1817, 1818, 1819; by T. Jamieson, page 5, Calcutta, 1820.

‡ M. S. Proceedings of the Bengal Medical Board for 1817.

§ Dr. Macleay, writing from Chittagong, November, 1818, states that he had seen the appearance of cholera at a distance of more than 1000 miles from the seat of the epidemic, and that it prevailed in the district in a greater or less degree last season.

† Jamieson's Report, p. 11.

affirmed that the previous healthy villages around the camp got infected from the diseased army.*

Mr. Jameson traces the cholera on as far as Saharanpore, where, he says, the "high ridge of mountains, which in other quarters proved hostile to its propagation, here opposed its further progress, and saved the inhabitants of the hilly district from a scourge which, in their circumstances of poverty and nakedness, would probably have proved exceedingly fatal to them." This inference was of course drawn from the information at Mr. Jameson's command when he wrote his report; but it is to be observed that eighteen months later (in May, 1820), Moorcroft incidentally mentions the existence of cholera of a virulent type at Amb and Sauganpore to the north-west of Lahore;† which in all probability was a continuation of the invading cholera we have been tracing from Bundelcund into the North-Western Provinces of India and the Punjab, for Sir Richard Temple informs us that the Punjab was visited severely by the disease in the year 1820.‡

From Bundelcund the cholera invaded the districts of Saugor and Nagpore during the months of April and May, 1818, and may be traced westward to Bilahisa, Bhopal, and Ongeon, which it reached on the 9th of May. In June it appeared at Kotah, but does not appear to have crossed the Aravulli mountains. The epidemic extended from east to west along the valley of the Nerbudda and Tapti rivers. We find it early in April at Mundela, Hoshungabad, and Mooltan. On the 15th of May it was at Nagpore. In this quarter, it, as usual, gave evidence of its capricious nature; "it was not met with between Nagpore and Mooltan, a distance of 70 miles, and Bantool, a large town in the direct road from the river to Mooltan, was entirely exempt from its visitation."§ On the 3rd of July the disease was in full force at Julnah. "In the Province of Candeish, where there is not sufficient population, and but little intercourse between the villages, its progress was slow; it appeared in the capital of the district in the middle of July, and at the end of August at Surat." Dr. Kennedy says the disease was imported from the former to the latter place by a body of prisoners. "At Pundri-pore, to the south of Bombay, it happened to break out at the time of the great jatra, and was spread at once in all directions by the pilgrims returning to their homes. The poison would seem to have been more concentrated there from there being so many sources of production; the number of deaths in a few days was estimated at 3,000, and the patients were described as having been knocked down dead as if by lightning."|| After visiting Aurungabad, Amednuggur, and Nassick, it reached Scroor on the 18th of July, and towards the end of the month it appeared at Poona. "On the 6th of August it broke out with great violence at Panwell, a considerable village on the main line of communication between Poona and Bombay, separated from the latter by an arm of the sea, and distant fifteen or twenty miles, but between which a pretty constant communication is kept up by means of boats. On the 9th or 10th of the same month the first case appeared on the Island of Bombay, and could be traced to a man who had arrived from Panwell the same day; it also spread north and south along the sea coast from the same place, and was imported to a village in the neighbourhood of Tannah, on the Island of Salsett, distant from Bombay about twenty miles, by a detachment of troops that escorted a State prisoner to that

garrison from Panwell. The disease did not break out at Malindi on the extremity of the island, distant only five or six miles from the principal native town of Bombay, until it had been established in the latter; it then gradually spread over the Island of Salsett, through which the road from Bombay to Surat and the northern countries lies, and by which, during the south-west monsoon, is the principal line of communication.*

It will be observed that the cholera had extended itself steadily from east to west through the Presidency of Bombay; and Dr. Jukes remarks in July, 1818:—"It was hoped here (in Bombay) that as the disease had for some months been moving gradually south-west, borne along, as it were, by the north-east monsoon, that it might be checked by the violent south-west gales which blew on our Coast during that season." † In spite, however, of these opposing storms, the cholera marched forward, and having arrived at the Coast, spread through the Concan.

The following is a valuable record as affording us an idea of the mortality and number of cases of cholera which occurred among the civil population of the Island of Bombay during the year 1818:—

	Abstract of Cases.			
1818.	Cases.	Deaths.	Police.	
August ..	4,400	.. 256	..	409
September ..	4,804	.. 287	..	478
October ..	2,411	.. 146	..	181
November ..	824	.. 44	..	29
December ..	806	.. 63	..	72
1819.				
January ..	889	.. 144	..	125
February ..	517	.. 27
	14,651	938	1,294	

Proportion of deaths in these cases when medicine was administered, 6·4 per cent. The population of the island may amount to between 200 and 220,000, say 210,000. The number of ascertained cases, 15,945, which gives the proportion of attacks of the disease for the population 7½ per cent.

We must now return to Nagpore, where, as already observed, cholera had made its appearance among the inhabitants of the city and neighbouring villages in May.

Throughout the early part of the year 1818, a considerable body of Bengal and Madras troops had been engaged in the siege of Chundah, a town situated some seventy miles south of Nagpore. The men employed in the arduous operations of this siege escaped the cholera, notwithstanding the excessive heat and many privations they had to undergo. Their work having been accomplished, they were ordered to March to Nagpore, and on the 30th of May arrived at Gaongong, a village nine miles south of the city. "Here they had hardly learnt that the epidemic was raging in the vicinity, when they began themselves to experience its unwelcome visits. As usual, its first assaults were most severe. Many of those attacked, whilst loitering for water in the neighbouring rivulets, were brought in expiring; some dead. Of seventy cases admitted during that night and the succeeding day, about twenty died. On the 31st the instances of attack were equally numerous; but in these the exhaustion was not so sudden, and the subsequent symptoms were less severe. On the 1st of June, the division moved from Nagpore towards the Cantonnments of Hoshungabad. The disease then gradually declined, and almost entirely disappeared on the 17th and 18th after some seasonable falls of rain."§

Early in June the cholera had reached Hingmuthal, fifty miles to the south of Nagpore, and a few days later it spread to Chundah. The disease first appeared at Julnah on the 3rd of

* Jameson's Report, page 149.

† Travels in the Himalayan Provinces of Hindustan and the Punjab, from 1819 to 1825; by W. Moorcroft, London.

‡ The Localities in India exempt from Cholera; by Surgeon Edward Balfour, p. 7, Madras, 1826.

§ Jameson's Report.

|| Report on the Epidemic Cholera of 1818. Published under authority of the Government of Bombay, 1819, p. 131.

* Bombay Cholera Report, page 9.

† Bombay Cholera Report, page 171.

‡ Bombay Cholera Report, page 13, Appendix.

§ Jameson's Report, p. 23.



FIGURE 1.—TEMPERATURE OF THE COBRA

(A) 10 AM (B) 12 PM (C) 2 PM

(D) 4 PM (E) 6 PM

TABLE I.—COBRA (1957) (1958)

Sl. No.	Sex	Date of Birth	Date of Capture	Date of Death	Duration of Incubation	Survival
1	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
2	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
3	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
4	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
5	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
6	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
7	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
8	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
9	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
10	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
11	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
12	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
13	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
14	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
15	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
16	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
17	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
18	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
19	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
20	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived

TABLE II.—COBRA (1957) (1958)

Sl. No.	Sex	Date of Birth	Date of Capture	Date of Death	Duration of Incubation	Survival
1	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
2	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
3	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
4	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
5	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
6	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
7	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
8	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
9	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
10	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
11	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
12	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
13	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
14	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
15	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
16	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
17	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
18	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
19	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived
20	♂	1957	11.12.57	28.2.58	108 days	Survived

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

Male cobra (1957) 23.11.57 was injected with 0.2 ml. of the venom of cobra (1957) in the form of a thin film of 200 mg. of the venom spread on a piece of glass 2.5 cm. square.

At 10 AM the snake felt the film and at 12.30 PM it was dead. No convulsions or any other signs were observed.

The incubation period was 120 days.

At 12 PM cobra (1958) 23.11.57 was injected with 0.2 ml. of the venom of cobra (1957) in the form of a thin film of 200 mg. of the venom spread on a piece of glass 2.5 cm. square.

At 10 AM the snake felt the film and at 12.30 PM it was dead. No convulsions or any other signs were observed. The incubation period was 120 days.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.

At 12 PM cobra (1957) 23.11.57 was injected with 0.2 ml. of the venom of cobra (1957) in the form of a thin film of 200 mg. of the venom spread on a piece of glass 2.5 cm. square.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.

At 12 PM cobra (1957) 23.11.57 was injected with 0.2 ml. of the venom of cobra (1957) in the form of a thin film of 200 mg. of the venom spread on a piece of glass 2.5 cm. square.

At 10 AM the snake felt the film and at 12.30 PM it was dead. No convulsions or any other signs were observed.

The incubation period was 120 days.

At 12 PM cobra (1958) 23.11.57 was injected with 0.2 ml. of the venom of cobra (1957) in the form of a thin film of 200 mg. of the venom spread on a piece of glass 2.5 cm. square.

At 10 AM the snake felt the film and at 12.30 PM it was dead. No convulsions or any other signs were observed. The incubation period was 120 days.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

A cobra (1957) which had been bred was introduced into the incubator on 23.11.57 with four others of cobra (1957) bred on 23.11.57. The snake died before. The film on which the venom of cobra (1957) was spread was 200 mg. of the venom spread on a piece of glass 2.5 cm. square.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

At 12 PM, a very large Rana Tigrina was injected with 0.2 ml. of the same poison, with the same instrument as that

used for the fowl. The axilla and the abdominal wall were the places selected for injection.

4-22.—Slightly convulsed, and then partially paralysed.

4-23.—Almost motionless; respiratory movements still apparent. 4-35.—Dead.

4-20.—He is beginning to be sluggish, but is very slightly affected.

This experiment points to the difference of the effect of the poison on cold and warm-blooded animals. With three times the amount of the poison as was used in the case of the fowl, it took seven times as long to kill the frog.

EXPERIMENT No. 7.

One drop of carbolic acid was administered to a full-grown, vigorous cobra at 4-14 p. m. In two minutes the snake was in convulsions, and powerless to strike, or even erect his hood.

4-24.—Still struggling; convulsed; mouth open, but unable to move or strike.

4-45.—Has gradually been recovering; looks still very weak, and the head trembles, and can be raised with difficulty. At 2 p. m. the following day the snake had recovered, but still seemed weak, and unable to dilate his hood perfectly.

A smaller cobra to which the same quantity, one drop, was administered, died in less than five minutes.

EXPERIMENT No. 8.

Two drops of carbolic acid were administered to a large frog, *Rana Tigrina*, at 4-15 p. m.

4-20 p. m.—Apparently not affected.

4-22.—Began to be sluggish.

4-24.—Very sluggish; reflex movements when the hind legs are irritated.

4-30.—No reflex movement; lies almost paralysed; respiratory movements going on slowly.

4-40.—Quite dead.

When dead, the body became quite collapsed and pinched in, whilst the frog killed by cobra poison was much distended.

The poison used for inoculating on this occasion had been taken from three cobras the day before. There was altogether about forty or fifty drops. It is a slightly viscid, somewhat opalescent fluid; clear when pressed out of the poison gland, but becoming slightly turbid afterwards, with a slightly acid reaction, and under the microscope presenting the appearance in the annexed sketch,* which I observed after very careful examination.

This poison used on the day after its abstraction had lost very little of its virulence; for, when injected through the hypodermic needle, it caused death very rapidly. Where it has appeared to fail, the apparent failure has probably been due to the mode of insertion. The hypodermic syringe is very like the poison fang, and it appeared to inject the poison just as efficaciously.

* I may note that the experiments with cobras have been made with three varieties of the "Naga Tapudiana." They vary in color from black or prismatic dark-purple to a light brown or ash color. The snake-catchers describe three kinds: the *Aravana*, marked on the hood with spectacles; the *Ko-Atie*, marked on the hood with one ocellus, and generally of a light color; the *Kul-ramp* or the black cobra.

The Bungarus Fasciatus they call *Sonka*.

The *Babu Russchii* is called by them the *B-oo*, and is regarded as a very poisonous snake. As yet I have had no opportunity of trying any experiments with this snake.

June 9th, 1868.

ON FATTY DEGENERATION.

By CHARLES R. FRANCIS, M.D.

Or all the morbid degenerations of the tissues in the human frame, there is probably none of such frequent occurrence, in this country, as *fatty degeneration*; no abnormal pathological condition which is so constantly the cause of death, and especially of sudden death, as this. The fact is well known to all who have treated disease in residents, and more particularly in those who have been gross feeders, and intemperate work-shoppers of Bacchus. The physician, and especially the surgeon in charge of a European regiment, are familiar with it. It is a frequent cause of death too in comparatively young soldiers—of young men who have lived but a short time in the country.

This form of degeneration has attracted considerable attention in Europe during the past quarter of a century,* and, as generally, when affecting the heart, defying the keenest investigation that can be brought to bear for its detection, has come to be regarded by the operating surgeon as his most formidable, because usually concealed, foe. There are indeed occasionally certain indications of this degeneration having taken place, such as an intermittent pulse, a feeble circulation with cold surface and extremities, an inexplicable *malaise*, a feeling of lethargy, imperfect digestion, sleepless nights, or sleep disturbed by dreams, and other symptoms which point to a debilitated constitution. But all these symptoms, whether taken together or separately, may proceed from other causes; they are not pathognomonic of fatty degeneration. But if, in addition to them, we are told of attacks of occasional giddiness, stupor, loss of memory, numbness of either the right or left arm, dulcified articulation, palpitation, "oppression in the heart," inability to walk up hill; and, moreover, if, in the same individual (in one who has not yet reached the period of life when it is ordinarily developed) we find the *coronæ scissiles*, then the collected symptoms may be accepted as a sign of this particular form of degradation of tissue. In an able article, in the XXXIst number of the *Indian Annals of Medical Science*, Dr. Fayer has shown with what frequency patients succumb, in Calcutta, to this condition (when it affects the heart) after an operation. I have myself repeatedly pointed out to the students in my class how constant a cause of sudden, and unexpected death, this degeneration of the heart is found to be in persons who come more immediately under the care of the physician. And, in an admirable and highly-philosophical paper by Dr. C. N. Macnamara, in the Xth number of the *Bulletin Annals of Medical Science*, it is shown that a remarkably high rate of mortality, in the European army in India, is attributable to it. Dr. Macnamara even believed that it led to the changing of the entire regiment to which he was attached, (the 1st Fusiliers) once in ten years.

The ordinary supposed causes of fatty degeneration are, generally, well known. Indulgence in a rich diet, and alcoholic liquors, indolent habits, decline of life, long inflammatory, defective nutrition, and exertion, and what has been called, by *retrograde metamorphosis of tissue*, are among the chief. Speaking of alcoholism as a cause, Handfield Jones says, in his exhaustive paper on the general subject of fatty degeneration, "the effects of spirit drinking" "illustrate extremely well the two principal conditions of the change. Impairment of excretion, and pouring in of an hydro-carbonate into the blood, cause it to be loaded with oil, while the debilitating action of the alcohol on the nervous system, and through it probably on all parts, lowers their vital energies, and at length so endures their organic life, that they can no longer maintain their healthy construction." Handfield Jones speaks of impairment of excretion

* Lately just introduced as a form of this degeneration, I have found it being brought forward by Haver and West of Egypt. He had seen very little of it himself.

A SUGGESTION REGARDING POST-PARTUM HÆMORRHAGE.

By A. R. HALL,

Assistant Surgeon, Royal Artillery.

It has occurred to me that there is a possible cause of flooding during labor which has not been specially noticed by writers on midwifery. I allude to the *occasional tying of the umbilical cord before pulsation has ceased in it*. We are told, in works on Obstetrics, that if the child has cried or breathed, its communication with the mother is no longer necessary, and that the cord may be tied immediately. No notice is directed to be taken, whether the cord is pulsating or not. This proceeding involves perfect safety as regards the child; but may it not do harm to the mother?

Before considering what is the state of affairs directly after the expulsion of the child, let me quote some passages from a book by Dr. Lumley Earle, Obstetric Surgeon to the Queen's Hospital, Birmingham, entitled "Flooding after Delivery." At page 104, under the heading "Partial Separation of the not morbidly adherent placenta," he writes:—"After the birth of the infant, the uterus generally remains quiescent for a short time before it contracts to detach the placenta. Dr. Murphy has given to that condition of the uterus the very appropriate term of 'suspended action,' in contradistinction to that of true inertia. Now, a not uncommon cause of hæmorrhage is the *partial detachment of the placenta before the uterus begins to contract*. The only safeguards against flooding are either adhesion of the entire placenta, or firm contraction of the uterus, its cavity being perfectly empty. Both these points are wanting when hæmorrhage occurs from partial separation of the placenta during an uncontracted state of the uterus. The blood flows through the uterus unimpeded, and escapes out of the uterine sinuses lately covered by the detached portion of the placenta. The healthy afterbirth is so loosely connected to the uterine wall, that very slight disturbances may give rise to its partial detachment, e.g., exertion of the patient; coughing; the application of strong or unequal pressure on the uterus during the absence of contraction; contraction of only a small portion of the uterus; and premature traction on the cord."

Now, as stated above, a *not uncommon cause of hæmorrhage is the partial detachment of the placenta before the uterus begins to contract*. What is the cause of this partial displacement? The uterus has not re-commenced to contract for the expulsion of the placenta. Its action is suspended. If the last contractions of the uterus to expel the child had produced it, blood would immediately begin to flow as soon as the child had entirely passed through the vulva. This sometimes does happen; but most of the cases of post-partum hæmorrhage met with occur after ligation of the cord; many of them almost directly after. If, then, the child has been born without any immediate flooding, and the uterus is quiet, what is the cause of the partial detachment of the placenta? I believe it may be explained as follows. Let us take an ordinary case of flooding. The child has been born; the blood is still circulating through the cord; the pulsations are distinctly felt; the child breathes, and a ligature is applied to the cord. What follows? The blood coming from the uterus into the placenta is suddenly stopped at the junction between the two; it cannot proceed, because of the blood in front having been brought to a stand-still by the ligature on the cord; the healthy after-birth is very loosely connected to the uterine wall, and very slight disturbances may give rise to its partial detachment. Blood is, I assume, poured out between the uterus and placenta, because that is the weakest part that the blood comes in contact with, and will first yield to the pressure from behind. A partial detachment of the placenta takes place, and

consequently hæmorrhage into the cavity of the uterus. Can it be then that too hasty or too early application of the ligature to the pulsating cord, and consequent sudden separation of the placental attachment, are the real causes of certain cases of post-partum hæmorrhage? Such may be regarded as merely a suggestion on my part; but if there is any truth in it, the cause of flooding can be so easily avoided, that I have thought it worth while to draw attention to it. As a rule, there is seldom any necessity for haste in the division of the umbilical cord. If the child has not begun to breathe, it requires the blood which is circulating through the cord; for although out of the uterus, it is still drawing life from the mother. If it is necessary to try and excite respiration, cold water can be dashed on it, or other direct stimulants can be applied, without entailing any risk to either mother or child. If, on the other hand, the child has breathed, the pulsation in the cord will become less frequent, and cease in a short time; the blood will then be flowing into the placenta, and the ligature may be applied without any chance of doing harm.

Dr. Earle, in the above quoted work, devotes a chapter to the "Preventive Treatment," and his suggestions are most practical. But he makes no allusion to the state of the cord when the ligature is about to be applied, whether it is pulsating or not. I have therefore been induced to put certain thoughts which have occurred to me on paper. I bring forward the subject as one based, of necessity, on a theory; and in doing so, I am fully aware how fallacious theories sometimes prove.

Still, as it has not been treated of in our standard works on Midwifery, these remarks may have the effect of drawing the attention of medical men to the subject; and if, as a rule, a ligature were not applied on the umbilical cord whilst it is pulsating, it is possible that cases of post-partum hæmorrhage might be less frequent than they now are.

BARIACHTORF, May 18th, 1868.

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

COMPOUND COMMINATED GUN-SHOT FRACTURE OF BOTH BONES OF THE FOREARM; SECONDARY AMPUTATION; RECOVERY.

By CHARLES MARTIN RUSSELL, M.D.,

Superintendent of Pilgrim Hospital, and Civil Surgeon, Gya.

CHAMMAS, aged 55, Hindu by caste, and occupation tell, of Mouzah Tailhutta, Pergunnah Roh, in the sub-division of Nawajia, physical constitution sound, was admitted into the Pilgrim Hospital, Gya, on 28th January, 1868, with compound comminuted fracture of both bones of the right forearm caused by gun-shot wound.

The history of the case is as follows:—He states that three days before his admission into hospital he was wounded by the accidental discharge of a shikari's matchlock; that upon receipt of the injury he fell down in a state of insensibility, and, on recovering his senses, was told that the matchlock was loaded with shot, and not with ball. He thinks he was distant some three or four paces from the weapon when it went off, but his statements are rather vague on this point. When sufficiently recovered from the primary effects of the injury, he was sent on to Gya by the native doctor under charge of the Police. The notes of the case kept by the Sub-Assistant Surgeon furnish the following particulars.

January 28th, 1868.—Symptoms on admission.—An ugly-looking lacerated and contused wound, three inches in length and breadth, at the middle of right forearm; both bones at this situation smashed into pieces; considerable swelling and tension of the parts above and below the seat of injury; patient complains of much pain and restlessness, but otherwise there is comparatively little constitutional disturbance, and no symptoms of collapse.

Injured forearm to be placed on a splint, and supported by a bandage. Milk diet. ʒi of solution of morphia, contain-

THE TREATMENT OF GONORRHEA AND OF SYPHILITIC WARTS.

By J. B. HARRIS, M.D., F.C.D., M.R.C.S.

Lecturer on the Diseases of the Urinary Organs.

I have read with much interest a very interesting paper by Dr. Hyatt's, published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, dated June 20, 1868, with the title, "On the external treatment of gonorrhoea." It is a paper which I think is worth the notice of our country physicians, and which I think is worth the notice of our country physicians.

The paper is by Dr. Hyatt, of the University of Michigan, and is a paper which is worth the notice of our country physicians, and which I think is worth the notice of our country physicians.

As to the treatment of gonorrhoea, I think it is worth the notice of our country physicians, and which I think is worth the notice of our country physicians.

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As to the treatment of gonorrhoea, I think it is worth the notice of our country physicians, and which I think is worth the notice of our country physicians.

As to the treatment of gonorrhoea, I think it is worth the notice of our country physicians, and which I think is worth the notice of our country physicians.

B. P. V. L.	31
...	...	31
...	...	31
Balsam of guaiac	M. f. Elect.

A. resp. aff. thro. time daily.

As this disease is a local one, it can be taken with advantage by the most delicate means.

When all the external symptoms have disappeared, and only a thin watery discharge remains, the local application of bicarbonate of soda will be found to be of great service.

Dr. Hyatt's paper is a very interesting one, and is worth the notice of our country physicians, and which I think is worth the notice of our country physicians.

Dr. Hyatt's paper is a very interesting one, and is worth the notice of our country physicians, and which I think is worth the notice of our country physicians.

H. B. Harris, M.D., F.C.D., M.R.C.S.

... a grain of the material, to be given at the same time in capsules.

... An operation for the removal of the testis, and ... and ...

... *Hyatt's Case* ...

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ABSTRACT OF LITHOTOMY CASES PERFORMED IN THE GOVERNMENT CHARITABLE DISPENSARY AT GOOJERAT DURING THE PAST 27 MONTHS, FROM 8TH DECEMBER 1865 TO 27TH MARCH 1868.

By G. E. Pool,

Civil Assistant Surgeon.

Number.	Name.	Age.	Caste.	Sex.	Date of operation.	Costs and Dis- charged.	Died.	Days under treat- ment.	REMARKS.
1	Jano	22	Mussulman.	Male.	8-12-65	27-12-65	..	19	
2	Sahib Deen	30	Do.	Do.	27-12-65	29-1-66	..	33	
3	Mahmood	30	Do.	Do.	27-12-65	29-1-66	..	33	
4	Katub Deen	35	Do.	Do.	27-12-65	25-1-66	..	29	
5	Noor Deen	32	Do.	Do.	195-66	30-4-66	..	61	
6	Bordah	4	Do.	Do.	195-66	6-4-66	..	27	
7	Jahid	4	Do.	Do.	195-66	6-4-66	..	27	
8	Gohar	40	Do.	Do.	195-66	14-4-66	..	39	
9	Small	9	Do.	Do.	123-66	11-4-66	..	39	
10	Karam Deen	11	Do.	Do.	225-66	19-4-66	..	19	
11	Tajoo	28	Do.	Do.	225-66	27-4-66	..	38	
12	Kamiah	40	Do.	Do.	34-66	..	7-4-68	14	
13	Mahana	34	Do.	Do.	3-4-66	16-4-66	..	16	
14	Soohano	6	Hindoo.	Do.	164-66	30-4-66	..	14	
15	Karam Khan	7	Mussulman.	Do.	164-66	30-4-66	..	15	
16	Bunam	8	Do.	Do.	164-66	35-6-66	..	18	
17	Alie Shah	8	Do.	Do.	164-66	45-6-66	..	20	
18	Mohemudbur	50	Do.	Do.	164-66	30-3-68	..	10	
19	Ratum	69	Do.	Do.	174-66	4-5-66	..	15	
20	Almad	25	Do.	Do.	174-66	28-4-66	..	12	
21	Rabeya Beebe	36	Do.	Female.	174-66	28-6-66	..	11	
22	Uah Ditta	8	Do.	Male.	304-66	10-5-66	..	12	
23	Fakerna	26	Do.	Do.	285-66	25-6-66	..	24	
24	Noor Deen	7	Do.	Do.	69-66	22-6-66	..	17	
25	Oomarbur	47	Do.	Do.	8-6-66	5-8-66	..	69	
26	Reimutbeg	3	Do.	Do.	86-66	22-6-66	..	14	
27	Alah Bad	19	Do.	Do.	9-6-66	8-7-66	..	29	
28	Karam Bad	18	Do.	Do.	166-66	3-7-66	..	17	
29	Noor Mahoo	39	Do.	Do.	24-6-66	19-7-66	..	25	
30	Sodagar	32	Do.	Do.	24-6-66	8-7-66	..	14	
31	M. hemid Hyat	4	Do.	Do.	244-66	4-7-66	..	16	
32	Karandub	79	Do.	Do.	17-66	17-7-66	..	16	
33	Saum	3	Do.	Do.	27-66	19-7-66	..	8	
34	Feshar	19	Hindoo.	Do.	47-66	27-7-66	..	23	
35	Jano	29	Mussulman.	Do.	117-66	6-8-66	..	26	
36	Noor Deen	22	Do.	Do.	227-66	..	30-7-66	32	
37	Derna	32	Do.	Do.	198-66	20-8-66	..	40	
38	Maung Shah	4	Do.	Do.	109-66	20-8-66	..	19	
39	Mahoo	14	Do.	Do.	109-66	..	13-9-66	3	
40	Chundoo	20	Hindoo.	Do.	22-6-66	4-10-66	..	15	
41	Doutat	4	Mussulman.	Do.	31-10-66	31-10-66	..	15	
42	Futeh Deen	8	Do.	Do.	10-11-66	28-12-66	..	48	
43	Jahid	35	Do.	Do.	10-11-66	13-1-66	..	31	
44	Gowal	69	Hindoo.	Do.	19-11-66	12-1-66	..	23	
45	Bhagh	3	Do.	Do.	26-1-66	16-1-67	..	21	
46	Moham Deen	14	Mussulman.	Do.	29-1-66	18-1-67	..	23	
47	Jawhar	28	Do.	Do.	262-67	27-3-67	..	29	
48	Rokna Deen	35	Do.	Do.	262-67	21-3-67	..	24	
49	Ditta	22	Do.	Do.	18-67	18-3-67	..	21	
50	Nehal Chund	77	Hindoo.	Do.	18-67	21-3-67	..	29	
51	Guman	4	Mussulman.	Do.	113-67	2-4-67	..	13	
52	Dhurree	7	Do.	Female.	125-67	19-4-67	..	4	
53	Noor Deen	9	Do.	Male.	175-67	10-4-67	..	24	
54	Mohemid Deen	4	Do.	Do.	293-67	12-4-67	..	14	
55	Ashbur	50	Do.	Do.	293-67	17-4-67	..	19	
56	Jawhar	25	Do.	Do.	293-67	6-1-67	..	8	
57	Mohemid Khan	6	Do.	Do.	184-67	2-5-67	..	14	
58	Nanak	12	Hindoo.	Do.	184-67	14-5-67	..	22	
59	Karim Singh	49	Do.	Do.	25-4-67	30-4-67	..	5	
60	Katubur	13	Mussulman.	Do.	274-67	14-5-67	..	19	
61	Uah Ditta	9	Do.	Do.	63-67	20-5-67	..	15	
62	Mikha	13	Do.	Do.	256-67	14-6-67	..	26	
63	Katub Deen	79	Do.	Do.	116-67	18-6-67	..	7	
64	Ash Deen	70	Do.	Do.	116-67	30-6-67	..	9	
65	Faman Deen	3	Hindoo.	Do.	167-67	16-7-67	..	19	
66	Bordah	4	Do.	Do.	174-67	2-7-67	..	16	
67	Noor Deen	4	Do.	Do.	266-67	15-7-67	..	19	
68	Adam Shah	34	Do.	Do.	157-67	6-8-67	..	22	
69	Jawhar	25	Do.	Do.	157-67	13-8-67	..	21	
70	Mehr Alum	39	Do.	Do.	22-6-67	15-8-67	..	23	
71	Bordah	9	Do.	Do.	4-8-67	27-8-67	..	23	
72	Karim Aee	8	Do.	Do.	4-8-67	26-8-67	..	22	
73	Hessoo Beebe	49	Do.	Female.	158-67	26-8-67	..	11	
74	Ash Bad	27	Do.	Male.	4-8-67	16-8-67	..	12	
75	Sadan	41	Do.	Female.	27-8-67	30-8-67	..	3	
76	Emam Deen	7	Do.	Male.	28-11-67	22-12-67	..	24	
77	Rangoo	3	Hindoo.	Do.	28-11-67	22-12-67	..	24	
78	Rawa	45	Do.	Do.	143-68	14-1-68	..	33	
79	Noor Mohemad	49	Mussulman.	Do.	143-68	12-1-68	..	29	
80	Oumar Deen	4	Do.	Do.	143-68	27-3-68	..	13	
81	Dado	49	Do.	Do.	27-3-68	29-4-68	..	24	
82	Mahmood	8	Do.	Do.	27-3-68	18-4-68	..	17	
83	Mukhuo	5	Do.	Do.	27-3-68	18-4-68	..	17	
84	Seesoo	3	Do.	Do.	27-3-68	19-4-68	..	24	
85	Almad	7	Do.	Do.	27-3-68	22-4-68	..	31	

Wound of the stomach, from two draughts of the contents; the number of treated varying from one to ten, of different ages, generally from 2 to 4, in the adults was 454 children.

Department has long entertained, of an amelioration of its situation. On mentioning the subject to an old and experienced administrative medical officer, (whose interest in the Department was earnest and sincere), some time years ago, he urged I mention it to the present on the ground that the position of the Apothecaries and Stewards of the service was about to be placed on a new footing. This has now been done, and whilst the Department itself has received its reward, its widows have not been forgotten. No money has been taken of the orphans, however, and the provision for the widows is not so complete that more is to be required. It should be accepted as a *benefit*, and which the members of the Department might bring their own contributions, until the accumulated sum should allow of a very comfortable income being provided for *all* the orphans that are left—orphans as well as widows. We took great interest in the subject several years ago, and the present Editor of this journal was President of a Committee convened at Lucknow, for the purpose of taking it into consideration. The Committee proposed that Warrant Officers in all Departments of the service should join the fund, and circulars were issued, inviting them to do so. The replies received were not uniformly in the affirmative, although the general feeling was in favor of the scheme. We should ourselves be strongly in favor of it still, were it not for the Government assistance now rendered. This, however, is a matter open to discussion. The families of Warrant Officers, in other departments, are frequently left more or less destitute, as those (barring a small pittance) of the Subordinate Medical Department were, and there is no more provision for the orphans, until the other day, there was, the widows excepted, for the other.

The following is a record of the proceedings of the Committee which was convened at Lucknow just eight years ago—

At a meeting of Subordinate Medical Officers, (Dr. C. R. Fergus, Surgeon, Her Majesty's 4th European Regiment, in the Chair), assembled at Lucknow, on the 19th June, 1861, for the purpose of enquiring into the present state of the Widows' and Orphans' Fund, which was established at Fortzeperre in 1841, it was resolved, *first*, that the following members should constitute a Committee, with power to add to their number—

President Dr. C. R. Fergus,
Members Mr. W. Bomser, Steward,
 Mr. R. Davis, Apothecary,
 Mr. J. H. A. Leach, Steward,
 Mr. R. Peters, Asst. Apothecary,
 Mr. J. G. Souders, Asst. ditto.

Mr. Bomser kindly undertakes to act as Secretary.

The President briefly stated the history of the Fund. It was organized at Fortzeperre in 1841, under the sanction of the late Dr. J. C. Graham. Out of 25 Subordinate medical officers, 12 Subordinate Captains, 65 Sergeants, 1000 privates, and invested, *first*, in the Government Savings Bank, then in the Bank of Bengal, where the money of the orphans, and from which certain laws were being stringently enforced. A set of suitable rules were framed, and the Ist. Court of Directors gave a grant of 1000 Rs. to the Fund in the amounting of the Bengal Government Family Pension Fund, provided the same were first furnished with the plan and an authority to draw were vested in the committee, and also to secure the interest. Mr. P. M. Taylor, the having a contribution to be made for the purpose, made Mr. R. Peters, Surgeon, and Mr. J. G. Souders, Asst. Apothecary, the committee, and the fund has since that time been being managed by the President, and that when written by Mr. Taylor's work and in his report, and that his company (Mr. Taylor) in England had reported that it would be forthcoming payable to the Government in 1850.

It has, then, to be stated, that the present state of the Bengal Subordinate Widows' and Orphans' Fund, is, that the Government has not the Bank of Bengal, and the payment of the pensions is under the

control of Mr. John M. Wilson, Asst. Secy., attached to the Medical Depot at Sec. Lodge, and Secretary to the fund under Dr. Graham.

The Committee being the vast importance of settling the fund into a new arrangement as aforesaid, they, after unanimous agreement as to the advisability of it, and in passing every subordinate medical officer in the service, and all the committee in it, the necessity of a report, and, further, with a view to raise the strength, and the resources of the fund, they unanimously elected every Warrant Officer in the various departments, in the service, to be a member of the committee of it, and he should be furnished with a copy of the present proceedings, and addressed by means of a short circular, which the heads of departments should be requested to forward to the Editor. It is to the superintendant of the service, and that the committee determine what it will be most to the profit of the fund in the present, and in the future, the service has been taken. It is to be proposed that the committee should be authorized, and to be authorized, to proceedings.

In accordance with the above resolutions, a circular was framed and forwarded, such as before stated, a variety of replies were received.

Subsequently to this, a few of the subscribers to the fund agitated the question of a re-arrangement; and this was eventually carried out. The widows' pay has been *retained* ever since, and the point for consideration now is, shall anything be done or not? The department has delayed taking any further action, with a view to forming a new fund, until its *present* should be finally determined. There is now no reason for delaying any longer. A portion of Mr. Taylor's report, (his final opinion) was withheld in the absence of further information which he required, and, we believe, of further payment; together with some preliminary tables for calculating the probable amount of mortality and number of widows, as prepared by Mr. Tall, are with us, and we shall be happy to tender any assistance in our power for the purpose of bringing the matter to issue. If the department is satisfied with the pension as ordered by Government, their is no more to be said.

Since the foregoing was written, we have received communications from more than one member of the Subordinate Medical Service, by which it appears that some correspondence is taking place, and circulars are being issued, with a view to secure unity of action in raising a Widows' and Orphans' Fund in addition to the Government grant. All subscriptions, it would be a graduated scale will be necessary, should be made *voluntarily*, and we believe that Government would, under the circumstances of the failure of the former fund, *confer* *voluntarily* *to* *the* *Government*, and because the Court of Directors had promised it, take be taken under its own management. We shall be happy to receive a final and definite recommendation of the new scheme. The Subordinate Medical Widows' and Orphans' Fund in the Madras Presidency should be taken for a guide. The fund is based on a solid foundation, and works admirably.

METEOROLOGICAL PHENOMENA IN INDIA.

Throughout the length and breadth of the great continent of India, from its lofty in mountainous tracts to the mouths of its lordly rivers, in its skies and in its seas, the convulsions, and ordinary phenomena even, of nature, either attain monstrous proportions, or are remarkable for their erratic tendencies.

There, famines sweep human beings from the surface of the earth, not in thousands, but in *millions*. The two greatest pestilences which the world ever had congenial soils in India,

ray, it is alleged that the very *horns* of one of them, cholera, is there. There, cyclones destroy the strongest and most elaborate works of men's hands, as if the construction was of reeds, and the foundations of sand; the Heavens discharge balls of ice,* in hail storms, larger than cricket balls; and rain falls, not in inches, but in feet †

We are much indebted to Dr. Sutherland, Officiating Head of the Medical Department in this Presidency, for placing at our disposal, with a view to its publication in the *Indian Medical Gazette*, the following account, by Dr. Murray Thompson, of a very remarkable fall of muddy rain, which took place last year at Roorkee and at Nynee Tal in the Himalayas.

The following is a short account of this unusual phenomenon.—On the 27th of June, 1867, both at Nynee Tal and Roorkee, previous to the fall of muddy rain, a dense yellowish red cloud was observed in the sky. Rain fell, but it was not muddy. On the following day, the 28th, the same peculiarly coloured cloud was seen as early as eight in the morning; later in the day it was observed to be moving from the south-west to the north-east, and at 5 p. m. it had wholly disappeared in the latter direction. At Roorkee I noticed that this cloud was very high. I saw numerous smaller clouds, sometimes of a darker, and sometimes of a paler hue, float under it. The contrast of these lower clouds against the upper yellow red one was very striking, both on account of their colours being different, and their outlines more defined. From eight in the morning till four in the afternoon, the rain fell in short showers, and the water collected from these was always muddy. As might have been expected from the frequent showers, the air was saturated with moisture. Several times throughout the day the dry and wet bulbs were seen to read alike. The barometer from the 26th, when it was above its average height for the month, fell somewhat suddenly on the 27th, and continued to fall on the 28th and 29th, and as suddenly rose to above its average height late in the morning of the 30th. I noticed the state of the barometer before and after the fall of muddy rain, but I do not think there is any connection between the two.

* A specimen of the mud from the rain was examined by the microscope at Nynee Tal by Dr. Wilson, and at Roorkee by myself. It was found in both cases to be composed of inorganic particles, partly amorphous, but mixed with numerous crystals, having their edges much rounded off. Dr. J. A. P. Colles, of the Medical College, Calcutta, also very kindly examined the mud, and his opinion of it was the same as the above.

† The amount of mud contained in each cubic inch of rain was 12.42 grains, so that every inch of rain which fell deposited

149.1 grains per square foot of surface. The water which was filtered away from the mud was not at all like ordinary rain water, as it contained chlorides in marked, and sulphates in appreciable, quantity. Lime was detected in moderate amount, and magnesia in traces; but the most curious constituents detected were, in the first place, a salt of ammonia, most likely chloride; and, secondly, soluble organic matter, in such quantity as rapidly to discolor a solution of permanganate of potash.

"I could not determine more in the way of analysis than the above points. I should add that the rain water used for testing was collected in a clean porcelain basin, and fell in a place quite out of the reach of smoke or other organic impurity.

"The explanation of the occurrence of this shower of muddy rain must, I think, be that it was due to a dust-storm which had occurred at a great distance to the south-west, probably in the Bikaner desert, in the northern part of Rajpootana; and that during this storm, the dust, instead of being, as it usually is, only lifted but a short way from the surface, had, by an air current of exceptional strength and upward direction, been swept aloft to a great altitude, at which it is not an uncommon thing to have a stratum of air moving in a direction quite different from that of the stratum on the earth's surface."

The above explanation by Dr. Thompson is doubtless correct. On the African side of the Atlantic, and especially in the neighbourhood of the Cape Verd Archipelago, a fine reddish dust, producing an impenetrable haze which occasionally amounts to a dangerous fog, is deposited on the spars and riggings of ships. Although this dust invariably prevails with a north-east, east, or south-east wind, and at seasons when the Harmattan is blowing, it has been concluded that it comes from Africa, near the Continent of which it is so systematically deposited, more especially because the coarser grains fall first. But the microscope reveals, in this dust, certain forms of infusorial life which, amongst others from Africa, are peculiar to *South America*. Lieutenant Manry imagines that these are blown up into the air with the whirlwinds, which prevail about the beds of the Amazon and Orinoco rivers, carried over the Equator northwards by upper currents of air, and eventually brought back by the north-east trade, and deposited on the surface over which it flows. A singular "tally on the winds" is thus brought into view by the microscope. It would have been interesting to compare the solid constituents in the mud, which fell at Nynee Tal, with those of the soil, and in the water in the northern part of Rajpootana. This might still be done if the mud be available, and in sufficient quantity.

"NEW EDITION OF DR. CHEEVERS' MEDICAL JURISPRUDENCE FOR INDIA."

We advise our readers, who are interested in the subject of Medical Jurisprudence in India, to avail themselves of the opportunity, which is now afforded, of securing a copy of Dr. Cheever's new edition of this standard work. The entire book will be for the most part re-written; and, as much new matter has been added, it will extend, along with over 700 pages. To Civil Surgeons such a volume would be essential. Early application should be made to Messrs. Thacker, Spink, and Co., Calcutta. The price is 16 or 18 Rupees. We regret that want of space prevents our making a more extended allusion to this treatise. We shall hope to see it published occasionally.

* Falls of masses of ice have taken place in the west of India in the course of hail storms; and we ourselves were witnesses to the fall of large circular blocks which drove every one into their houses during the great hail storm by which Nynee Tal was visited in May, 1866. Some of these blocks weighed nearly 2 lbs., and measured more than 13 inches in circumference. The storm was preceded by a most remarkable noise in the Heavens, which has been very aptly compared by Professor Daniell to the emptying of innumerable bags of walnuts in the air. The blocks were made up of concentric layers, resembling onions.

† The station of Cherrapunjee was abandoned as a sanatorium, on account of the immense quantity of rain which fell there during the rainy season. Lieutenant Yale, of the (then Bengal) Engineers, measured 69 inches of 50 feet in one season!

SUBORDINATE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

At length we have the means of seeing the Subordinate Medical Department as a whole. We have transferred the Government students to Calcutta. It will be found in the accompanying Table, that we have now prepared a full statement, showing the present position of the Government students under the old system. It is not, however, a very complete one, owing to the present absence of the Government students from Calcutta. We will, however, express our extreme satisfaction that the present arrangement of the Government students has not been a failure. We put ourselves on record in this regard, to render to the Government the best service in our power, by practically deriving no instruction whatever from the Government students. Their lives were entrusted to the hands of the Government, and we must have been satisfied with the result. The Government students, however, are not yet out of our hands. We must have had a number of them in Calcutta, to be able to see the Government students in the hands of the Government. We must have had a number of them in Calcutta, to be able to see the Government students in the hands of the Government. We must have had a number of them in Calcutta, to be able to see the Government students in the hands of the Government.

and, under certain restrictions, to be educated at the Presidency Medical College. In carrying out this intention, we have difficulty enough. We require the students from this department to be educated by the Government at the Presidency Medical College of Bengal, no quarters at present being available. If the Government students were lodged at the Medical College in Calcutta, at that time they were all well housed, and the entire class was broken up. Owing to the great loss which I feared, of European troops, of all ranks, and the paucity of medical officers and servants of every grade, the youths were permanently detached, and distributed on duty amongst the numerous European regiments in India.

We have long privately advocated the removal of the "Antiseptic" class from the Medical College to the school at Agra; and we believe that the subject will shortly be brought forward. If this plan could be carried out, (of course, time, an increase of the hospital establishment to the present staff at the Antiseptic school, and increased accommodation would be required), then the quarters now supplied by the students of the "Antiseptic" class, could be made over to those of the Subordinate Medical Department. We shall revert to the subject hereafter.

Table of the Pay, Pension, &c., of the various grades of the Subordinate Medical Department, at the present rates, and at the rates proposed.

RANK.	MEDICAL OFFICERS.			ASSISTANT SURGEONS.			ASSISTANT PHYSICIANS.			ASSISTANT SURGEONS.		
	PREV. RATES.	NEW RATES.	PERCENTAGE.	PREV. RATES.	NEW RATES.	PERCENTAGE.	PREV. RATES.	NEW RATES.	PERCENTAGE.	PREV. RATES.	NEW RATES.	PERCENTAGE.
	Rs. Ann.	Rs. Ann.		Rs. Ann.	Rs. Ann.		Rs. Ann.	Rs. Ann.		Rs. Ann.	Rs. Ann.	
Major	1500	1500	100	1200	1200	100	1000	1000	100	800	800	100
Captain	1200	1200	100	1000	1000	100	800	800	100	600	600	100
Major	1000	1000	100	800	800	100	600	600	100	400	400	100
Captain	800	800	100	600	600	100	400	400	100	300	300	100
Major	600	600	100	400	400	100	300	300	100	200	200	100
Captain	400	400	100	300	300	100	200	200	100	150	150	100
Major	300	300	100	200	200	100	150	150	100	100	100	100
Captain	200	200	100	150	150	100	100	100	100	75	75	100
Major	150	150	100	100	100	100	75	75	100	50	50	100
Captain	100	100	100	75	75	100	50	50	100	37.5	37.5	100

The above Table shows the present and proposed rates of pay, pension, &c., of the various grades of the Subordinate Medical Department. The rates are given in Rupees Annually.

Printed and Published by the Government of India, at the Press of the Superintendent, Government Printing Office, Calcutta.

SMALL-POX HOSPITAL FOR CALCUTTA.

CALCUTTA is at length to have its Small-Pox Hospital. The urgency has long been recognized; but various circumstances have hitherto combined to prevent its being satisfactorily met. Happily, the Government and the Municipality are now in complete accord as to the extreme necessity which exists for such an institution, and both are agreed as to its site, construction, and maintenance. The Government will build the hospital and keep it in repair, and the Municipality will defray the monthly cost of the medicines and of the establishment. The location of the hospital, now finally settled, is to be at Scaldah,—as open a situation probably as any that could have been chosen in the outskirts of Calcutta. An hospital of this description would be unacceptable in any neighbourhood, but there would be fewer objections to its being built at the contemplated point near the Eastern Bengal Railway station, and in the immediate neighbourhood of the *quondam* bazaar, now utilized as an hospital for paupers, than in any other part of the town. Its construction—the building being intended especially for the reception of natives—will be simple enough. A pukka floor; and pukka pillars—the sides made of matting; the roof being thatched or tiled;—and the hospital is complete.—There will be four long wards, 92 feet \times 42 feet,* for the accommodation of from 30 to 40 patients, each of whom will be supplied, the mean general height being 18 feet, and taking the higher number, with 1758 cubic, and 96 superficial square, feet, of space.

Four small rooms, each 10 feet \times 8 feet, for cases requiring isolation, and for other purposes, will be attached to each ward, giving an aggregate of sixteen rooms of this description. The entire cost of the hospital will be about Rs. 35,000.

It was at one time intended to locate the building at Chit-pore, and more than one site was selected and approved of. But serious objections were raised by some of the neighbours, (before making the final arrangements, the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal wisely paused to ascertain this point) and, after some discussion, the idea was ultimately abandoned.

We shall reserve what more we have to say on the general subject to a future occasion.

INTRODUCTORY LECTURE AT THE MEDICAL COLLEGE.

THE usual introductory address, delivered annually, at the commencement of the session, at the Medical College of Bengal, was given this year, on the 10th June, by the Professor of Obstetrics, Dr. T. Edmonstone Charles. The professor deviated from the ordinary groove, and plainly, yet kindly, told the students of their most prominent failings; and, whilst doing so, pointed out how they might shake off the lethargy so characteristic of native youth charged from the zenana, and qualify at once, even in the early days of their studentship, for the active career of intelligent and zealous practitioners of medicine. But in the first place, asked the teacher, were they *proprietor* to do this? Now that they had *seen* something of what they would have to go through before attaining the object of their wishes, could they make up their minds to encounter the

hardships of the road? Was it too rough for them? If so, let them go back, and enter upon some other walk of life. Again, were their capacities equal to their desires? For it is one thing to *long* for knowledge, but quite another to acquire it. The native students of India are admirable learners, speaking generally; they succeed in accumulating knowledge *secundum modum* in a way unsurpassed by any students in the world. Let them apply that ability, if they determined to remain, now; and *velut*, by diligent application, their *unobsequious* appetite for study. Let them neglect no opportunities for improvement, not in various little ways, by giving a spoon, for example, when it was required, opening a shutter to let in more light, an *observation* when necessary, (not only looking on at an operation,) for showing that they really took an interest in what was being done. It was not dishonorable to give help in this way. Now let them, by cultivating individual responsibility, begin to learn the duties of *men*. Too much importance should not be attached to payments for professional acts. It is a glorious patrimony which has been handed down from hoary antiquity, through the vista of many generations, to the professors of medicine, is the Godlike privilege of applying their skill for the benefit of the poor. Let them not be always thinking of remuneration, and of slender incomes. It is probable that if the matter of uniform and other expenses connected with his position were taken into account, the Assistant Surgeon would not be found to be so well off, in point of income, as the *Sub-Assistant* Surgeon. The orator then urged those who had passed through the years of their pupillage, and who were now about to elect a sphere for the practice of their acquirements, to enter the public service and visit different parts of India. Nothing so tended to develop the mind and to give liberal ideas as travel. They would be brought into contact with the indigeneous practitioners of the country—the *bairis* and *koobirajas*—to whom they should be especially kind. The time is approaching when their occupation will be gone. Let not the students of the Medical College, educated with a better light than they ever enjoyed, look down upon these simple fathers of the art of healing. Rather let them endeavour to show in a proper spirit the superiority of Western science, and to induce them to have their sons educated as they themselves had been, and not taught to walk in the light of ancient Mahometan and Hindoo medicine. The *bairis* and *koobirajas* have begun to see that the competition is unequal, and Dr. Charles mentioned the case of a *baud* who had made over his practice to his son, who has become a Licentiate of the University of Calcutta.

The learned professor concluded a thoroughly practical and earnest discourse by offering, to each and all who had come there to *work*, a cordial welcome and hearty assistance both on his own part and on that of his colleagues. He hoped that they were prepared to recognize better elements in the cultivation of medical science than the principles which governed trade. Let them cast aside pills and powders; and although teachers and pupils were not bound together by a common tie, the performance of noble acts always brought all right-thinking men together, and was, in itself, a sufficient passport into any worthy community. Trusting then that the *entente cordiale* would exist between them both now and in their professional journey through life, he once more bade them *adieu*.

* Including verandah—these are 10 feet in width.

Notes and Queries.

DR. WILLIAM G. CHESWICK
GOSWAMI, HOSHIA, & Co.

- 1. P. F. 2. I. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12.
- 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24.
- 25. 26. 27. 28. 29. 30. 31. 32. 33. 34. 35.

- 36. 37. 38. 39. 40. 41. 42. 43. 44. 45. 46.
- 47. 48. 49. 50. 51. 52. 53. 54. 55. 56. 57.
- 58. 59. 60. 61. 62. 63. 64. 65. 66. 67. 68.

Meetings of the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association.

(Continued from Vol. III, No. 7, p. 119.)

Dr. BALSANON read a paper on the Pathology and Treatment of Cholera. He showed on the board, through magnifying power, the natural, the artificial, and the experimental changes in the bowels during cholera. He showed that, if a small amount of cholera could be exposed to a very extensive range of cholera, it might be found that the range of cholera was very limited. The artificial cholera, including the natural, in this respect, resembled the natural cholera of cholera, cholera, and many other forms of cholera, which were stopped by any extensive range of cholera. He showed on the board, through magnifying power, the natural, the artificial, and the experimental changes in the bowels during cholera. He showed that, if a small amount of cholera could be exposed to a very extensive range of cholera, it might be found that the range of cholera was very limited. The artificial cholera, including the natural, in this respect, resembled the natural cholera of cholera, cholera, and many other forms of cholera, which were stopped by any extensive range of cholera.

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A state of affairs which had been exhibited at Paris last summer. The water, taken from the fountain of the city, was found to be very impure. It contained a large amount of cholera, which was carried by the water to the city. The cholera was found to be very impure, and it was found that the cholera was carried by the water to the city. The cholera was found to be very impure, and it was found that the cholera was carried by the water to the city.

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The indication seemed to be to check the extreme chemical action which was going on in all parts of the body by the cold douche. The blood would then cease to be loaded with effluvia, produced by this intense chemical action. The blood thus poisoned blunts, and eventually destroys sensation; and as the poison of insolation acts almost exclusively on the nervous centres, and passes off, like the hot stage of intermittent fever, in a few hours, we may hope, by artificial excitants, to rouse the brain, and thus enable life to be maintained till the danger is over. Rubefacients and vesicants do not fulfil this object, as the cold douche and the bastinado do. Artificial respiration, as suggested by Dr. Barnard, would supply the brain with the fresh blood, without which it cannot live or act. All these means fulfil more or less the object in view, but we can never be certain of their success, having no means of estimating the amount of the poison by which the nervous system is affected, or of subduing its strength. All means should be tried perseveringly, for insolation, like the hot stage of fever, does not last long.

Dr. Barnard waived for the present the question of the relation between cholera and insolation. He did not believe in the existence of a special poison in the latter disease; but that from some cause the body became unable to keep its temperature so far below that of the air as to allow the cerebro-spinal nervous centres to act. These centres can only work within a certain range of temperature; above or below that they become inactive; respiration consequently stops, and the heart must cease to beat in between four and five minutes afterwards.

Dr. Chuckerbutty thought that in insolation some change took place in the nervous centres, which led to the rapid absorption of heat by the body; but that whether that change was the effect of high external temperature or not, remained to be proved. The cold douche might obviate this condition, but he did not see how artificial respiration would mend matters.

Dr. Francis confirmed Dr. Chuckerbutty's statement as to their being no obstruction to the entrance of air to the chest in cholera. Insolation was certainly common in Calcutta, where most persons already suffered from deficient nervous energy. He thought that most of those present had given a trial to artificial respiration in this disease.

Dr. Chevers thought that insolation was good deal influenced by predisposing causes, among which were age, corpulence, drunkenness, malarious cachexia, on the approach of the period when an attack of intermittent fever was due. Where a company of soldiers made a hot march, it would generally be found that the men who succumbed to insolation were fat, among the oldest of the party, and more or less intemperate in their habits. Both Dr. Marcus Hill and he had observed a fatal case of insolation, in which the small intestines were full of rice-water stools, like those of cholera.

Dr. Farquhar had seen cases of death from "secondary fever" after cholera, with hot skin, &c., which he believed to have been cases of insolation supervening on the original disease. The effect of any depressing agent in predisposing to insolation, by lowering the vitality of the nervous centres, had been shown in the case of a European regiment, which, though marching at an early hour every morning, lost many men from this disease, until the Surgeon recommended that the men should breakfast before starting. After this was done, no more cases occurred.

Dr. Barnard included all depressing aetia among the predisposing causes of insolation. Among them were, on the one hand, prolonged fasting, and, on the other, the presence in the stomach of a heavy, undigested meal.

Dr. Ewart doubted whether artificial respiration would be of much use, except as a secondary adjunct in insolation, in which death began, not as in drowning at the lungs, but at the nervous centres. Cold is used on a different principle, and is a rational mode of treatment. With regard to the apparent connection pointed out by Dr. Farquhar between the supervention of insolation, and that of the hot stage of fever, Dr. Ewart observed that insolation is not most prevalent at the most malarious seasons. He thought that any periodicity which appeared in cases of insolation was due, not to the effects of malarina, but to the normal periodicity of our ordinary vital actions.

Dr. Francis said that, nevertheless, insolation and cholera very frequently went together; insolation occurred more, in Calcutta, chiefly in the months when cholera was most prevalent.

After some further discussion, the meeting was closed at 11 P.M., with a vote of thanks to the Chair.

NORMAN CHEVERS, *President*.

Review.

THE CALCUTTA JOURNAL OF MEDICINE.

We have received the fifth number of this journal, and are very sorry to learn that the Editor is still single-handed. We beg to assure Dr. Sreer that when we made use of the term *Sub-Assistant Surgeon*, we did not allude to him, as we were well aware of his being an independent practitioner. We regret very much to think that the title of Sub-Assistant Surgeon should convey "an everlasting reproach," as Dr. Sreer says it does. We do not despair of living to see it associated with all that is dignified, honorable, and lucrative. We shall have something to say about a portion of the contents of this number of the journal hereafter.

Local Correspondence.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE."

Sir,—The Medical College at Calcutta led, up to the mutiny, classed the members of the Subordinate Medical Department among its numerous students; but I am sorry to say that, since that period, (one in which the department proved its usefulness) this, like a lot of other privileges, was most unceremoniously denied us. On what grounds I cannot say, but one thing was very evident. All the medical subordinates, that had the advantage of this boon, proved a credit, not only to themselves and Government, but a valuable and efficient help in cases of emergency.

Now may I ask why, or what is to prevent this privilege being again extended to us? Government got natives, Bengalis, and others educated there; further, schools are being raised for the education of native women in midwifery; and why don't those who have got influence (I mean the heads of the medical department in India) interest themselves so far as to get a limited number of hands from the Subordinate Medical Department admitted yearly into the College? Certainly we have as great a right to their consideration as the natives. Again, this medical education which would be bestowed on us would not be thrown away, for not only would it greatly benefit that much-spoken-of individual, the British soldier, but would remotely do good to Government; for, having got a medical education, and an insight into the profession, we would, as a matter of course, be more reluctant to part with it, and begin life a fresh in some other.

Not wishing to further intrude upon your valuable time, I conclude with a hope, that the *Bengal Medical Subordinate* will, in a short time, be again permitted to avail himself of all the advantages of a thorough, good, and sound professional education in that great goal of science, and his former *alma mater*, the Calcutta Medical College.

A BENGAL SUB-MEDIC.

Extracts.

SMALL CAUSE COURT,—26th May, 1868.

(*Before E. De Costa, Esq.*)

DR. A. J. MEYER vs. MR. W. WESTFIELD.

In this case plaintiff sought to recover Rs. 48, fees for professional visits paid to the defendant.

Mr. Dissent with the plaintiff.

Defendant had no plea.

Mr. Dissent.—We sue in this case to recover Rs. 48 for three visits to defendant on the 8th and 9th April last. Two visits on the 8th, and one on the 9th. The visits are charged for at Rs. 16 each.

Defendant.—I admit the first and second visits on the 8th, but I do not admit the amount. I ignore the visit of the 9th. I admit Rs. 8 per visit for the two visits on the 8th. I do not admit more, because I believe Dr. Meyer's charges are Rs. 8 per visit, and not Rs. 16.

Dr. Meyer.—On the 8th April last, when I went to my office at No. 28, Bentinck Street, I was informed that a letter had

authorized forms. It is a vice productive of the most dreadful consequences, and the victims of which are chiefly to be found among those who, from poverty or ignorance, are least able to protect themselves from it. I do beseech the influential members of the medical body of this metropolis to do their best to induce the Legislature to adopt stringent measures against this growing evil. Can the public expect no remedy at the hands of such an august body as the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association, whose main object is to fuse all discordant elements into one harmonious whole, and render them one in thought and action?

I ask every duly qualified *legal* medical practitioner whether he is not desirous that the public and the profession should be protected from such dishonest practices; whether he is not anxious to see the laws enforced against the open and unblushing *pretences* to medical knowledge; whether he does not wish that the profession should be spared of unmerited* censure; and whether, as a member of a learned and useful profession, he is not willing to possess those rights to which he alone is justly entitled.

As the matter now stands, quackery knows no bounds in this country.

Firstly.—A class of men, (rather boys) mostly the unpromising students of the Medical College, who having failed successively for two or three years in the First Examination for Licentiate in Medicine, or who having been obliged to leave the College during the dissecting season after studying for *one summer* only, or who have been ignominiously expelled from the College for some misdemeanour, unhesitatingly open a medicine shop in some quarter, and giving a bare life to the public, profess themselves to be passed students of the College, and thus establish as medical practitioners.

Secondly.—A class of men, a set of incompetent, unprincipled folks, having a smattering knowledge of the English, serve for some years in a dispensary, and having acquired a pretty fair knowledge of the art of compounding medicines, turn out as medical practitioners, quite competent to relieve their sick and ailing brethren.

Thirdly.—A class of medical *pretors*, (so called for their benevolent and patriotic ambition to cure the sick,) who proclaim that their healing science is very easy of comprehension, and can be mastered and practised by everybody knowing a little of English, without sacrificing in the least their own respective callings for livelihood. This *easy comprehension of science* has got good many followers, who, being quite unscientific, unlearned, and unprofessional, are making more *mischiefs* than good to the community. They doubtlessly volunteer their services, sometimes *most unceremoniously*, and their charges being no way expensive, many of our ignorant, stingy countrymen very easily fall a victim to the *less expensive, less troublesome, and safer* treatment of Homoeopathy or *Homo-apathy*, or, in plain language, *apathy to man*.

Fourthly.—A class of ignorant, illiterate, and useless creatures, who, taking advantage of their grandfathers, fathers' uncles, or relatives, having been once renowned for being famous native *kobirages*, learn by rote a few verses or *stokes* from their ancestral *poories* or manuscripts or the *midan shastra*, and taking in their pockets a handful of *pills* and *powders* of the most heterogeneous composition, go about the streets from lane to lane, professing to be competent physicians.

Fifthly.—A class of up-countrymen and the followers of the prophet, who, like their brethren of the fourth class, know nothing of the science they profess, but call themselves *hakims*, and earn their livelihood by the pretext of knowing all that their learned ancestors knew of the science. Besides these, there are other classes of men who profess to cure diseases by inspirations, hallucinations, *mantras*, &c., and by the administration of drugs or nostrums said to be received from saints, *janquirs*, deities, godheads, &c.

Really it is very painful and heart-rending to witness such persons arrogantly tendering their services as medical practitioners, and most *cravely* sporting with the lives of their fellow-brethren.

All these classes of unprofessional men, without any knowledge of the pathology and morbid anatomy of diseases, without any attempt to ascertain their causes, or to understand their various symptoms,* diagnostic, prognostic, or pathogenosidic,* imprudently venture to take up the most serious cases, and, knowing the viscose merely by its *name*, administer by turns all the

medicines they have heard of in connection with the disease, without any idea of their *modus operandi*, or the system. I do heartily pity these unprofessional brethren who, from sheer selfish motives, deliberately act against the simple rules of justice and humanity. I do pity *more so* those rich and influential parties who knowingly encourage such illegal and vicious practice, and thus set a bad example to the ignorant public.

The deplorable results to the patient, and the unblushing effrontery of the quack, are facts daily witnessed and lamented by every intelligent member of the community. The injury, sustained by the medical profession, and the beneficial effect produced on society, are no less felt by all. I therefore entreat earnestly the members of the medical profession to give this subject their best and early consideration in their Association, and endeavour to root out an evil so detrimental to their prospects and reputation, and so infurious* to their suffering brethren.

I doubt not that the unanimous voice of the profession would cordially echo the sentiments I have thus expressed, and hope they will all join in maintaining their rights *firmly, constantly, and consistently*, and thereby confer inestimable benefits on the country at large.†

Yours faithfully,
JUSTITIA.

Calcutta, 21st March, 1868.

With reference to Dr. Bhau Daji's remedy for leprosy, a Mr. Ruttonjee Nowrojee, C. M. S., writes:—

"I beg to inform you that I have, in the Christian settlement of Sharapur, four poor beings who have for several years past been suffering from 'this bathsome and terrible disease.' On hearing of Dr. Bhau Daji's newly-discovered remedy, I applied to him for some, and I am happy to say that the generous doctor sent me at first a small supply for an experiment. I had not used his medicine for more than a fortnight, before I began to perceive a gradual change for the better in my patients. When the medicine was well nigh finished, I requested more, which has been sent to me with that promptitude and generosity which I shall remember with much gratitude. Out of the four patients there are two (both sisters) who are really objects of such wretchedness that death would be far more preferable than life, the terrible disease having broken out fearfully all over their bodies, and not only disfiguring them, but sending out a most disgustingly foul odour from their bodies. Such cases, I had feared, were too far gone out of the reach of any remedy; but I am thankful to say that they are all making a slow, but, I fully believe, a sure progress toward recovery; so much so, that I am bold to say that Dr. Bhau Daji's remedy is an efficient antidote of leprosy. It was not my intention to publish this information at such an early stage. I wished to have waited some months more, when I could show, as I hope to do, some very clear and unmistakable proofs of recovery; but one or two remarks of the 'Inquirer,' and justice to the skill and laudable efforts of the excellent Dr. Bhau Daji, have prompted me to write."—*Pioneer*.

The results of Dr. Cayley's medical operations in Ladakh, says our contemporary, during the past year, have given great satisfaction to the Home Government. The doctor's laudable efforts have been, beyond a doubt, the means of relieving much suffering. Many of the merchants and other whom Dr. Cayley met in Ladakh have returned to their homes, feeling a lively gratitude for the benefits they have received. By such means—the Home Government remark—as testified on many previous occasions, by the medical officers of the Indian Government, the confidence of the people may be gained, even on the remotest outskirts of civilization. Sir Stafford Northcote will always learn with satisfaction that the medical science of officers employed on similar missions to distant countries, has been turned to such good account in the interests of humanity.—*Ibid*.

The *Central India Times* reports that the Conservatory at the Madaraj Bugh at Nagpore has been burnt down, and that plants to the value of Rs. 3,000 have been destroyed.

* See in orig.—ED., I, M. G.

† We shall notice this subject in our next issue.—ED., I, M. G.

It has been ruled by the Government of India that Native Surgeon Jansudasen Puhay cannot count towards pension the time that he may serve as Collector of Municipal Taxes in Madras.—*Ibid.*

A SENSIBLE order has at last been issued on the subject of removing troops into camp on the appearance of cholera in an epidemic form. In the hot and rainy seasons the camp is to be the last resource, and only such buildings as have actually presented cases are to be vacated. If, for instance, the disease should appear in one building, the whole of the troops are not to be moved forthwith into camp. Only the inmates of that particular building are to be moved. Similarly, when a troop or company is attacked, it should be dealt with in the same way. The whole of the troops in a station are not to be moved into camp unless it is found that the measures already adopted are insufficient to stop the progress of the epidemic. If we mistake not, the terrible sufferings of the British camp near Meerut last year have had something to do with the promulgation of the order referred to.—*Ibid.*

WE regret to learn of the death at Simla, in Abyssinia, of Dr. Stewart, the medical officer in charge of the A. Factory mountain tram, from heart disease. It is said that Dr. Hoobly, Staff Surgeon in charge of the 2nd Det. Hospital, is suffering from dysentery, and is dangerously ill.—*Ibid.*

REPORTS have been received from the Consular Agent at Djeddah that the great pilgrimage to Mecca has passed off in a most quiet and satisfactory manner. The members of the Sanitary Commission at Mecca report that the health of the pilgrims has been excellent, although the numbers are said to have been considerably larger than that of last year. It is estimated that 85,000 persons visited the shrines. Fortunately the weather during the period of the greatest assemblage was comparatively cool, the thermometer ranging from 16 to 20 Reaumur. Up to the middle of April a very large number of pilgrims had reached Djeddah on their return from Mecca.—*Englishman.*

CHOLERA is reported as having broken out amongst the pilgrims to the shrine of Joggegnath. A considerable number is said to have perished. Medicines were being distributed gratis to the crowds demanding relief.—*Ibid.*

EPIDEMIC fever having made its appearance in the Doars of Birootan, the Biroota merchants have broken up their establishments, and left the plains for the hills.—*Ibid.*

THE following list of casualties which have occurred amongst the British troops from the date of their landing in Abyssinia, in December, 1867, to 13th May, 1868, has been supplied by Dr. Currie, Principal Medical Officer with the Force. Seven officers and twenty-five men have died. Of the officers, two met violent deaths, Captain Benson having been drowned on the passage between Bombay and Aden, and Colonel Dunn accidentally shot at Senafe. Two of the men also met violent deaths. Sixty-five per cent. of the deaths resulted from dysentery. Dr. Currie has not yet been able to procure an accurate return of the total sickness.—*Powerer.*

It appears that a gradual reduction has been made in the number of the Medical Staff in the Madras Presidency. Some time ago, in 1859, the number of Deputy Inspectors of Hospitals in that Presidency had been reduced from ten to eight, and again, by a further amalgamation, the number was reduced to six. The consequence was that, though the number of the high offices was gradually reduced, the office work increased, so only one establishment was allowed for the unadorned offices. Since 1859 the Madras establishment has been twice reduced, while in Bombay and Bengal the reduction was made only on one occasion. The Inspector General, Indian Medical Department, has suggested to Government the advisability of having an establishment of not more than three clerks, whose salaries shall be Rs. 75, 50, and 35 respectively in the Madras and Bangalore Offices. It would appear that these clerks are

not brought under the Unconvenanted Service Rules, they get no pension for any length of service. The duties which are conducted by the Deputy Inspector General of the unadorned Presidency and Mysore Circles seem to be onerous, as the inspection of the division extends from Madras to Bazarwah, and even to Cuttack, while the officer belonging to the Mysore Circle has to see to the establishments in Mysore and on the Western Coast, the Hills, Kurnool, Cuddapah, and other stations in that part of the Presidency.—*Madras Standard.*

THE present Medical Staff at Port Blair will not be sufficient for the work that will devolve on them during the south-west monsoons. Hence two medical subordinates, a second apothecary, and a first dresser are to be sent to Port Blair from Madras by the first opportunity, as their services are very much required at that station.—*Ibid.*

Short Notices of Recent Books.

The Microscope and its Applications. By W. B. CARPENTER, M.D., F.R.S., &c. Fourth Edition, London: Churchill, 1868.

Dr. Carpenter's book is well known in every part of the world where a microscope is to be found. It is hardly necessary, therefore, to do more than announce the fact that a new edition has been published in order to make it sought for. In this the fourth edition, Dr. Carpenter has, it must be confessed, spared no pains to bring his book up to the mark of modern history, and the faults we have to find with him are few and trivial. Still they are faults at least in our eyes. For instance, we think the author has not shown his usual discrimination in his selection of instruments for description. We do mean to say that he has not given us an account of all the first-class microscopes, but we think that, in describing the instruments of some of the more modern makers, the author has been led not a little by prejudice. We think, for example, that his notice of "The Society of Arts" three-gumme microscope is much too laudatory, and that his omission of instruments like Collins's class and dissecting microscope, is hardly to be forgiven. In regard to necessary apparatus, we find that the author has omitted making of any value which has been devised since the publication of his previous edition, and, as usual in all cases, his descriptions are of that gaudy nature so characteristic of Dr. Carpenter. There is one exception to this statement, and that is to be found in the paragraph devoted to the subject of spectrum analysis. This, to our mind, is most unsatisfactory. The account of the apparatus is much too general, and the explanation of the various phenomena of spectrum analysis is of so meagre a character, that for all practical purposes this part of the book is valueless to the student. The addition of a number of page-plates on tinted paper renders the present a more handsome volume than its predecessors. In other respects, the difference between the last and the present edition is simply that of modification and detail. The book is, of all works on the microscope, the best companion for the earnest student. It may be a little difficult in parts, but it is always clear, and never inaccurate.

Visceral and Hereditary Syphilis, with special reference to morbus of pulvis Hyacin. By E. OPPERT, M.D., M.R.C.P.L. London: Churchill, 1868.

Dr. Oppert here sounds a trumpet of warning to those who are opposing the proposed legislation for prostitution. He explains to his readers that syphilis is something more than a malady of the retro-bellive organs and the skin. That it attacks indeed nearly all the viscera, and that very many of these obscure cases styled cachexia, and which are so familiar to the dysentery doctor, are really cases of visceral syphilis. Dr. Oppert's original observations are valuable, though not numerous, but his abstract of Lameroux's opinion is most interesting and important. The author has written his book not less for the practitioner than to draw the attention of the authorities with a view to bringing about legislation in regard to public prostitution. Syphilis, he says, is still not only a national, but an international plague. Still it is not only amenable to

were disposed to think with Moliere that God had enabled the human frame to bear up against its sufferings, but that the maladies, plus the remedies, were too much for mortals to sustain. Besides this good-natured chaff, Mr. Lowe offered some very sound and practical observations. He considered that the present plan of competition among examining bodies was attended with most melancholy results to the profession. He considered too that at the present day education was becoming lamentably sordid. That knowledge was too often sought merely for the purpose of gaining prizes or scholarships, and not for what it really was,—a great good in itself. He urged upon his younger hearers to be tolerant as well as sceptical; to be laborious and observant; never to think they had arrived at the end of knowledge, but each one to bring his stone and cast it into the vast heap which was being raised for the benefit of mankind.

The elections of the Fellows of the Royal Society have taken place, and have given rise to some surprise, and a good deal of disappointment. Of the many well-known physicians up for the F.R.S., only four have been selected, and these, with two exceptions, the least distinguished in medicine. They are Dr. H. Charlton Easton, Professor of Pathology in University College, and author of several fine memoirs on subjects in Human and Comparative Histology; Dr. J. Bernard Davis, author of *Crania Britannica*; Dr. P. Martin Duncan, distinguished for his papers on West Indian Geology; and Dr. J. Bell Pettigrew, late Assistant in the Museum of the College of Surgeons, and author of several nice memoirs on the Anatomy of the Heart, Stomach, and Bladder.

The question as to who shall be future Governor for West Middlesex is still unsettled. Dr. Diplock holds the post, and retires the office. Dr. W. Hardwick opposes him in Chancery, and has already obtained an order to compel Dr. Diplock to show *good reasons* he holds the post. Doubtless the legal proceedings will be tedious and costly on both sides; but if the opinion of lawyers can be taken on any case in Chancery, Dr. Hardwick, if he lives long enough, and should his case not rival the famous one of *Jandryce v. Jandryce*, must succeed to the office now held by his opponent.

The long-accumulating fund for the testimonial to Dr. B. W. Richardson has at last been publicly made over to the inventor of the celebrated ether-spray apparatus for the production of local anaesthesia. On Wednesday (29th) a large and influential meeting was held at Wilks's rooms to present Dr. Richardson with a testimonial in recognition of his labors in the cause of science. The chair was taken by Mr. Paget, and the gentlemen on the platform, comprising most of those who subscribed to the testimonial, numbered some of the most brilliant members of the profession. The amount of the sum raised by subscription was upwards of £1,100, and this amount was placed in Dr. Richardson's hands. A very handsome microscope, of Ross's best make, was also presented to Dr. Richardson as a memorial of the occasion. Few men have worked so earnestly, honestly, and successfully to promote the interests of medical science as Dr. Richardson, F.R.S.; and I am sure every one will be pleased to learn that even the small tribute I have mentioned has been offered to his worth.

Some of your readers who may be interested in Irish University education may wish to know the result of the proposals made to Government by the heads of the Catholic University in Ireland. The result has been an unequivocal refusal on the part of the Ministry. The following words, quoted from Lord Mayo's reply, will show how little disposed the Irish Government is to do anything calculated to injure the interests of the Queen's University:—"The object of the Government was to create an institution which, although denominational in its character, would be thoroughly independent, self-governed, and free from any external influence, of a political or religious nature. The proposals made in your letter would strike at the very root of these principles, and I am, therefore, with extreme regret, obliged to inform you that the recommendations contained in that letter cannot be entertained."

At a recent meeting of the Pathological Society, Dr. H. C. Easton brought under the notice of the members the very remarkable observation of Oudinias, that when a frog's limb has been ligatured, and the foot is examined under the microscope, the whole corpuscle may be seen performing unobscured movements, and also in making their way through the coats of the delicate vessels. Dr. Easton demonstrated the phenomenon to the Society, and the result has been in many a deal of controversy, has been going on as to who first pointed out this remarkable fact. Some say Waller was first in the field; others Wharton Jones, and others Dr. Bala. For my part, I am disposed to think that the observations of all three were limited to the fact of the ameboid motion of the corpuscles. At all

events, discussion has begun, and medical science cannot fail to be benefited by the results which are likely to arise from it. As a last item, I may mention that an energetic movement is being made to fuse our different Medical Societies together into an *Academy of Medicine*.

Progress of the Medical and Collateral Sciences,

The tactile corpuscles.—Much as has been written concerning the relation of the several parts which enter into the constitution of the touch-corpuscles, the decision of this point in histology seems as far from realization as ever. In a memoir presented on the subject to the French Academy by M. Rouget, this Anatomist discusses the experience of the writers, and especially those of Kulkker and Meissner. After very carefully weighing the statements of these physiologists, M. Rouget observes:—"My research has led me to regret Kulkker's opinion, and to accept the facts stated by Meissner and Wagner. He concludes, therefore, that the tactile corpuscle is not simply a mass of connective tissue to which a nerve filament is attached, but that it is a special organ constituted by a special expansion of one of the coats of the nerve tubule which include within it a quantity of granular, ganglionic nervous matter."

Fat from Flesh.—The recent inquiries of Professors Voit and Pettenkofer, of Munich, are sufficient to startle those members of our profession who have for years been basing their treatment of phthisis on the hypothesis of the formation of fats from hydrocarbons alone. The researches of the Bavarian chemists prove beyond all question that fats can be as readily formed from purely albuminous substances as from hydrocarbons. Strange as it may seem at first, it is after all but an application to physiology of the well-known facts of the production of adipose tissue, and of fatty acids by the decomposition of albumen. In the course of these experiments, M. M. Pettenkofer and Voit submitted both herbivorous and carnivorous animals to a diet of pure albumen, and compared the results with those obtained by feeding animals upon hydrocarbons. The consequence was found to be that the fat series fattened rapidly, while the second put up very little fat at all. If these conclusions be confirmed, they must seriously affect the existing mode of treating consumption.

Neurine obtained by synthesis.—In one of our late records we announced the fact that Herr Wartz had succeeded in producing neurine artificially by combining its elements together. Since then it has been objected that there was no proof of the identity of M. Wartz's neurine, and the neurine extracted from brain-substance. This objection lies, however, been successfully met by Wartz, who, in an elaborate series of experiments, has demonstrated the identity of the two substances by showing that their chlorides crystallize in precisely the same geometrical forms.

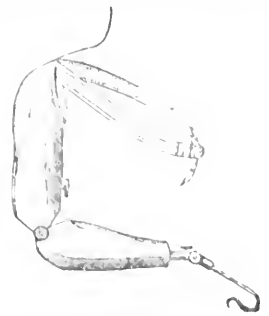
The physiology of vomiting.—Herr Schill's latest enquiries on this point, which were conducted on dogs, led him to believe that during vomiting the muscular fibres of the longitudinal layer are those which undergo most contraction. During these movements the cardiac orifice, under the influence of the spinal accessory nerve, remains open.

The action of Veratrum Viride.—The tinctorial *veratrum viride* being now a pharmacopoeial medicine, it is of interest to report some recent experiments which have been made in Germany to determine its exact effects upon the system. The complex physiological effects have been carried on by Herr Oulmont. Having administered both *veratrum album* and *veratrum viride* to animals, he found that the action of the former is distinguished from that of the latter by the greater violence of its effects upon the digestive system, where it always produces cholera and diarrhoea, and by the greater quantity of its action. He also investigated the effect on the alkaloid veratrin, and he discovered the very remarkable fact that it is not the true active principle of veratrum. Herr Oulmont's general conclusion bears out the general experience of medical men that *veratrum viride* is a

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MEMBERSHIP OF THE INDIAN MEDICAL
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ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF SNAKE-POISON.

BY J. FAYRER, M.D.

(Continued.)

EXPERIMENT NO. 1.

10th June, 1868.—Ten drops of Cobra poison, removed from the Cobra on the 9th of June, were injected, with the hyodermic syringe, under the mucous membrane of the mouth of a large rat-snake. It did not appear to affect the snake in the least at the time, or afterwards, and several days later it was quite well. It is possible that the poison may have lost some of its power in the course of 11 days, but it had not altered in appearance, and had been kept carefully closed from access of air. The effect on other animals proves that it had not become altogether inert.

EXPERIMENT NO. 2.

At 57 p.m., an *Alcedo Leucoptera* (paddy-bird) was bitten by a Bungarus Fasciatus in the thigh.

- 5-10.—Stretching the bitten leg; breathing hurriedly.
- 5-11.—Tries to fly. The leg very weak.
- 5-13.—Sluggish. The leg dragged; there is a peculiar twitching of the throat. The mouth wide open.
- 5-15.—Tries to fly when roused; the leg is paralysed.
- 5-30.—Remains in much the same condition.
- 5-51.—Much weaker; staggers as it moves. The plumage has a disordered and draggled appearance. The bird now crouches on its breast; leg apparently unable to support its weight.

The mouth gaping.

The claws are contracted, and it is unable to walk.

There is a peculiar vibration of the feathers of the neck.

The bitten thigh is discoloured and much congested.

5-53.—Drooping and crouching on the ground.

6-12.—Crouching on the ground; accelerated breathing; eyes quite bright.

6-21.—If roused, it tries to move, but it immediately falls over; the claws are contracted.

6-25.—Tries to rise when roused, and to attack with its beak, but droops immediately after the excitement.

6-36.—Brightness of the eyes diminished; lies prone, resting the head on the point of the beak.

6-38.—Lies helpless and motionless on the ground; slow, feeble respiration.

6-40.—Dead.

After death, Dr. Stolitzka remarked that the blood from the wound was very thin and watery. The bitten leg was discoloured, and, when pressed, a quantity of gas escaped in bubbles. Decomposition seemed to be setting in very rapidly.

The bird was bitten at 5-7 p.m., and died at 6-40 p.m.; i. e., in one hour and thirty-three minutes. The dead bird was given to a *Felis Chaus* (wild cat); it was eaten with avidity, and no unfavourable result occurred to the cat.

This experiment, like others tried with the *Bungarus Fasciatus*, seems to prove that its poison, though deadly, is neither so fatal, nor so active as that of the Cobra. This may be due, not only to some difference in the activity of the poison itself, but also to the nature of the instrument with which it is inoculated. The *Bungarus*, though a large, powerful, and very vicious snake, is armed with very small fangs, and penetration, even under the most favourable circumstances, must be much less than in the case of the Cobra, or of the viperine snakes, which have much longer fangs. The difference in this respect is very

striking between the poisonous *Colubridæ* and the viperine snakes. The fangs of the Cobra, *Bungarus*, and other colubridæ, are much smaller than those of the viperine snakes. Of the latter, the *Daboia* is the only representative in Bengal; the *Crotalida*, or pit vipers, are represented in India by different species of *Trimeresurus*, some of which may be found here as the *Crotalus horridus*, or Rattlesnake of America, but comparatively rare.

EXPERIMENT NO. 3.

Another paddy-bird *Alcedo Leucoptera*, bred at 11-20 a.m., 5-27 p.m., in the wing, with some of the same Cobra poison 11 days old, that had been used for the Pigeon, a short time before. The puncture bled freely.

5-29.—The bird is apparently unaffected.

5-32.—Inoculated again with a pull-on into a puncture in the hind leg, as the first inoculation seems to have taken effect.

5-35.—Walks sluggishly. Feathers have a disordered appearance; some are erect; the bird shakes himself frequently, and seems very uneasy; vomited some shrimps recently eaten.

5-40.—Staggers in walking; very weak in inoculated leg.

5-42.—Crouching; cannot balance itself when it tries to rise; point of the beak resting on the ground.

5-44.—When roused, tries to walk, but falls over.

5-45.—Eyes closed; slight convulsions.

5-50.—Generally convulsed.

5-52.—Dead.

The dead bird was eaten by a dog with great avidity, and resulted to that animal. In this instance, the poison was imperfectly inoculated into the wing, and apparently no result after 5 minutes, when it was again inoculated into the wing at 5-52 p.m.; death occurred at 5-52, or in 20 minutes.

It is worthy of remark that this poison was 11 days old, was probably not very effectively inoculated, as the hyodermic syringe was not used, the poison being inserted into the thigh with a quill, and yet the bird died in 20 minutes. What similar bird, bitten by a fresh and vigorous *Bungarus Fasciatus*, died for one hour and thirty-three minutes.

EXPERIMENTS WITH THE VULB OF RUSSELLI, OR VIPERA RUSSELLI* (VIPERA ELIENSIS); BIN ALI NAME* (BORA).

Having procured two full-grown snakes of this species, I tried the following experiments.

The *Daboia Russellii* is very different from the other Indian snakes; it belongs to the sub-order of viperine snakes, of the Viperidæ. Of these, only two are known in British India, *Daboia* and *Echis*. The former only is found in Bengal, where it is known as the "Bora," and is justly dreaded as a most

*NOTE.—The most common of the Colubridæ of our peninsula, and also in Bengal are—

134.—The *Naja Tripudians*, (Cobra) of Ceylon, Bengal, and India.
 135.—The *Naja Orientalis*, (Krait) of India, and various other countries.
 136.—*Bungarus Carcinus*, (Bengali name, *Beant*), not so common as the *Cobra*.
 137.—*Bungarus Fasciatus*, (Bengali name, *Sankar*), Common.

138.—Apparently *Bungarus* from *Crotalopsis*.
 139.—*Ophiophagus*, or *Hemidragas* (*Haps*), said to be found in Malabar, under the name of a *Wanthal*?

Of the Viperidæ are—*Crotalida*.

139.—*Trimeresurus Carinatus* (I don't know the native name).
 140.—*Trimeresurus* (I don't know the native name).
 141.—*Gammurus* (I don't know the native name).

Viperidæ.

139.—*Daboia Russellii*, (Russell's viper, or *Vipera Eliensis*, and its name *Bora*.)

140.—*Echis Carinatus*, but this probably not found in Bengal Proper. The fresh water snakes, *Hemalopsis*, are all innocent, I believe, but the *Hydrophila*, or salt water snakes of the Bay of Bengal, and salt water of the river, are all venomous.

venomous snake. It has various synonyms; the most familiar, perhaps, is that by which it is known in Ceylon, the Tie Polonga; it is also known in Southern India by the name of Cobra Moal. It is found in the Peninsula of Southern India, and even in the Himalayas; it is said, at a height of 5,000 feet, for it has been found at Almora. It grows as long as 50 inches, and is a very powerful and dangerous snake; it is much thicker than the Cobra, its markings are very beautiful, a series of black, white, and red, or orange and circular, on a greyish brown ground, white belly with black spots. Its head is covered with scales, its shields, its nostril is very large; the head is broad and well defined from the neck, which is not extensible like that of the Cobra.

The striking difference is in the poison fangs, which are very much larger than those of the Cobra. They are removed, erectile, and very movable; so much so, that when the snake is angry, and about to strike, you can see the fangs erected and depressed quickly in a vibratable manner, totally different to

the fixed and much smaller fangs of the Cobra and other poisonous colubrine snakes. (See sketch.)

There is only one species of Dabolia, and that may be found about Calcutta. I have been informed that it is not uncommon in the Botanical Gardens, and that cattle, as well as men, have met with their deaths from its bite.

The two brought to me were nearly full-grown, and apparently active and vigorous. The snake-catchers who brought them, and who handled Cobras with the greatest ease and freedom, from fear would not attempt to seize the Dabolia by the neck, as they said the risk was too great.* The snake did not appear at all more active than the Cobra, and, when seized by the tail, was not more capable of turning on his captor; but when the head was confined by compressing the neck with a stick against the ground, it struggled and made fierce attempts to bite, during which, the mouth being open, the gape of which is very wide, the erectile and vibratable movements of the fangs that I have mentioned became visible. This snake is the only species of its genus known in India.

VIBER.



Daboia Russellii.—Viperine snake with erectile fangs, short and mobile maxillary bone.

When the jaws are opened, the short maxillary bone with its fang is pushed forward, and the fang is erected.



Daboia's poison fang.

COLUBRIN.



Naja Triplicans, or Cobra di Capello.—Colubrine venomous snake with fixed fangs, long maxillary bone not movable.

The maxillary bone does not move, as in the Dabolia, and the fang is always erect.

COLUBRIN.

Toxin fang and maxillary bone of Bungarus.



Bungarus Fasciatus.—Fang developed like the Cobra's, and fixed; the fang similar to the Cobra's, only much smaller, less known than the Cobra, but I am inclined to regard it as almost as dangerous as that snake.

The above sketches represent the relative size of the fangs in the different snakes when full-grown.

The great difference that exists between the fangs of the venomous Colubrine and Viperine snakes has not, I think, been fully dwelt on by any author with whom I am acquainted.

* They did so on a future occasion.

It is not only in the greater length and size of the fang, but also in the anatomical arrangement, by which it can be erected or depressed at pleasure, that the Vipers are distinguished from the Colubrine snakes which have shorter and fixed fangs.* The structure of the fang itself is also characteristic. The Cobra's poison-tooth, for example, is like a leaf folded in closely, whilst the fang of the Daboia and other of the Viperidae is a long perforated tube, and the fang of the Hydrophidae is an open groove.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.

A pariah dog, full-grown, was bitten in the thigh, at 4-27 p. m. of 11th July, by a nearly full-grown, active Daboia. The dog whimpered when the snake's fangs penetrated. He was released, having been held while the snake bit him, and almost immediately, *i. e.*, at 4-28, fell over with a convulsive movement; became paralysed for the moment, and howled violently; as he lay on the ground, the bladder was emptied.

- 4-29.—In a state of violent tetanic spasm.
 - 4-31.—Lies motionless; eyes bright; muscular system generally twitching.
 - 4-35.—Lies apparently paralysed, but looks about him.
 - 4-37.—Attempted to get up; staggered a few steps, and lay down again.
 - 4-42.—Cannot walk. Lies paralysed; shews no sign of pain.
 - 4-50.—Much in the same state.
 - 5-35.—Lies paralysed, but breathing goes on.
- Died a few minutes later.

Thorax opened. Lungs collapsed, not congested; heart natural; auricles and ventricles contained fluid blood.

It is noteworthy that this dog, after the first violent outcry which he fell over, one minute after being bitten, appeared to suffer no further pain; indeed, it seemed unconscious of anything. There was no convulsion. General paralysis, the sphincters included. Gradual sinking from exhaustion. The heart's action continued to the last, and, even after apparent death, the rhythmical movements were observed.

The dog was bitten at 4-27 p. m., and died at about 5-40; nearly one hour and a quarter.

The first effects on the nervous system seemed much more violent than in the Cobra bite, and paralysis seemed to follow more quickly, but actual death was longer in taking place. A dog bitten by a Cobra died in about half an hour. The dog bitten by the Daboia died in an hour and a quarter. Possibly, the Cobra injected a larger quantity of poison than the Daboia; and indeed it struck me that there was not so great an effusion of poison from the Daboia as from the Cobra. There may have been something in the mode in which the bite was inflicted. The Cobra was held by the neck, his mouth almost forcibly opened, and his fangs made to imbed themselves in the bitten object; whilst, on the other hand, the Daboia was not so held or applied, for the snake-man was afraid to seize him by the neck, and could only fix him by compressing the neck on the ground with a stick, in which position the animal bitten was presented to the snake.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

A full-grown male cat was bitten by the same snake, in the hind leg, at 4-18 p. m. The Daboia, being secured as before described, plunged his fangs, but not deeply, into the limb; no immediate paralysis of the limb followed, as in the Cobra bite, but the animal was almost immediately affected, and at 4-22, *i. e.*, in four minutes, was in convulsions, which did

not last long, nor were attended by any outcry as in the dog bitten by the same snake. The general convulsions soon subsided, and were followed by general paralysis, the animal lying prone on the ground, with its breathing much accelerated, and with spasmodic twitchings of the muscles of the trunk and extremities.

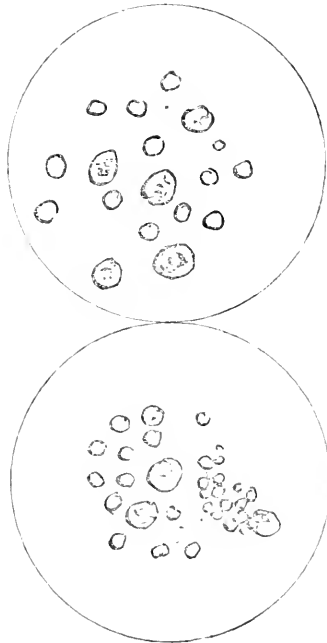
- 4-30.—Lies perfectly powerless, breathing rapid; frothing at the mouth, and making efforts to vomit. Bladder and rectum emptied, voided sanguineous mucus.
- 4-31.—Made an effort to rise; staggered a few paces and fell.
- 4-35.—In the same state; muscular twitchings continue; cannot move.
- 4-45.—Still alive, and much in the same state.
- 5 p. m.—Still alive; muscular twitchings continue, but fainter; breathing hardly perceptible.
- 5-15.—Quite dead.

The cat was bitten at 4-18 p. m., and died at 5-15 p. m., *i. e.*, in fifty-seven minutes. As in the case of the dog, the effects of the poison seemed to affect the nerve-centres more violently than the Cobra poison. Consciousness was probably earlier annihilated, but total death occurred later.

I examined the appearances after death, and found that, at 5-45 p. m., or in half an hour, the blood had not coagulated.

The lungs were not in the least congested; there were no clots in any of the cardiac cavities. Blood taken from the right auricle was dark and fluid, but speedily reddened on exposure to the air. Examined later, the power of coagulation appeared to have been perfectly destroyed. I took some away for microscopical examination, and it remained perfectly fluid.

MICROSCOPICAL APPEARANCE OF BLOOD OF A CAT POISONED BY DABOIA RUSSELLI. Sucker, 1/4 object-glass, No. 3 eye-piece.



* The fangs in all snakes are themselves fixed and anchored in the maxillary bone. In the Viperine snakes this bone moves freely, and with it the poison fangs.

examined the flesh most carefully, and repeatedly, under a microscope with his lens, particularly No. 3, (cyst-spice, and I found the cysts to be smaller, and in the sketch they are represented as being in the ordinary form. The only difference of importance, as compared with what I had in my mind, is that the cysts were not so regular in their arrangement, and that the contents were not so uniform in their appearance, as I had expected to find on opening the cysts. The contents were, however, so soft and so much broken up, that I could not examine them under a microscope. The cysts were, however, so soft and so much broken up, that I could not examine them under a microscope. The cysts were, however, so soft and so much broken up, that I could not examine them under a microscope.

12th Nov. 1867.

At 10 a.m. the snake was again put in full grown life. It crawled about for some time, but did not crawl the second time, and died at 11 1/2 a.m.

The snake does not seem to be docile, but is easily captured, and is very tame.

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13th Nov. 1867.

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twice, but did not seem to bite severely. This Dog was one that was used in the last experiment on the 11th July, and has been in a cage since it is not known whether it has eaten, or not, since the last experiment. It seemed vigorous and savage, striking at anything that was brought near it. The dog was well, and immediately after being bitten had a supposed antidote, of which I may have more to say on a future occasion, administered. As it took a minute or two to pour the drug down the dog's throat, it was impossible to say how far the struggles were due to pain, and to the poison.

1274.—Belted Snake, ran across the room staggering, and dragging the 1st dog.

1275.—Walking in the same manner, very restless; head and limbs jerking, and the dog at the mouth. The dog was kept running about the feet of the attendants.

1276.—Said to be almost breathing very hurriedly from the mouth, and to be in a state of delirium.

1277.—Another dose of the drug administered.

1278.—Is evidently very uneasy; cold water poured on the head gave relief, strong hand on the ear, but could not stand.

1279.—Struggles violently, is paralyzed in the hind quarters, and has some convulsions of the eyelids and other muscles. He falls flat on his back, and where he lies, and has the appearance of extreme intoxication.

Cold water constantly poured on the head, and efforts made to rise, but only trying to make him walk. The breathing is much disturbed, and pulling of the cheeks, like that of an asphyxiated person. He jerks his head and is quite unable to get on his feet, or to walk.

1280.—Another dose of the drug administered, and more cold water poured on the head; no efforts made to rise these 2 1/2 hours.

1281.—Made an effort to rise; succeeded in staggering away a few paces.

1282.—Said to be able to walk a little, but staggers.

1283.—More staggering; again lies down. The same pulling of the cheeks, and dragging of the feet. Evacuations at first normal, becoming green, and consisting of bloody mucus. I should notice that he has made several efforts to vomit, but the drug does not appear to have been ejected.

1284.—Pulling of the cheeks, nothing at the mouth, and deep breathing continues. The dog appears conscious, though insensible.

1285.—Breathing weaker; lies on the floor paralyzed. The pulling and dragging of the feet and cheeks continue.

1286.—Made in the same condition; has just vomited a quantity of thick mucus, and has passed a quantity of sanguinolent mucus.

Rose and I again staggered a few paces. Is able to raise his head, when he does when water is poured on it.

For the rest of the report I am indebted to Mr. Seewah, who was present after I was obliged to leave.

At 2 o'clock the spasmodic movements of the body ceased for a few minutes, and the dog raised himself on his fore-legs. He was then removed to a new place, and, raising his body, gentle exercise was given by dragging him alternately by the shoulders and legs, rubbing and moving his legs. He seemed to improve again somewhat. He was punished, and cold water was dashed on his head, whilst he was again exercised as before; on leaving his body unassisted, he sunk upon his haunches, but immediately after raised himself with an assistant, and attempted to walk. The convulsive movements again returned, with hurried respiration, and he remained in that state until he died at 4 1/2 p.m.

Bitten at 12:50, died at 4:10 p.m.; very nearly three hours.

The amount of this snake's poison is evidently somewhat dif-

ferent to that of the Cobra. The dog was a very healthy and powerful animal, and the snake was not fresh, but still death occurred within three hours. In this case, the bitten limb was paralysed, as in the case of the dog bitten by the Cobra. The first shock to the nervous system was not so severe in this case as in that of the other dog bitten by the Daboia. This may have been due to the fact that in the former case the dog was smaller, and the snake was fresh. I do not at present offer any opinion on the so-called antidote, further than that, in this particular case, I believe it was altogether inert.

The effect of the poison in causing profuse mucous discharge from the stomach and blood and mucus from the bowels is worthy of notice. I examined the blood after death, and found the corpuscles shrivelled and collapsed, but not otherwise changed.

EXPERIMENT No. 10.

20th July, 1868.—A young, but very active and vigorous pig was bitten at 12-27, very slightly in the right thigh, by a fresh Cobra, but it was doubtful, at the time, whether the fangs had penetrated. The pig made his escape, and was caught and brought back in a few minutes apparently unaffected.

At 12-33, he was bitten again by a small, but vigorous Cobra of the spotted variety, called by the natives "Gomuna" or "Goknrah." This time the animal was really bitten in two places in the thigh.

12-36.—Struggled violently, and lay down; then got up and struggled violently to get loose from the cord by which he was secured.

12-38.—Lies down and rises again; hurried breathing; is very restless; tries to run about; begins to stagger and falls; at 12-40 is unable to rise.

12-42.—Is convulsed.

12-43.—Lies paralysed, breathing deeply; muscular twitchings.

12-45.—Dead.

The pig was bitten at 12-33, and died at 12-48, that is, in thirteen minutes. This disposes of the question of the immunity of pigs from the poisonous effects of the venom of the Cobra.

EXPERIMENT No. 11.

A small *Tropidonotus Quincunciatus* (grass snake) was bitten by the spectacled Cobra that killed the pig, at 1-12 p. m.

1-16.—Very sluggish.

1-20.—Tosses its head about in a convulsive manner.

1-25.—Dead; died in 13 minutes.

EXPERIMENT No. 12.

Two innocuous snakes, *Dendrophis Pietus*, (tree snakes,) one about 3-4 inches long, the other rather smaller, both long delicate reptiles, bitten at 1-7 p. m. and 1-8 p. m. by the same Cobra that bit the *Tropidonotus*.

1-12.—Sluggish.

1-15.—The small snake dead.

1-16.—The larger one dead. They simply seemed to become sluggish and powerless; there were no convulsions, no writhings, or contortions. They became powerless and died.

After they appeared quite dead, for a moment or two, the tail of each moved slightly.

Large snake bitten at 1-7, died at 1-16.

Small snake bitten at 1-8, died at 1-15.

In one case death occurred in 9 minutes; in the other in 7 minutes.

The Cobra must have been much exhausted, for it had bitten several times before biting these snakes.

EXPERIMENT No. 13.

At 1-15 p. m., a Dhamin (*Ptyas Mucosus*) was bitten in three places by the same spectacled Cobra that bit several other animals.

1-30 p. m.—No apparent effect; the snake is as active as ever.

1-32 p. m.—Bitten again by the same Cobra in the mouth and body.

1-38.—No effect.

1-43.—No effect. Bitten again in the mouth and body by a Cobra that has been in one of the cages, and has not bitten for some time.

2-10 p. m.—Is sluggish; when handled, does not try to get away, nor attempt to strike. It became more and more sluggish, and died at 8 p. m. The snake seemed, to me, gradually to become weaker and weaker. No convulsions or contortion of the body before death.

This experiment and the two preceding it prove that the non-venomous snakes are affected by the Cobra poison.

The Dhamin, bitten on the 11th June by a Cobra, did not die, and is alive on the 21st July.

Dr. Fayrer, and Mr. Seeva of the Indian Museum were present at these experiments.

Reaction acid; poison slightly viscid and opalescent.



APPEARANCE OF COBRA POISON UNDER MICROSCOPE.*

Nuclei, 1/100 inch; eye-piece No. 3. Lamplight. 10th June, 1868.

* This sketch is one of the two which should have appeared in the last number. The other sketch has been incorrectly engraved, and will not now appear at all. As a corresponding illustration appears, however, in this number, the mistake is of no consequence.—ED., I. M. G.

ON CHOLERA.—No. III.

By F. C. M. SERRA.

Surgeon to the Civil Hospital, Malabar.

When we review the great epidemics of cholera, the disease was generally considered as originating in the Peninsula of India. It being generally admitted in the works of authors of eminence, that the first epidemic of cholera which is recorded to have occurred in the district of the Malabar Command is contained in the Report of Dr. MacRae, from personal observation, in the progress of the epidemic in this district. Nevertheless, in 1850, the mortality from cholera was higher than it has probably been for many years, when F. B. Barthelemy, in his travels in the Malabar district, from Cochin to Calicut, has observed many instances of cholera occurring in the interior of that district, and he has ascribed the origin of the epidemic to a community not generally supposed to have been afflicted with a more definite epidemic.

In the old times of Goa, cholera, as usually springing up with the monsoon, in March and April 1845, first appeared at Anjilipattam, on the 1st day of May, and there it was generated and spread to the Malabar Coast of N. E. in early August, but it did not reach within part of the district, a distance of 100 miles, until the 5th of October. Mr. Serravallo remarks that its progress southward from Goa to N. Malabar, and at the south-western extremity, was much slower than in the latter district. It is remarkable, however, in view of the coast, after the wind blew in from the N. E.

On the 10th of October cases of cholera were met with in the town of Malacca, the disease appearing to be extremely more prevalent in all those stations who to considerable humidity exist here, in the low part of Malacca, and where the inhabitants, instead of clothing and clothing, wear, especially much exposed to the influence of the weather. This may probably account for the greater sickness and mortality at some stations, than at others, and when, therefore, of the alterations of temperature, the lightness of action, and purity of the air, and, I apprehend, he would be as the principal sources from which the disease, in the city of the primary and essential cause of the epidemic, originates in the insupportability of the human body, in a "suffocant atmosphere," cholera was noted during the epidemics of Negros about the 1st of November, at Malacca on the 10th of the month.

I have already noticed the occurrence of cholera appearing on the 1st of November east at S. Malabar, and throughout the Command of the latter end of August, and at its highest point in the district of Malabar, and at the same time Cochin, Quilon, and Anjilipattam, and at the same time at Tellicherry in N. Malabar. The epidemic of F. B. Barthelemy, which would have led to the epidemic of the Malabar district, and along the western coast of the Peninsula, probably being, as he had concluded, that it originated at Malabar, east of the latter part of the year.

Following this epidemic, an outbreak of the history of the epidemic of the 1st of November, and that it must not be considered as a general epidemic, but as a local epidemic, controlled in its progress, and that it was not a general epidemic simply because it was not a general epidemic, and the general bearings of cholera, and I am inclined to believe, that the cholera epidemic of the Malabar district, which we have abundant evidence to show occurred, to proceed from Malabar, August 1857.

in 1857, and 1858, almost the entire people of this district, and the epidemic were subjected to the influence of cholera. It even, nevertheless, remains that certain districts, as, for instance, Malabar and Malacca, were exempt from its ravages; the small number of some cities, as, for example, those of Mersing, Malacca, and Malacca, as the prisoners in the Anjilipattam, escaped cholera, being free from the epidemic, which was being mangled. But these exceptions hardly invalidate the rule, that within a period of six or eight months, cholera was generated throughout the length and breadth of Hindustan.

Before proceeding with the history of the disease from 1820 to 1850, it is advisable to examine any records of interest we may possess, bearing upon the circumstances of cholera, as it affected the crews of British vessels, either at sea or in port, prior to 1850. One of the first cases in point is to be found in the diary of "S. S. Serravallo." He observes that the troops under the command of S. J. Burgoyne, three days after landing in Malacca, in October 1820, in perfect health, were attacked with cholera. Mr. Curtis, in medical charge of H. M. Frigate the "S. S. Serravallo," states that after the naval engagement between the British and French fleets south of Trincomalee, on the 12th April, 1822, his vessel was sent on service into the Bay of Bencoolen, but joined the fleet at Trincomalee on the 14th of May. He found the crews of the "Hera" and "Serpent" suffering from cholera, but his own men, although employed on shore, remained free from the disease until the 21st of June, when two of them died from cholera; on the following day three more cases occurred; they all proved fatal. The vessel sailed for Negapatam on the 26th, after which date the disease entirely disappeared. Dr. Corlyne describes a very remarkable outbreak of cholera on board the ship "Mangles." The vessel had experienced very bad weather in the Bay of Biscay, and at Malacca Islands. He says, the lascars were fed merely on rice and salt-herbs, with only half a pint of water per diem, and the sanitary arrangement of that part of the ship in which they lived was factually bad. During the month of January 1824, the disease in question commenced, being sudden in its attacks, and more so in its fatal termination; there were no promontory symptoms. It at once began in all its terror and violence, and terminated in from 12 to 30 hours. The first Malay men were the first to suffer, and generally fell victims to the disease. It commenced with a swelling and hardness about the epigastric region, with a sense of obstructive pressure of the thorax, violent vomiting; the evacuations from the intestinal canal were equally disordered, as exhibited by continual watery stools, coldness of the extremities, with a sense of numbness and cramp in some cases. The feet oedematous; pulse low, and sometimes hardly perceptible; the skin dry and cold, with a sense of burning heat in the bowels and stomach; the countenance soon became melancholy, sad, and full, but the most predominant and distressing symptom was general spasm; the extreme spasmodic rigidity of the abdominal muscles, and then of the neck and face, produced the most painful contortion of the mouth, a man seemed to cover the vision, and exhausted man soon sank under such accumulated and dreadful suffering. During the short period of six weeks, sixty-five bodies were thrown overboard, and five men died ten minutes subsequent to each other, just as we had cast anchor in Table Bay. The vessel was cleaned and purified while at the Cape, and no more cases occurred. Dr. Corlyne had only one opportunity of making a post-mortem examination. He says,— "I found the stomach distended with air, as well as the intestines."

* Extracts on the Epidemic and Spasmodic Cholera in India, by J. Gairdner, Esq., London, 1852.

† An Account of the Epidemic of India, by C. Curtis, Edinburgh, 1857.

‡ Treatise on the Late Epidemic as it appears in the central division of the great Army in the month of November, 1817, by F. C. Serravallo, 1857.

1. Medical Gazette, Vol. 1, p. 10, 1850.
2. Medical Gazette, Vol. 1, p. 10, 1850.
3. Medical Gazette, Vol. 1, p. 10, 1850.
4. Medical Gazette, Vol. 1, p. 10, 1850.
5. Medical Gazette, Vol. 1, p. 10, 1850.

tines, but could discover no obstruction, or even feces; the coronary arteries of the stomach were considerably distended with congested blood. The stomach, lateral convolutions of the ilium, and the liver had suffered inflammation.* The patient having been taken ill at 6 p.m., died within 36 hours.

Mr. Scott, in 1824, observes that this outbreak of disease on board the "Mangles" could not have been cholera, the oedema and swelling of the feet being symptoms unknown in this affection; but in 1852, Dr. Corbyne, who in the meantime had risen to considerable eminence in the Bengal Medical Service, again asserts—"I was myself an eye-witness to the destructive operation of this disease (cholera) on board the ship "Mangles" in 1814, on which I embarked for India. We had been at sea about two months when it burst forth with awful violence."†

Surgeon J. Boyle, of H. M. Ship "Malabar," gives us the following history of cholera as it occurred on board a twenty-six-gun ship, while she lay in the harbour of Bombay:—"Six of her officers went on shore for a spree; they remained there a day or two, and had no sooner returned to the ship than three of them were seized with cholera; they all three died.‡ A few days afterwards a part of the crew were allowed to land; no less than forty of them were attacked with cholera, and five died. Mr. Boyle goes on to say that in April, 1819, although cholera was in the town of Bombay, the crew of the "Malabar" were healthy. The ship sailed for England, and on the second night after her departure, cholera made its appearance among the sailors, and continued its ravages for five days; in fact, until the vessel reached Cochín; during this time some 40 or 50 men were attacked, and 11 of them died.

Mr. Boyle relates another interesting case, that of H. M. Ship "Minden." "On the 5th of November, 1819, as she was on her passage to Bombay, between that place and Cochín, in precisely the same track as the former ships, she was visited with cholera, which continued with unrelenting violence till the 12th of the month. A few cases occurred after this period, but, generally speaking, they were of a mild and tractable nature; altogether there were 56 cases on board the "Minden," and of that number 10 died. For some months previous to this the crew had been comparatively healthy; and from the circumstance of having been for some time at sea, had no evident opportunity of predisposing themselves by debauch; but on interrogating those affected with the complaint, it was generally observed that their bowels had been previously in a deranged state."§ The value of this history would have been greatly enhanced, had we been absolutely certain that no communication had taken place between the crew and the shore prior to the outbreak of cholera.

Cholera occurred among the shipping at Diamond Harbour in 1812, in its usual irregular manner; in fact, the only vessel that entirely escaped was the "General Hervey," the men not being allowed to go on shore, and otherwise carefully protected from the sun and damp.

In 1819, the shipping again suffered severely; the instance of the "Carnatic" is somewhat peculiar. This ship anchored in Madras roads on the 5th of August, clean and with a healthy crew. She sailed for Calcutta on the 29th, but in the meantime six men had been seized with cholera, but they all recovered; seven days afterwards one of the crew was re-seized with the disease, and died on the 2nd, and within the three following days, six of the crew were attacked with cholera, and five of

them died; subsequently there were six other cases, but they all recovered. The weather was extremely bad, and the ship close to land, being only 15 miles from the shore at Ganjam. "The disease had no appearance of contagion. It occurred only among the seamen, although between their condition and that of the soldiers on board, there was only this difference, that they slept on the gun and the soldiers on the orlop deck. Some were seized who had no communication with the sick; while others escaped who constantly sat on their hammocks."

It is not known what has been the earliest period, after reaching an anchorage, at which cholera has appeared on board-ship, but in the instance of the 41st Regiment, men were attacked on the very morning of their landing, which was the second day after their arrival in the Madras roads.†

Before leaving this part of our subject, we have still to consider a very important case which occurred during the period under review; I allude to the outbreak of the epidemic in the Mauritius in the year 1819. The circumstances of the case are briefly as follows, taken from the journal of the Surgeon in charge of the vessel:—"H. M. Ship "Topaze" sailed from Trincomalee on the 9th of October, 1819, having fifty-seven men on the sick list; and immediately after leaving, cholera broke out and attacked seventeen men, four of whom died.

"On the arrival of the ship at the Mauritius, on the 29th of October, thirty-six men were taken on shore and accommodated in the Military Hospital, Port Louis; six of these died, four from the sequelæ of cholera, with which disease they had been seized on board. Three weeks after the arrival of the ship at Port Louis, the cholera made its appearance among the inhabitants, and continued to enrage off from fifty to sixty persons daily, chiefly slaves. It appeared immediately afterwards in other quarters of the island with equal fury."‡ Not a single case of cholera occurred on board the "Topaze" after her arrival in the Mauritius, although all the merchant vessels in the harbour were losing men by this disease.

Such is the unvarnished tale of the "Topaze," upon the consideration of which Sir Gilbert Blane lays down the law absolutely in favour of contagion, and with reference to this case exclaims:—"can there be a doubt in the mind of any rational being that this disease, never before known in the Mauritius, was imported by this vessel?" There can be no doubt that this opinion of one of the most influential Physicians of the day, not only led the English Government, but the majority of medical men, to espouse the doctrine thus confidently promulgated. Sir G. Blane carries the history of the "Topaze" a step farther than the Surgeon of the vessel has done; he informs us that the Governor of Bourbon, took measures, by proclamation, to bar all intercourse with the Isle of France; but in spite of this, a boat from the shore of Bourbon had clandestinely communicated with a small vessel from the Isle of France—probably about the 8th or 9th of January, for they left Port Louis on the 6th; after the usual interval, the disease showed itself on Bourbon, so as to leave no doubt of an infection traceable to the boat.§

But let us hear the other side of the question, and turn to the Report of the Commissioners assembled by Major-General Darling, commanding the Island of Mauritius, at Government House, on the 23rd of November, 1819. The English and French members assert that they are "unanimous in not supposing it (the disease) contagious, or of foreign introduction. From this disease prevailing classes who have nothing in common but the

* Journal of Report, p. 321.

† See also Do., p. XLIV.

‡ *The Medical Gazette*, Vol. IX, p. 226.

§ Nicholson's Epidemic Cholera, by R. H. Kennedy, London, 1819. See also Edinb. p. 226.

* The Russian Medical Officer, Oronchikoff, in 1824, makes, at precisely the same remarks, a notice of the appearance of the disease; they describe the mild and fatal cases of 1819 after death.—Die Asiatische Cholera in Russland, Berlin, 1824.

† A Treatise on Epidemic Cholera, by F. Corbyne, Calcutta, 1821, p. 15.

‡ A Treatise on the Epidemic Cholera of India, by J. Boyle, London, 1821, p. 31.

§ A Treatise on Cholera, by J. Wilson, London, 1821, p. 23.

|| Journal of Report, p. 11.

as they breathe, it can be traced that the cause may exist in the atmosphere."

"The first well-marked case of the present disease occurred on the 6th of September last, and was reported by Mr. Trevelyan, Port Louis," (the capital of the island) "in the island weekly paper of the 11th of the same month, in the cases which were presented there, who were between 18 and 25 years of age, and which appeared to break out successively and in quarters of the town. Two cases of the disease were reported to have occurred yesterday on the side of the Riviere au Rempart, and two more at M. Lamour's, blacks, who have not had communication with Port Louis for three years.

"A similar disease prevailed in this island in 1775, which continued probably two months, and caused a great mortality, particularly among the blacks and people of colour."* "Regarding this circumstance, Mr. S. then remarks: "while we have shown in the preceding pages the Indian continent suffered under cholera in 1775, the disease did then extend to the Mauritius;—so far, therefore, from cholera never having been heard of in the Mauritius, we have evidence of an outbreak there in 1775, under very similar circumstances to that which occurred in 1817; and further a mixed commission of gentlemen residing in the spot, and at the very onset of the epidemic, mentions the occurrence of the disease in the island before the arrival of the 'Egypse.'"

But to return to India: though out the early months of the year 1820, cholera was still very prevalent among the inhabitants of Calcutta, especially during April; at the same time epidemic cholera broke out among the troops composing the Nerbudda field force. Special orders passed in upon the Board of Medicine and Native Doctors, copied on account of the reappearance of cholera in various localities during the month of May;—as, for instance, from Moradabad, Almorah, Mirat, Tippurah, Jessore, and Berhampore. From Malhas we have similar evidence of repeated cholera, more or less severe, yet to which Presidency, and here and there it was generated with great violence.† At the close of the year 1820, we hear of the disease at Allow,‡ a station north of the Vindhya Mountains, and well to the west of India.

The history of the cholera of 1821 points distinctly to the fact of its becoming more localised in its influence in India than it had been at any period subsequent to 1817; we hear of it being generally with considerable activity throughout its extensive area in Lower Bengal, Gujarat, Bombay, and, from time to time, at almost every station throughout the Madras Presidency, but the cases were by no means so numerous or severe as in 1820. The Nerbudda field force, however, again suffered severely from cholera, the disease evidently still retaining much of its former energy in the western part of the peninsula, but not only do we hear of it at Allow and along the valley of the Nerbudda, but, as I have before remarked, at Baulah, where, from the 24th to the 28th of May, 235 deaths occurred from cholera, and as usual in this part of India, the disease increased in severity during August and September (1821).

It is important to keep this point in mind, as they bear a great resemblance to the present of the disease in Persia in the following year. In the meantime, cholera did not extend beyond the Indian Archipelago of Java, Ceylon, Amboin, and the

Burmese empire being under its influence in 1819. During the following year the country of Siam was also very devastated by cholera; it appeared about the same time in Malacca and Singapore. It broke out with great violence in the Philippine Islands, principally at Manila.*

We learn of it throughout the years 1820 and 1821 in China, Batavia, and Java, but it is impossible to trace the epidemic over this vast area, the information I have on the subject being generally derived from the "Calcutta Journal" and other local papers of the period; in these frequent references are made to the fearful ravages cholera committed in these parts, but, on a scientific point of view, they are often silent as to the most important circumstances of the epidemic.

(To be continued.)

NOTES ON CINCHONA CULTIVATION IN BRITISH SIKKIM (NEAR DARJEELING)

By JOHN EWARD, M.D.,

Professor of Pathology, Medical College, Calcutta.

Among the many substantial and enduring benefits conferred upon India by British rule, the introduction of the "quinino-yielding" cinchona will not be considered by posterity the least important. Already the enterprise has passed beyond the boundary line of an experiment, and reached the goal of success. A few short years more, and it will take its stand as an indispensable monument of the benevolence, liberality, and foresight of Government. To have succeeded in making a country contribute to the general and commercial prosperity of the empire by the development of one of its natural, agricultural, and railway systems, steam navigation, tea-cultivation, &c., &c., the great object of equity before the law, security to life and property—to have endeavoured to adapt the present knowledge of the day in concerning the health and morals of the people by carrying into execution the great principles of State Medicine, and the prophylaxis of contagious diseases by legislative enactment, are objects of grand importance, and well worthy of the constant attention of every Government. But the introduction of the cinchona is unsatisfactory to us in India, who are yearning to add another generation to the dominion, which is governing fully the ascending Empire, and only to add to the political and moral confidence felt by the British Government in the progress and efficacy of medicine. With regard to the subject, I have to say that it is not only possible, but will have the honour of the translation of this article into Chinese with American and European editions. It is a matter of course, therefore, we have so far only experimentally ascertained, and proposed with a determination of a view to subsequent gradual introduction, unless, not for the purpose of a general improvement of the ordinary commercial products of the Indian territories, but to stimulate and the exchange of ideas by a practical acquaintance of steam and electricity, but for the practical and available, and for the much larger and more of the medicinal value of the cinchona in the countries, and that the cinchona is a result of medicinal, as not to eventually quadruplicate and triple it within the reach of the masses of the population. Whether it is remembered that the direct and indirect effects of the cinchona on the natives of the mountainous districts are not to be overlooked, and that the cinchona is a natural product of the mountainous districts of the Himalayas, Malacca, which

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† "A similar disease prevailed in this island in 1775, which continued probably two months, and caused a great mortality, particularly among the blacks and people of colour."

‡ "Regarding this circumstance, Mr. S. then remarks: "while we have shown in the preceding pages the Indian continent suffered under cholera in 1775, the disease did then extend to the Mauritius;—so far, therefore, from cholera never having been heard of in the Mauritius, we have evidence of an outbreak there in 1775, under very similar circumstances to that which occurred in 1817; and further a mixed commission of gentlemen residing in the spot, and at the very onset of the epidemic, mentions the occurrence of the disease in the island before the arrival of the 'Egypse.'"

"The first well-marked case of the present disease occurred on the 6th of September last, and was reported by Mr. Trevelyan, Port Louis," (the capital of the island) "in the island weekly paper of the 11th of the same month, in the cases which were presented there, who were between 18 and 25 years of age, and which appeared to break out successively and in quarters of the town. Two cases of the disease were reported to have occurred yesterday on the side of the Riviere au Rempart, and two more at M. Lamour's, blacks, who have not had communication with Port Louis for three years.

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there are 400 *succubas* varying from 8 to 16 feet in height. Many are possessed of sufficient expanse of foliage to shield one from the rays of the sun. Around this are 600 *succubas*, which were planted in May 1866, and these reach from five to seven feet in height. Here I saw a robust tree from which a strip of three feet of bark, and comprising a breadth of half the circumference of the stem, had been peeled off in October last. The 1st bark had been perfectly restored under mossing-Cow manure, as applied by the natives in some parts of India for a similar purpose, will, Dr. Anderson thinks, do equally as well as moss. Straw has already been employed by Dr. Anderson, and he considers this preferable to mossing, on account of its greater durability. The renewed bark is called *casavillus revivens*, and is of high commercial value on account of its great richness in the cinchona alkaloids. It is this process which renders barking apparently innocuous to the future growth of the cinchonas.

The *cinchona calisaya*, one of the most valuable of all the cinchonas, has also found a home on the Runbee plantation. The first plants were put in the ground on 20th June, 1867. When planted they were about six inches in height. At the end of May, they measured from 4½ to 20½ inches. There are also about 50 of the *cinchona calisaya* species at Rishap, and these promise to exceed even the extraordinary growth of the *succubas* on this plantation. There are also 88 specimens progressing admirably at the Rayen plantation. Dr. Anderson possesses 4,658 stock plants of the *cinchona calisaya*. These yield, on an average, 2,500 cuttings *per manent*. There are 15,000 robust plants in the nurseries, and plants I out. I am particular in detailing these important facts, because I believe I am correct in stating, that nowhere in India has the *cinchona calisaya* found such a congenial home as in British Sikkim. According to Mr. Markham, (*Cite* page 217, *Cinchona* Ilne Book of 1866,) *cinchona calisaya*, the most famous of all the American bark trees, and which in its native forests is alike the most beautiful and the richest in quinine, has not been a success in India. I was grieved to see the plants of this species only 5 feet 10 inches high, and 6½ inches in girth, at an age of three years; while their stunted and shrubby appearance with dim coloured leaves is as different as possible from that of the glorious *calisaya* of the Caravayan forest. This lamentation may, doubtless, have been justified from an inspection of the *calisayas* on the Neilgherries, when visited by Mr. Markham. I can testify, from careful pots and observation, that the cultivation of the most famous of all the *cinchona* barks—*cinchona calisaya*—has been a perfect success under the management of Dr. Anderson, both at the Runbee, Rishap, and Rayen plantations. The rapidity with which the plants laid hold of the soil, and of their subsequent growth, coupled with the extreme cleanness of the bark of the stems and twigs, and the luxuriant rich green colour of the leaves, I saw plainly that Dr. Anderson has succeeded in discovering a home for this species, in no way differing, as to result, from "that of the glorious *calisaya* of the Caravayan forest." I earnestly trust that a similar display of judgment and scientific knowledge will yet succeed in finding an equally agreeable locality for the *calisaya*—the Queen of the *revivens*—on the spurs of the Neilgherries.

2nd.—Crossings with the Runbe, the Rishap plantation is entered, about 80 acres of this more than a year-old, is one of the finest sights anywhere to be seen. The plants average from three to five feet high, and there is not a single vacancy.

3rd.—Six miles farther on is the Rayen plantation, also containing chiefly *succubas*, about a year old, and in a most flourishing condition.

The extent of open air cultivation cannot be better demonstrated than by the figures submitted below.—

| | No. of Plants, |
|--------------------------------|----------------|
| <i>Cinchona Succubra</i> ... | 3,19,073 |
| <i>Cinchona Officinalis</i> .. | 1,91,439 |
| <i>Cinchona Mierantha</i> ... | 3,558 |
| <i>Cinchona Calisaya</i> .. | 220 |

(To be continued.)

INDIAN EXPERIENCE OF LITHOTRITY.

BY SURGEON J. B. SCRIVEN,

Principal, Lahore Medical School.

THE old lateral operation of lithotomy is so time-hallowed a proceeding, that new means of removing stone from the bladder have always met with more or less opposition from the profession. The central operation, however, for small stones, the suprapubic for very large ones, and Dr. Murray's modification of the lateral operation, have found application to a considerable number of cases.

In children, the cutting operations are attended with so little mortality, that scarcely any other proceeding is required. All, however, who have had much to do for the relief of stone, must be aware, from their own experience, of the fact that, whatever be its reasons, the mortality after lithotomy is principally among patients above the age of puberty, and that it is still higher above forty.

Furthermore, they cannot fail to have noticed a direct relation, modified by circumstances, between the mortality and the size of the stone; and, as very large stones are not commonly met with in childhood, and are most frequent in the old, the influence of age and great size of the stone often combine to render a cutting operation dangerous. Lithotomy has now been practised for many years by isolated Surgeons, and has succeeded well in the hands of a few, but has not met with general favour, even in England, still less in this country; the reasons of which, I doubt not, are the following:—

First.—That the operation, in most cases, requires to be repeated, instead of being completed at one sitting; so that cutting is very often the more rapid mode of cure; and it has very generally been believed that the accumulated dangers of all the operations necessary for crushing a stone are greater than those of the single operation of lithotomy. See a paper by Mr. Holmes Coote on Lithotomy and Lithotomy in Bariat's Retrospect, Vol. II, page 229.

Second.—That very few surgeons have good instruments.

Third.—That sufficient care has seldom been observed in the selection of cases, and in the manipulations.

Fourth.—That a very general idea has been prevalent, as formerly also existed with reference to lithotomy, that the operation cannot be performed without a considerable quantity of water in the bladder, which is impossible in a very large proportion of stone cases.

Fifth.—Because lithotomy is considered by many to be applicable only to small stones, which are the very cases that are least dangerous for the cutting operation:—

Sixth.—As regards this country, because there exists a prejudice in the minds of some Surgeons, that lithotomy is less applicable to natives of India than to Europeans. This is insisted on strongly both by Dr. Greenhow and Dr. Cutcliffe, who have drawn as a cause of the neglect of lithotomy in India, so far as to the want of instruments, that the protraction of the treatment would be very distasteful to the natives. Many of these points have been fully argued by Sir Henry Thompson in the pages of the *Lancet*, as well as in his book on Practical Lithotomy and Lithotomy, that it might seem superfluous for me to touch upon them, were it not that my experience may be useful to those whose practice, like my own, is amongst Asiatics.

stones of considerable size to deal with, but, as these instruments were not graduated, I had no very ready means of recording their sizes accurately. In the year 1867, the stones that I crushed were not of very large size. I had then just begun to work with Sir H. Thompson's instruments, and, being anxious to avoid failure at the commencement, I adopted the crushing operation only in those cases in which success seemed tolerably certain. This year, having acquired some experience from the five cases treated in 1867, and having attained a certain amount of dexterity in the manipulation, I determined to try the operation upon something larger, as soon as a suitable case should present itself. Sir H. Thompson says in the *Lancet* of October 26th, 1867, p. 512:—"Supposing that a uric acid stone of about 1½ inch in the long diameter is met with, and all the conditions are tolerably favourable, there is no doubt that lithotripsy may be performed with a good chance of success." He allows that a stone of two inches may be crushed, but, as a rule, he thinks lithotomy the safer operation of the two. Again, he says in the *Lancet* of April 25th, 1868, p. 522:—"A stone which is two inches in diameter, either phosphatic or uric acid, had perhaps better be cut. No doubt, a rather large phosphatic stone may be crushed."

The three following cases are interesting, inasmuch as it will appear that the first was a phosphatic stone of 2½ inches in its long diameter, and the second and third were uric acid stones of two inches in their long diameters. Of the accuracy of the measurements, as I am about to give them in the detail of the cases, there can be no doubt, for the Lithotrites are graduated up to an inch and a half, divided into eighths. For measurements beyond an inch and a half, I was, of course, guided by my eyes only, which was not difficult, as I had the graduated part for comparison. Here I may remark that the graduation of the instrument up to an inch and a half obviously implies that it is not likely that an attempt would be made to crush a stone beyond this diameter. The measurements were taken down, each time, by my clinical assistants, at the bedside, from my dictation, each time the stone was caught; and, as an evidence of correctness, or for verification of the facts, I give references to my case books in the hospital, where the notes will be found.

CASE I.

Jaja, (Hospital Register No. 3, p. 519.) a Mahomedan male, aged 30, stone phosphatic. The stone was first caught on January 11th, 1868, with the flat bladed Lithotrite. The first diameter noted was 2 inch. In this it was crushed, and found soft. Another piece was instantly caught, 1½ inch in diameter, and a third piece, also 1½ inch. That was all for this sitting. It will be observed that the first diameter was smaller than the two others. The explanation of this, I think, is, that the stone was first caught in its small diameter, then broken into two, and that the two pieces of the same size, afterwards caught, were the two halves in their long diameter, the sum of which is 2½ inches. This man was operated upon six times, at intervals varying from five to ten days. The last operation was on the 14th of February. He was detained in hospital until March 4th, in consequence of an attack of orchitis, and some remaining catarrhal inflammation of the bladder. At the time of his discharge, the bladder remained slightly irritable, but he was very carefully examined several times, and no remaining fragment of stone could be detected. Moreover, he could run, jump, and perform any active exercise without the least inconvenience. He showed himself again at the hospital on the 11th, and reported himself well.

CASE II.

Narba, aged 35, a Mahomedan male, (Hospital Register No. 11, page 17.) This man's stone was a uric acid, ascertained by the acid condition of the urine, and a deposit of uric acid crystals. The first crushing was on March 1st, by means of the fenestrated Lithotrite. The first diameter, in

which the stone was caught, was two inches, probably the longest, as it had been measured on a previous occasion, and found to be of smaller size than this. It was considered desirable to catch it in a shorter diameter for the crushing. It was therefore seized a second time, and one inch and a half was the diameter noted. It was crushed four times at this sitting. This man was operated upon 17 times, the last operation being on May 22nd. He was discharged on May 31st. So great was the hardness of this man's stone, that one of Weiss's best instruments was slightly bent in crushing it. At the time of his discharge, no remaining stone could be detected, nor was there any irritability of the bladder. He could run, jump, and perform any active exercise without inconvenience. With the exception of slight attacks of fever, this man had no untoward symptoms during the whole time of the treatment.

CASE III.

Malawa, aged 35, (Hospital Register No. 11, page 86.) A Hindu male. The stone was uric acid, ascertained, as in the last case, by the acid reaction of the urine, and a deposit of uric acid crystals. The first crushing was on March 21st, 1868, by means of the fenestrated instrument. The stone was caught, and diameter of two inches noted on the instrument. It was released from the grasp of the Lithotrite in the hope of catching it in a smaller diameter. The next diameter, however, was only slightly smaller, 1½ inch. In this it was crushed, and two more pieces were also crushed at this sitting, each 2 inch. This man was operated upon 15 times, the last operation being on May 29th. He was kept in hospital until June 6th, in order to be sure that no stone remained, but, during this period, after the most careful examination, none was found. On his discharge, he had still very slight pain in making water, but only did so about four times a day. He had no inconvenience, whatever, in walking about, but was not quite strong enough for the test of running or jumping. From the hardness of this man's calculus, it was found necessary to use the fenestrated Lithotrite six times out of the 15 operations.

Here, then, we have three cases, in succession, of which the calculi certainly come within the category of large stones, successfully treated by the crushing operation. I think it may be found, by any Surgeon in this country, who has a large practice in lithotomy, that a great proportion of the stones extracted from adults exceed, in their long diameter, an inch and a half; but that those exceeding two inches are exceptional. Hence it follows that, to make lithotripsy extensively useful, it should be made applicable to stones of about two inches, as well as to smaller ones. There is a great tendency amongst the natives of India to neglect the early symptoms, and to try all kinds of empirical remedies for years, until the disease becomes incurable, when, at last, they present themselves at the hospital. I imagine many years will elapse before the benefit of crushing a stone in its early stage is generally appreciated.

I am perfectly aware that no very important deductions can be drawn from these cases, but still they are sufficient to show that lithotripsy is sometimes applicable to large stones, and to encourage the hope that the dangers of a cutting operation, as a crushing becomes more generally understood, be avoided in the vast majority of cases.

This brings me to the sixth and last objection, *Lithotripsy not applicable to the natives of India, or to Europeans, the prostration of the patient distasteful to them.* To the first part of this objection, "Lithotripsy less applicable," &c., &c., a positive answer can yet be given, although it is obvious, from the foregoing facts, that lithotripsy is useful in many instances. Should further experience prove that lithotripsy habitually succeeds in this country in cases such as those just related, this would show a somewhat greater tolerance of the manipulation amongst natives of India than amongst Europeans. As

POISON IN MILK.

BY CHARLES R. FRANCIS, M.B.

Is the *Indian Medical Gazette* of the 1st June last, I raised the question whether, although the poison of serpents might be swallowed into the stomach with impunity,—the milk of an animal that had been bitten would be equally innocuous? I adduced the evidence of two intelligent, trustworthy natives of Calcutta, which appeared to show that *such milk could not be swallowed with impunity.* An instance in support of the truth of this view has recently occurred in the family of a European gentleman residing at a station in Eastern Bengal. The facts, which have been kindly placed at my disposal by my friend Dr. Fayer, are as follows:—

Early in the present month (July), at 7 A. M. a fine "up-country" goat, belonging to the family, was milked by the gentleman's wife. It had been observed that the udder and teats of the goat were unusually distended, and that the servant who attempted to draw the milk did not do it well. The lady, therefore, drew it herself. The milk from one teat flowed *freely* than that drawn from the other. This was attributed to the fact of the kid having, probably, been kept away too long from the mother. The general health of the goat appeared to be very good.

The whole of this milk was set aside for the family breakfast, being intended specially to be mixed with the *tea.* Boiled cow's milk was also set aside for the coffee. At 8-30 A. M. the family breakfasted. The party consisted of the gentleman, his wife, and two children, another gentleman—a friend aged 23—being added to it. At the commencement of breakfast, the lady gave the (best of the two) children—a boy three years old—a cupful of the *goat's* milk. At 9-15 A. M., or three-quarters of an hour afterwards, the child vomited, and brought up, apparently, the whole of his breakfast. Presently, he lay down, and in a few minutes his vomiting was very violent and continuous. In the first trials between the attacks, the poor little fellow lay very quiet, and, in another hour, his appearance had changed greatly,—dark rings having formed around the eyes, which were red up under the upper-lids, the complexion becoming very yellow, and the expression anxious. The vomiting was persistent through out the morning, and at 2 P. M. *dysentery* supervened, the evacuations being *very* thin and of a black colour. Both the vomiting and diarrhoea continued till 4 P. M., when they subsided. The former returned at night, and continued for 26 hours. The child was more or less ill for upwards of 96 hours altogether, when the symptoms subsided entirely, and he was vigorous for food.

The lady and the friend drank both coffee and tea, each the first partaking of the *goat's* milk. At 9-15 A. M., whilst she was attending upon her sick child, the former experienced a sensation of nausea, and, in a few minutes afterwards, vomited, felt very ill, and lay down. The vomiting appears to have continued, more or less, throughout the morning, and was followed, as in the case of the child, by diarrhoea of the same nature. The vomiting was very severe; so much so, that although she brought up a considerable quantity of purulent matter, there was no change in the countenance, as in that of the little boy, and at 4 P. M. (just when the child's symptoms subsided) the diarrhoea ceased; but the vomiting continued through the night. The lady recovered in 96 hours.

The friend went out on horseback immediately after breakfast, but returned at 10-15 A. M., saying that he felt very ill, and immediately afterwards vomited. The same train of symptoms appeared in this case, likewise,—continuous vomiting, and the supervention of diarrhoea at 2 P. M., continuing till 4 P. M. The friend recovered in 48 hours.

The *goat's* milk was drunk at a slightly coffee, and there were *no effects* on either the children or the milk itself.

The other child had *no* goat's milk, and *he* was unaffected.

When the friend returned from his ride complaining of ill health, thus making a child who had complained and suffered in the same way,—a suspicion naturally arose that there had been something wrong with the milk drawn from the goat. Prior to this, cholera had been suspected. The goat was then very examined; and the mark of a bite, like that from the poison fangs of a snake, was found on one of the teats close to its extremity. The udder was much inflamed. At this time, (about 10-30 A. M.) the animal seemed to be very ill, and rapidly became worse. At *noon* a frothy foam exuded from her mouth, and at 2 P. M. she died.

The goat had evidently been bitten by a poisonous serpent, and its milk poisoned all who partook of it. The entire history points to this fact. I am not aware that anything of the kind is on record; though, *now*, confirmed as the statement of my native friends has been by other independent witnesses, I have no doubt that similar instances *have occurred.* So pathologically important (as well as simply interesting) is the fact of milk into which the essence—as it were—of a serpent's venom has been, by a vital process, secreted, being capable of poisoning when swallowed into a healthy stomach, whilst the venom itself may be swallowed, freely, with impunity, that I trust more observers will give to the profession the benefit of their experience,—and that professional men (or others) will carry out the experiments which I suggested in the June number of the *Indian Medical Gazette.*

In the case which is here recorded, there is apparently no source of fallacy *whatsoever.* The goat was evidently poisoned by a venomous serpent, as the mark of the fangs was seen, and the animal died in a way that results from such a cause. Then, those only who drank the goat's milk suffered; and with all the symptoms, too, of snake poisoning. The poison of venomous serpents is allied to the acid vegetable, (which produces vomiting and purging, in their action. The more remarkable, that on the centre of the nervous system, which is seen after a bite from the venomous serpents of hot climates, the *colera* for example, was observed in the child, who was *unbitten* by *debralgic* lesions. Again, the individual who took the most milk was the principal sufferer. In the face of this sequence of events, it seems idle to talk of the possibility of the milk becoming deteriorated from "staling" at this season of the year, or of the possibility of there being abrasions in each of the stomachs of those who swallowed it. The fact must, I think, be admitted; and it remains, therefore, to elicit instruction from the lesson which it teaches.

(1) Milk is consumed in every house; and the animals from whom we derive it are often exposed to the bites of venomous serpents. When out at pasture, of course, it would be difficult to adopt any sufficiently efficacious measures for the purpose of keeping these reptiles at a distance, beyond grazing the kids or cows as much in open ground as possible. But it may be well to use *carbolic acid* in our *housholds*, in the immediate neighbourhood of the cattle stalls or sheds, sprinkling it about freely. Mr. Clark's and Dr. Fayer's experiments have satisfactorily proved the deadly effect which this agent has upon these reptiles. They shun either it or creosote, and will not go where these compounds exist.

(2) We have now before us further evidence of the fact that animal (human) milk may be a vehicle for the conveyance of the most virulent poison oftenest than we are aware of. Should we not then be more than ever, particular in selecting the *doctors* whom we employ to nurse our children? Those who sell impure milk, it may be, with the unobtrusive and unsuspected taint of *typhoid*, the milk which is intended to nourish may carry with it the germs of that hideous malady, to be developed in after years, a melancholy testimony to our want of foresight and care. As well, it may

the patient's eyes were closed, and the patient was allowed to rest in bed. The patient was given a diet of soft food, and the patient was given a course of treatment with the following medicines:

7. SORRELINUS AND SHOW OPHTHALMIA

I. R. S. S. S. S. S.

(S. S. S. S. S.)

The patient was given a diet of soft food, and the patient was given a course of treatment with the following medicines:

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At the recommendation of the Secretary of State, the Madras Government have deputed Dr. Day, F.R.S., F.Z.S., to institute practical enquiries, before and after the freshes, with a view to ascertaining definitely the extent of the influence, if any, exerted by annuets on fresh-water fish in the Madras rivers. It has been apprehended by naturalists that those insurmountable obstructions to the progress of the young fish from the sea up the rivers must needs militate against reproduction, and as this is a question bearing on the food products of India, Sir Stafford Northcote has deemed it worthy of careful examination. Dr. Day will temporarily vacate the Medical Stores, and afford Dr. Bidie—who is rather boring the public with his unduly protracted investigation into the nature and habits of the coffee-borer—a good excuse for remaining without delay to Madras.—*Pioneer*.

QUARANTINE regulations have been very properly put in force in the Jubbulpore district, as well as in the districts of Munnialah and Nursingpore. Temporary hospitals, under the charge of Native Doctors, have been established on the several roads leading to Jubbulpore, and travellers among whom cholera has been its appearance are detained for observation and treatment, if necessary.—*Ibid.*

DR. STOLTZKA, Paleontologist of the Geological Survey, and Mr. V. Ball, also of the same department, have been both appointed Joint Officiating Curators of the Indian Museum in Calcutta, in the place of Dr. Collics, resigned. The salary of the abovementioned officers has been fixed at Rs. 500 for the former, and Rs. 250 for the latter, Dr. Stoltzka being the responsible Curator.—*Ibid.*

At the recent fair near Manikgunj, in the Dacca district, the corpses of many persons who had died of cholera were thrown into the tank which supplies the inhabitants with the whole of their drinking water. The Commissioner cites this fact as illustrative of the "apathy and indifference" of the natives in the most ordinary matters of hygiene and conservatism; but the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal retorts that it seems to him quite as illustrative of the "apathy and indifference" of the Police and Civil Officers of Government.—*Ibid.*

Notices to Correspondents.

Anonymous. *Jenit* writes to us suggesting, as a means of preventing all chances of contagion after several intercourse, that the uterus should, in the absence of water, be well washed with the renal secretion, which, he says, enters with that of all immediately after the act. We do not profess to differ in extension.

ENQUIRER writes—*I am a Subaltern in charge of a second class civil station, and drawing the monthly allowance of Rs. 750 per annum. But the Military part of my rank—Rs. 750 per annum. The question is, therefore, am I entitled to draw the Military pay of my rank in lieu of the Civil salary?*

I ought to mention that I am only in administrative charge of the Jail of my Station, and for this I get Rs. 1000 monthly. Of course, if the Jail allowance is added to Civil salary, the total charge of the station, the total will amount to more than my pay of rank.

Answer.—In the 2nd part of the Secretary of State's Despatch of the 7th November, 1864, published with G. O. G. No. 1006 of 1864, on 2nd December, it is written, "The persons in the Indian service will receive the pay due to their rank as laid down in section 16 of my Despatch No. 152 of 16th May 1864, when such persons possess the consolidated civil and military rank." This had reference to the pay of Regimental charges. G. O. G. No. 370 of 1867, published in the Gazette of 6th April 1867, which set out the details of the allowances of Civil charges, was distinctly defined as being a continuation of G. O. G. No. 1006 of 2nd December 1864, and therefore persons in the above rank would be considered as being mainly applicable to the provisions in the above. We are, however, however, of the opinion that the above has been brought to a close.

WE are glad to hear from our readers.

STEPHEN M. CLEBLEN,
LONDON.
SHEPHERD,
BIRMINGHAM.
ANDREW S. KEEPE,
ANDERSON'S SQUARE, NEWTON.

ONE ANONYMOUS TO EITHER EITHER 17
ALFRED SERVICE,
DR. HALLAY, Hyderabad,
Subaltern, Madras, K. G. to D. H. S.
G. S. P.

Domestic Occurrence.

PIRE II.

FRANCIS—At Rochester, the wife of S. P. M. of C. R. FRANKS, of a son.

The Indian Medical Gazette.

NOTICE.

All subscriptions will in future be acknowledged in the INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE, instead of by letter post.

Subscribers who have not remitted payment for 1868 are solicited to do so.

HARE STREET, } WYMAN BROS.,
Calcutta. } Proprietors.

SPECIAL NOTICE.

It is particularly requested that Subscribers to the INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE will notify to us EVERY CHANGE OF ADDRESS.

HARE STREET, } WYMAN BROS.,
Calcutta. } Proprietors.

It is particularly requested that all contributions to the "Indian Medical Gazette" may be written as legibly as possible, and only on ONE SIDE of each sheet of paper.

Unusual expressions ought to be so distinct that no possible mistake can be made in printing them.

None of these simple rules causes much trouble.

Communications should be forwarded as early in the month as possible, as they must inevitably occur in their publication.

Editors' letters to be forwarded to the Publishers, Messrs. Wyman Brothers, and all professional communications to the Editor, direct.

THE CO-OPERATION OF THE PROFESSION THROUGHOUT INDIA IS EARNESTLY SOLICITED.

HARE STREET, } WYMAN BROS.,
Calcutta, 1868. } Proprietors.

"You have chosen the path, not of politics, but of science. Among those who have preceded you in it, and in our own part of the empire, we find some of the brightest ornaments of British literature, and I should do you the injustice of supposing that there is any one among us who would not prefer the reputation of Harvey on the Hygiene to that of a politician in the councils and parliament of the periods in which they lived."—SIR BENJAMIN BRODIE.

OURSELVES.

In conformity with our published intention to rectify any alterations in, or to make any additions to, the lists of Civil Stations previously noted, we have, in our present Supplement, specified the several stations and sub-divisions which were omitted in a former Supplement, and in the pamphlet; and must trust to the generosity of our readers to overlook these shortcomings.

We regret to say that we have received an ungracious communication from a Civil Surgeon, at whose suggestion these lists were published. We have not leisure to argue with a correspondent, but we beg to assure him that we endeavor to do our best, and that we are much indebted to him as to all who will kindly point out our deficiencies. When the lists were drawn up, all the *Local Gazettes* were not at our disposal, and we depended chiefly upon the *General Orders*. Had our lists been at length, we hope, complete; and we trust that the "supplemental correspondence" will now be satisfied.

No more Supplement, however, will be issued. When the publication was announced, it was believed that they would be an attractive feature in the periodical, which, by increasing the number of subscribers, would more than compensate the additional outlay. This expectation has not, unfortunately, been realized, which has given an abundant opportunity for more substantial to come forward, been realized.

rejoicing, for he had decided the "flat" to be chosen. He was recommended to go to the *de Jherrie*, no particular station being specified, probably because the distinctive characteristics of each were unknown, and he selected the most fashionable and the oldest—Ootacamund. Fortunately, he met on board the steamer with an old Madras Presidency Surgeon, who succeeded in dissuading him from carrying out his unwise intention. Nay, he further advised him to return immediately to Calcutta, and proceed round the Cape to England. The young officer decided, however, after a residence of a few days in Madras, and contrary to further medical advice, to go to Bangalore, and thence to the Shivaloy hills. It was on these hills that we found him. After a short sojourn, he appeared to improve in health; the diarrhoea, which had attended the dysentery, seemed disposed to subside altogether; and he was even contemplating an ascent to a higher elevation. But the improvement was only temporary. Dysentery recurred under the influence of variations of temperature,—warm days followed by chilly evenings and cold nights,—and it became at last fully necessary that he should leave the hills at once, which he did, and proceeded to Madras and Bangalore. He was sent, eventually, to England.

It is remarkable that Dr. Baikie, a very careful observer, and whose experience of the Neighberries extended over three years, writes in favour of invalids suffering from dysentery resorting to the hills. It is true that he limits his recommendation to the "mild forms" in which, it seems, he does not consider that a protracted sea voyage is necessary; and he wisely advocates a period of residence at Dinultery, (a locality now abandoned as a residence for Europeans, near Konegherry,) or Komoor,—both warm situations,—until the disease should be fairly subdued, and the patient acclimatized, when he may be transferred to the more bracing climate of Ootacamund. In the severer forms of the disease, with or without hepatic complication, Dr. Baikie advocates a preliminary sea voyage; but, even in these cases, he does not object to a residence in the hills subsequently. We have found much in hill climate in India, and held medical charge of a sanatorium in the Himalayas for two years; and our experience justifies us in thinking that in every form of dysentery, whether mild or severe, with or without hepatic complication, present or past away, there is great risk in following Dr. Baikie's recommendations. A new-comer in the youth of life) to India may indeed contract a dysentery which may necessitate a large sea voyage and a return to Europe, but from which he may eventually &c. completely recover that, *certes pariter*, he will have become, in manhood, a perfectly healthy subject. Such a result can come within the meaning of a "weak point," though care should be especially enjoined. It is persons who have so suffered in recent cases whose residence in the hills should be interdicted. The same remark applies to hepatic disease as to dysentery. A sad case, in illustration, came under our observation two years ago. A husband accompanied an invalid wife to Ootacamund in the month of May. He was, apparently, in perfect health; but—a fact which was unknown to the family physician—he had been *en route to Europe, on account of dysentery, during the previous five years*. Shortly after his arrival at Ootacamund, he became uneasy in his right side, and dyspeptic. Diarrhoea shortly followed, and was regarded as a favorable sign. It was believed

that an engorged liver had resulted in an increased flow of bile, and that thus the balance of the circulation would be restored. The patient did not, however, get well. He returned, in the course of a few weeks, to the plains; and, within a month afterwards, was sent to England, very ill, with abscess of the liver, (of which he eventually died),—the diarrhoea still continuing. It is very probable that, in the course of one or other of the two attacks of dysentery, the liver had become involved, though there was no evidence on this point.

Were leaving this part of the subject, we would observe that more accurate information is required upon the subject of hill stations, generally, in all parts of India. Medical reports upon the sanatoria where Europeans are quartered have, indeed, been submitted to Government, and a "Blue Book" gives a condensed account of all where European troops are quartered; but something more is needed. The name of every hill station, as far as possible, should be made known. This is the more necessary now, there being so many medical officers attached to Her Majesty's British forces, to whom such information would be most acceptable. A most useful gazette might be prepared from the records in the public medical offices, and supplied to each military and civil medical officer in the country. Under the present system, medical officers are very much in the dark as to the characters of the hill stations, even in their own presidency; and the choice is often left to the patient himself. This will depend upon circumstances. If he be heedful of gaiety, or desirous of living under the eye of authority, with a view to ulterior advantages, he may select Mussorie or Simla; whereas, possibly, the warmer climate and the lower elevation of Almora would suit his constitution (and, may be, his pocket too) far better.

During the past few years we have enjoyed the opportunity of becoming acquainted with some of the hill stations in the Madras Presidency usually resorted to by invalids; and, as these are so accessible from Calcutta, and much frequented by residents in Bengal, we have thought it might be of service to give a sketch of each. We will preface our account by a few preliminary remarks on the *sojourn* of the journey.

(To be continued.)

VACCINATION.

Trafford is unmissably satisfied to observe that Mr John Starchy—one of the representatives of enlightened progress in India—has obtained permission to introduce a "Bill to make inoculation in Kumaon and Gwalwal penal." Fifteen years ago "Mahamurree," the local plague of those districts, which for many years previously had led to the decimation of the population and to diminution of revenue, at length became so venereal, and so continuous, that the Government of the N. W. P. determined to, if possible, eradicate, or, at any rate, mitigate the severity of the disease. Two medical officers were appointed to investigate the true character of "Mahamurree," and to suggest remedial measures. They had been preceded in the enquiry by the then Superintendent Surgeon of the Meerut Circle, Dr. Renny, who—although differing with them as to the name of the pestilence—recognized, as they did, the paramount necessity for introducing sanitary reform throughout the length and breadth of the entire hill country in those regions. The two medical officers were engaged for two

jects in the investigation, and in carrying out the measures of sanitation which had been sanctioned in the course of it. Dr. Pears is one of the medical officers) had been engaged as a volunteer prior to this, and, from his powers of eloquence and bearing, was well-calculated to take part in the negotiation of such radical changes as the introduction of sanitary reform, for the first time, amongst an ignorant and superstitious Hindustani population, involved.

In the progress of the enquiry, the Government of the North-West Provinces availed itself of the machinery at its disposal to introduce vaccination. For many years the British, and other officers bordering upon Tibet, (not Peshawar,) and the lower hills had petitioned the Government to send them vaccine. They knew the value of it. These enterprising men would carry the produce of Tibet not only to the lower hills, but to the large cities and towns in the plains, were it not for their dread of small-pox. The opportunity was most favorable. The British accepted the gift with joy. The inhabitants of the middle and lower hills—offering here and there some opposition at first—eventually, in part, accepted it too. The sons of inoculators of small-pox became vaccinators. Books, instructing these neophytes in their duty, and telling to the people the story of the prophylactic in the form of a tale, were published and became text books in the village schools. With a suitable climate and a willing population, the success and consequent spread of vaccination became a matter of certainty. The medical officers soon saw the wisdom of *assimilating* the virus in the hope of ultimately establishing a vaccine deposit in Kameron and Gurhwal. They did not inoculate all the population off at once, with a view to shewing a long roll of successful operations, but they set to work cautiously, and vaccinated sparingly, at stated and well considered intervals. Their most sanguine expectations have been realized. The vaccine of these hills—we say it advisedly—is the best in India. An excellent lymph is, indeed, imported now from England; but it will not vie with that from these districts. So, at any rate, thank the medical officers who have tried both.

This being the case, inoculation with small-pox may fairly be made penal. Until an effective substitute could be depended upon, Government would not have been justified in stopping the old time-honored custom.

But now the day has arrived, and Mr. Strachey, we earnestly hope, will succeed in his endeavours to do away with a pest which is worse almost than cholera, or the plague. In no other way than by making "inoculation for small-pox" a punishable offence, shall we ever succeed in banishing getting rid of it, and for thus compelling the inoculators to practise vaccination. The operators will be *forced* to practise with the new prophylactic. Nor will they incur any hardship. The people who now pay them homage and money for their present work amongst them will, the more and more, they are convinced of the efficacy of our system, pay them the same when they become vaccinators. This is no chimerical fancy. The day is fast approaching when the Government may venture to make inoculation penal throughout the land. Let it do so, not only now by all means, limiting the "Act" to those districts where vaccine lymph may be depended upon, as Bengal and the hills in question; but let it at the same

time strain every effort to *absorb the inoculators*,—encouraging them not only to take up the new system themselves, but to send their children to our colleges and schools to be educated for the medical profession,—for a calling which will take them out of the *Tipudiah's dustoon** groove. It is well when the civil authorities and medical men are of one mind in matters of this sort. It will happen, occasionally, that a Magistrate is unwilling to adopt the recommendation of the Civil Surgeon, because he thinks the measure recommended will be oppressive. For some time past, the local authorities in Kameron and Gurhwal have been unwilling to continue the prohibition to inoculate for small-pox, (which had been put in force), believing it to be illegal,—and knowing also that many of the people (for it must be admitted that, in some parts of those districts, there is still great opposition to vaccination,) objected to it. In consequence of this, instructions were issued not to prosecute those who disobeyed the orders not to inoculate for small-pox. What was the result? An attempt to reintroduce it generally!

An excellent reason for now passing an Act, as alluded by Dr. Pearson, the Superintendent General of Vaccination in the North-Western Provinces, is that those hills are the *seed beds* from which these Provinces and other parts of India are supplied with good vaccine virus; and it is therefore urgently necessary to keep them uninjured, and to exclude the possibility of the virus being injured by the admixture of small-pox.

In inexorable resolution, and severe wisdom, Mr. John Strachey is the Ixycurgus of India.

INDIGENOUS DRUGS.

We are glad to observe, that the fame of our native *C. Bahadur* Baboo Kanny Lall Dey has found its way to the far-famed North of our boasted Western land of learning. A record of his labours, in developing the value of indigenous drugs in India, will be found in the pages of the *Edinburgh Medical Journal* for June last. Kanny Lall Dey requires no stimulus of this kind to pursue with zeal the honorable career of professional investigation. He is an indefatigable worker already. But we take this opportunity of saying once more what we have urged again and again to our idle Native friends, that their labours, if they will but work, will not become the prey of ruthless insects, as might have been the case in days gone by,—but that they individually may attain an enviable celebrity, not only here amongst their own *castes*, but amongst the shining lights who have to illuminate the world on the other side of the globe.

Extracts.

...

Lord Napier stated at the Anniversary of the Madras Medical College, held on the 1st instant, that the Madras Government had proposed for the consideration of the Government of Britain the erection of a new Female Civil Hospital, a Lock Hospital, a new Female Asylum, an establishment for the instruction of called Female Nurses, a Sanitary establishment at Feroze, in lieu of the obsolete one at Ferozabad, and the organization of a Sanitary establishment throughout the Presidency. His Lordship remarked that he must not be understood as saying that all these schemes had received sanction, but that the Government of Madras proposed, and the Government of Britain disposed of. *Indian Times.*

* Ancestral.

WARRANT MEDICAL OFFICERS' WIDOWS' AND ORPHANS' FUND.

TO THE MEMBERS OF THE

BENGAL SUBORDINATE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.
(Through the Editor of the *Times*.)

DEAR SIRS.—I have made some progress in the matter undertaken by me for our mutual benefit, having for its basis provisions for our families. Of the total number of appeals sent out by me among the *Warrant* members of the service with *children* for return to me, up to date I am in receipt of *dissatisfied* votes from about *half* the number of Warrant Officers addressed by me.

A considerable number of my appeals have come back to me through the "Dead Letter" Office. On some, I find "retired," on some, "not found," on some, "dead," on some "deceased," on others, "English." From one Warrant Medical Officer it is my best to recollect that I have received a note of a rich and a rare order. He tells me he is too old in the hours to be duped; that he is too blind a bird to be caught by chaff;—thereby insinuating that my present project is to endeavour to make a *job* of *his* out of my brother officers, forsooth! But I am quite philosophic enough to know that in all our shifts and walks through life we must expect to find the road strewn here with flowers, and there with thorns.

The Editor of the *Laborer's Gazette* (a gentleman holding a high official position, and who has always greatly interested himself in the interests of our Department) writes in his *Gazette* for June—

"The Department has delayed taking action for the re-organization of a Widows' and Orphans' Fund, until its *possibility* should be finally determined. There is now no reason for delaying any longer. A portion of Mr. Tait's report, (his final opinion was withheld in the absence of further information which he required, and, we believe, of further payment) together with some preliminary tables for calculating the probability of mortality and number of annuities, as prepared by Mr. Tait, (an actuary engaged in drawing up the rules for the Fund of eight years ago) are with us, and we shall be happy to render any assistance in our power for the purpose of bringing the matter to an issue."

And again he writes— "All subscriptions, of which a graduated scale will be necessary, should be made *compulsory*; AND WE BELIEVE THE GOVERNMENT WOULD—under the circumstances of the *failure* of the former fund, for *mutual Government support*, and because THE COURT OF DIRECTORS HAD PROMISED IT—take the Fund under its own management. We shall be glad to receive a draft embodying the regulations of the new scheme." The Editor of the *Laborer's Medical Gazette* further again writes— "The Subordinate Medical Widows' and Orphans' Fund in the Madras Presidency writes well, and it should be taken for a guide." I have addressed the Secretary to that Institution, begging he would do me the favor to furnish me with the late Annual Report of that Fund, and the most recently published pamphlet regarding its working, and the details thereof. Aided by such information, I hope to experience no difficulty in making a rough draft of a scheme for the organization of our Fund, which I shall transmit to the Editor of the *Laborer's Medical Gazette* for publication or review.

That the Editor of the *Laborer's Medical Gazette* plainly thinks, as I do myself, that we *ought* to have among our body a Widows' and Orphans' Fund, you may see from what he here says— "The cause of the widows and orphans of the Subordinate Medical Department has our liveliest sympathy. It was with great grief that we saw, a few years ago, what might have been the number of a valuable our Fund lighted away to those who remained at the *substituted* to the old one."

True, Government in its new Warrant for our service gives to our *Widows* a small pension, and indeed I regret to have to write that some of my Department have addressed me to the effect that they thought it sufficient. Government, in drawing up the scale, never did *conserve* themselves. I am certain, that the allowance to be given to *widows* of our service would, *if it be*, be ample and sufficient to meet *all* purposes.

You may agree that you have your money in Banks, or that you are a member of a Life Insurance Company. The one may any day go to "eternal rest"—the other, I will let this quotation speak for—

Provision made for a member or members of one family in a Pension Fund is not so easy a tax on *other* resources, as that made by keeping up a Policy on one's life, where a large sum must be *paid*, the interest whereof is intended to constitute an income, and when *dead* yield the amount of the required provision.

I must not to recollect. Life Assurance Table, as being a most effective and *secure* oratory, the following is a list of the most important points to be observed in the selection of a Policy. First, it is all well for the policy, according to the law of the country, to be valid. Second, it is better to be in the person of a *strong* and *healthy* individual, than in the person of a *weak* and *ill* individual. Third, it is better to be in the person of a *young* individual, than in the person of an *old* individual. Fourth, it is better to be in the person of a *single* individual, than in the person of a *married* individual. Fifth, it is better to be in the person of a *single* individual, than in the person of a *married* individual. Sixth, it is better to be in the person of a *single* individual, than in the person of a *married* individual. Seventh, it is better to be in the person of a *single* individual, than in the person of a *married* individual. Eighth, it is better to be in the person of a *single* individual, than in the person of a *married* individual. Ninth, it is better to be in the person of a *single* individual, than in the person of a *married* individual. Tenth, it is better to be in the person of a *single* individual, than in the person of a *married* individual.

What a *large* and *valuable* part of which every one of our relatives and friends should be made to possess, and which would be a great *benefit* to our families, and to our country, if it were to be put into the hands of our *Widows* and *Orphans*. In a Pension Fund, however, the Fund itself is the *benefit* to the *Widows* and *Orphans*, and all *other* objects to be provided for, are *secondary* objects.

This letter has given me an *idea* as to what I might do with my last shilling, to give you a *share* of that thought, by doing a few shillings. If you immediately join me, I shall be *glad* to succeed, if you do not, it is but for me to leave my *share* to fall to the *ground* among us as a Fund for the relief of our *Widows* and *Orphans*.

I am, Dear Sirs,
Yours very truly,
SIR JAMES CLARKE.

Short Notices of Recent Books.

Life's Last Triumph and Post-mortem Sketches of a Human Soul, by JAMES MORRIS, M.D. London: Chiswick, 1868.

With the aid of a well-son 18" commonplace book, and a tolerably decent pen, Dr. Morris has compiled a little book on a subject which not all the philosophy of the age can fail to see its lowest depths. The matter of irritability and its immediate cause are two of the most complex problems in the whole range of physiology. Why it is that certain portions of the human more irritable than others can hardly be explained, as Dr. Morris fairly admits, by any hypothesis of "nervous supply." Nor is it by any means an easy task to correlate its proper condition that general irritability of the body which we not infrequently find without any apparent lesion. Dr. Morris does not attempt to lay a scientific analysis before his readers, and we are therefore hardly enabled to criticise the opinions which he very shrewdly offers forward. This book will be found a pleasant companion by both professional and lay readers. To the former it will supply odd ideas, not systematically arranged, then it is the one of the most popular works, whilst to the latter it will give ideas of an entirely new order. The labor, in it of a *man*, or at least a scholar, is very *rich* in style, and fertile in apt quotation.

Theories of a Physiologist on the several series of Evolving Types, by VAN VOORST, London, 1868.

A number of our profession has put together a number of moral essays which are of the emotional rather than the philosophic school, and which appeal to the *eye* of their conscientiousness rather than to the material senses, which the contemplation of what metaphysicians call the *unseen* would tend to develop. "A physician" is nothing if not a man of high mind and gentle Christian bearing, and whatever be his reads may have, whether they be *Christians* or *Evangelists*, they cannot fail to profit by his sound good sense and his honest, kindly way of putting the every-day troubles of life before them. We commend this little book to the notice of our readers, young and old. They cannot read it without having some of the rough, harsh, and worldly-minded, and a little of their softer nature exposed.

The Action, Cause, and Value of Opium in the treatment of various Diseases, by S. R. BARN, M.D. London: Churchill, 1868. 2nd Edition.

Those who have faith in a panacea will find a treat in Dr. Barn's pages. The author has a profound faith in the ad-

It is said that Mr. Gladstone will be made Chancellor of the University of Edinburgh. At all events, by many of the graduates his election would be regarded as an event of the greatest advantage to the University. Dr. Lyon Playfair has been mentioned as the future representative of the Scottish Universities. It will strike your readers, therefore, with no little surprise, to learn that Dr. Fresser James has "needed to a request to come forward as a candidate." Dr. James is a graduate of St. Andrew's, and is one of the Physicians to the St. John's Hospital for diseases of the skin. I believe he is also London Editor of the *Medical Times and Circular*, a journal which is remarkable for its great vitality.

The "Chemical Society" has completed its first session, and I think I may say a session of usefulness. It has not, however, turned out as its warmest projectors anticipated. It has been but a counterpart of the "Medical Society of London," rather than an association for the advancement of therapeutics. It is therefore greatly to be hoped that, in its next session, the members will make some effort to carry out the plan originally projected, and institute committees for the examination of cases of interest, and the investigation of the action of drugs. The committees of the "Medical and Chirurgical Society" move along at a snail's pace. The committee appointed to inquire into a report upon the condition of Electro-Therapeutics, though for some years at work, has not yet published any of its proceedings; and from what I heard the other day, is not likely to do so for a long time to come.

The *Queen's University in Ireland* is making a bold stand for representation in Parliament. On Monday last, a deputation of the graduates waited upon Mr. Disraeli and urged their views upon his attention. The deputation was introduced by the Bishop of Killaloe, and among the distinguished graduates was Dr. Macpooter, the Professor of Anatomy and Physiology in the Royal College of Surgeons, Ireland. Mr. Disraeli gave the usual stereotyped reply, which it is the fate of so many deputations to receive. The matter was brought before the House of Commons last night by Mr. Charles Fortescue, who proposed that, in future, the graduates of the Queen's University, nearly 1,000 in number, should be permitted to vote in the elections of the members for Trinity College. The motion gave rise to a spirited debate, but was negatived on division 173 voting for, and 183 against. But the defeat has this advantage, it shows how large a body of legislators is in favor of extending suffrage to the secular University.

The *Lancet* of the week before last, in an article of much ability, condemned the principle upon which the election of Fellows takes place at the College of Physicians. It concluded by regarding the Council as a Tory Club of most Baedean type. Perhaps the language of the *Lancet* has been a little too violent. It must, however, be admitted that the minds of the Councillors, if guiltless of partiality, are not beyond the suspicion of bias. There cannot be the least doubt that young and undistinguished men are often elevated to the place of honour over the heads of earnest and eminent laborers in the field of science whom the Council, for reasons best known to itself, persistently and determinedly ignore. The *British Medical Journal* takes the part of the College authorities, and in a leader, which if not dispassionate, is at least pungently satirical and epigrammatic, states at the somewhat excessive comments of its contemporary.

University College has just established a department for sick children. This is certainly a step in the right direction, and one which we should like to see imitated by similar institutions. The front of the north wing, which was formerly tenanted by the nurses and sisters, has been appropriated for the children. The boys have been divided as follows:—Dr. Harley, eight beds; Sir Henry Thompson, six; Mr. Berkeley Hill, four; and Dr. Miller, two.

All the large provincial towns in England are taking into consideration the advisability of utilizing the provisions of the "Contagious Diseases Act." Birmingham especially is making a most energetic move in this direction. What is more surprising is that, in many instances, the clergy are giving the proposed scheme their warm support. This looks well, for it argues against the religious objections which have really been the most formidable stumbling block in the way of efficient legislation. A meeting of the friends and members of the "Association for extending the Contagious Diseases Act to the civil population" will be held on this day week, and as the chair will be taken by Sir Thomas Watson, we may expect a large attendance of the leading stars of our profession.

The *Lancet* of Saturday contains a very able letter from Dr. Hughes Bennett, of Edinburgh, on the subject now so much discussed—medical education. Dr. Bennett agrees with the opinions expressed by Dr. Parkes in his recently published pamphlet. He thinks that the practical should in all cases precede the systematic method of instruction. He disagrees with Dr. Parkes about remuneration, considering that teachers ought to be well remunerated for their services, and that so important an office as that of lecturer on a scientific subject should not be merely honorary. On the whole, he concurs in Dr. Parkes's opinion.

Progress of the Medical and Collateral Sciences.

The Cholera Fungus.—At a meeting of the Royal Microscopical Society of London on the 10th of June, Dr. Thibaut read a very important paper on the cholera fungus of Professor Hühner. He endeavored to prove by chemical and spectroscopical researches that cholera is solely due to certain changes of a chemical character which occur in the blood, and have no relation, save that of coincidence, with the fungoid form in the discharges of cholera patients. It would be impossible to deal with Dr. Thibaut's arguments till his paper is published, as he promises it shall be, in a separate form. It is worthy of note, however, that a reaction is taking place among scientific men in England, and that the fungus theory is not likely to have it all its own way. In a series of replies to Dr. Gavin Milroy, the Rev. J. M. Berkeley, the highest authority on fungi in Europe, states that he has no faith in the theory of a cholera fungus. His answers were published in the *Golden's Chronicle*, and though that circumstance has escaped the attention of medical men. The following is Mr. Berkeley's reply to one of Dr. Milroy's queries:—"I do not believe in Hühner's views of the connection of cholera with parasites on rice. I am having great pains to ascertain what are the rice parasites. I believe Hühner's notions to be entirely theoretical. That some outbreaks among disorders arise from fungi is very certain; but there is nothing to show that fevers, or other contagious or infectious disorders, arise from the same cause. It was supposed that diphtheria depended on a fungus; but I have examined diphtheria membranes in which there was no fungus."

The Physiological Action of "Substitution Compounds."—It is a fact in organic chemistry that in certain substances an organic radical may be substituted for an equivalent of hydrogen without altering the fundamental chemical properties of this substance. But it has been recently shown by Drs. Fraser and Conn Brown of Edinburgh, that though the chemical constitution of the substance may not be materially altered, its physiological action is seriously changed. We have before referred to the remarkable series of researches in which those chemists demonstrated that, by substituting methyl for an hydrogen equivalent in the alkaloids, *atropa, belladonna, strychnia*, etc., they obtained compounds which, in doses containing a large quantity of the alkaloid, were, nevertheless almost completely inert. Singularly enough, the same subject has been taken up by, and has given similar results to, MM. Jolyet and Calous. The substance examined by these researches was *atropine*. Now atropine itself is known to be a powerful narcotic medicine, having a very distinct stimulating action on the spinal cord, and which in large doses produces convulsions. By adding by substitution to the amine radicals, as methyl, ethyl, and amyl, the French chemists obtained substances which were not only not productive of convulsions, but were powerful narcotics or paralyzants. MM. Jolyet's and Calous' paper was brought before the French Academy on the first of June.

Relative Actions of Theine and Caffeine.—In the *Archives de Physiologie* for June, M. Lévy, who has lately written in the subject of theine, publishes some notes, in which he states that, contrary to a general supposition, caffeine and theine have not the same physiological action. Firstly, he says, caffeine is at least twice as strong as theine. Then, he says, caffeine convulses more vivaciously the limbs, which have at least no effect with caffeine. Both alkaloids excite the heart, and the response

Faint Memory of a Dream

M. S. S. writes to the Editor of the *Journal of the Medical Association*, Chicago, Ill., June 25, 1868, as follows:—

"I have a faint memory of a dream which I had last night. It was a very strange and unusual dream, and I am sure that it was not a mere fancy or a mere dream. It was a very real and vivid dream, and I am sure that it was not a mere fancy or a mere dream. It was a very real and vivid dream, and I am sure that it was not a mere fancy or a mere dream."

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"I have a faint memory of a dream which I had last night. It was a very strange and unusual dream, and I am sure that it was not a mere fancy or a mere dream. It was a very real and vivid dream, and I am sure that it was not a mere fancy or a mere dream."

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ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE POISON OF SNAKES.

By J. FAYRER, M.D.

PRESENT: Dr. Fayrer, Dr. F. Stojizka and Mr. V. Ball, Curators of the Indian Museum, and Mr. Seeva.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

At 9.50 a.m., 1868.—At 12-13 p.m. a Cobra was bitten in two places, about six inches from the head, where the scales had been previously scraped off, and in the mouth, by a very large and powerful light-colored spectacled cobra, 5 feet 6 inches in length. The bitten snake was then put into a separate box with a wire gauze front, for observation. There could be no doubt in this case that the bites were severe, and that the poison was inoculated. At 2-30, when I left, the snake seemed to be unaffected. At 9 p.m. Mr. Seeva reports that the bitten Cobra does not seem to be much affected.

2-30 p.m., 8th August, about 50 hours afterwards, this snake is apparently unaffected.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

6th August.—A Bungarus Fasciatus, nearly full grown, was bitten by the same Cobra at 12-22 p.m., at about eight inches from the head. The snake was bitten twice: the Cobra took firm hold, and implanted the fangs deeply.

At 2-30, when I left, there was no change; the Bungarus seemed unaffected. The Bungarus died at 7-30 p.m. of the 7th, about 29 hours after being bitten. At 1 p.m. of the 7th, he still seemed well.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.

At 12-27 p.m., 6th August, an innocuous snake, Dendrophis, long and delicate, beautifully marked with red spots along the sides, was bitten by the same Cobra, about the middle of the body.

12-30.—Appears slightly affected and is sluggish. It does not try to make its escape so vigorously as it did.

12-43.—Sluggish, but, apparently, very slightly affected. The Cobra is apparently partially exhausted, as it had been made to bite two other snakes in two places, and in this forced biting much of the poison is lost.

12-51.—Bitten again, near the same spot, by a fresh and large black Cobra. It soon became very sluggish, but made no convulsive movements. It simply seemed to become paralyzed, and was dead at 1-8 p.m. Death occurred in 14 minutes after the second bite, in 41 minutes after the first bite. The effect of the poison on the harmless snakes seems, from this experiment, to be comparatively feeble and slow. The bitten snake was small and delicate, the Cobra was fresh and very powerful, and at least 5½ feet long.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.

A Dryophis, (green tree snake), about 3½ feet long, was bitten by the first mentioned large, light-colored Cobra, in the middle of its body, at 12-28 p.m.

12-52.—Slightly affected, rather sluggish; but it is combative, and attacks if approached. At 12-55 it was bitten again by the large black Cobra mentioned in Experiment No. 3. It rapidly became affected. Became very apathetic and sluggish. At 1-3 p.m. apparently nearly dead. At 1-4 dead.

This experiment, like No. 3, shows the effect of the Cobra poison on the innocuous snake. The Dryopis died in nine minutes after the second bite, in 36 minutes after the first bite.

The first Cobra was evidently exhausted. The second was fresh and vigorous, having only once bitten the Dendrophis. I believe that, had it bitten a warm-blooded animal, of about the same strength as the Dendrophis, death would have occurred more quickly. The Dryopis was twice the size of the Dendrophis, and, although it was bitten after it, died in a much shorter time. It was either more susceptible, or more deeply bitten.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

A pariah dog was bitten in the thigh by a large and fresh black Cobra, at 12-37 p.m. Immediately afterwards, about 20 drops of a solution of strychnia, (of the strength of gr. 1 to 5), equal to ¼ of a grain, were injected with a hypodermic syringe into the same thigh.

12-39.—Tetanic twitchings of the limbs commenced, and gradually continued, becoming more intense, till, at 12-42, the animal was in a state of general tetanic spasm of all the muscles of the body. The ears were erected, the pupils dilated to excess, the body rigid, and the limbs extended in an intense state of tetanic convulsion.

12-43.—Dead. Spasm relaxed just before death.

In this case death occurred in six minutes, and was due entirely to tetanus. There was neither time nor opportunity for any manifestation of the effects of the snake-poison.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

A pariah dog was bitten in the thigh by a powerful and fresh black Cobra, at 12-45. Immediately afterwards, about 15 drops of the strychnia solution were injected with the hypodermic syringe into the same thigh.

12-46.—Bitten leg partially paralyzed, and dragged. The dog ran across the room, the legs twitching violently.

12-47 it fell over in a state of rigid tetanic spasm.

12-48.—Every muscle in the body in a state of rigid spasm. But it was remarked that the bitten leg was not so much affected by spasm as the other leg. The paralyzing action of the snake-poison, apparently, so far counteracts the action of the strychnia.

12-50.—Spasm relaxed.

12-51.—Dead.

Death occurred, evidently from tetanus, in six minutes.

EXPERIMENT No. 7.

A full-grown male cat was bitten in the thigh, at 1-20 p.m., by a Daboia Russellii, about two-thirds grown, and, apparently, quite fresh and vigorous. Ten drops of a solution of strychnia, of the strength of gr. 1 to 5, that is, ¼ of a grain, were injected at 1-23 p.m.

1-24.—The bitten leg is partially paralyzed. The cat lies quietly, looking about it.

1-25.—Spasmodic twitchings began.

1-26.—Stretched out in a violent tetanic spasm. Pupils very widely dilated.

1-27.—Spasm relaxed. Dead. In this case the strychnia seemed rather to accelerate death than to improve the animal's condition. The action of the snake-poison had clearly commenced, but it was at once obscured by the symptoms of poisoning by strychnia, and the cat died in a state of complete tetanus. The strychnia was suggested as an antidote to snake-poison. These experiments do not support this theory.

EXPERIMENT No. 8.

A large Blannin (Ptyas Mucosus) was bitten by a fresh and powerful Cobra, at 12-53 p.m., about eight inches from the head, the scales having been previously scraped off, to ensure the penetration of the Cobra's fangs. Bitten also in the mouth, at 12-54, by the same Cobra.

At 1-1 p.m. still active.

1-10.—Appears slightly sluggish.

1-30.—The same.

At 2-30, when I left, it was in the same state.

On the 5th August I found that the Python had at 3-20 p.m. rather less than 20 hours after being bitten. It appeared to have partially recovered from its lethargy during the day, but relapsed and died, as it had been in the cage for some time, and was well and active, there can be no doubt, I think, that its death was due to the Cobra bite.

EXPERIMENT No. 9.

A very large and powerful Cobra, the same that bit in experiments 1, 2, 3, 4, had about 25 drops of the solution of strychnia (gr. i to 50) injected into the anterior part of its body on the ventral aspect, at 1 p.m.

At 1-2 p.m. muscular twitches began. The hood seemed to be shuddered up and contracte. The head was erect, and longitudinal folds formed in its skin.

At 1-4 p.m. in a state of violent tetanic spasm. The body set in short waves, as though it had been potrifid in that condition, and the whole curved rigidly to one side.

1-6.—Continues in the same state, rigid as stone.

1-10.—Spasm relaxing; twitchings generally throughout the body and the head.

1-12.—The only sign of life, an occasional twitch.

Dead. 1-14.—Spasm relaxed.

EXPERIMENT No. 10.

A Cobra, about 4 feet long, was injected with 15 drops of Cobra poison, partly taken from another Cobra, partly from itself, at 1-55 p.m., at about 1 inch from the head.

At 1-58, twitching of head and neck when erect. Hood began to shivel.

At 1-59, twisted itself up into a rigid series of coils, like a snake cast in metal, in which state I lifted it up with a stick and rolled it on the floor.

It remained in this condition, the head twitching.

At 2-5 the coils were unrolled, and it was quite dead.

The symptoms of poisoning here were those of strychnia than snake-poison; and I cannot help thinking that such may possibly have been the fact. The hypodermic syringe was used as in the other experiments, but, as it had been most carefully washed several times before the experiment, it is difficult to conceive how such can have been the case, unless a very small quantity had been bit imbedded by the poking of the piston. As the result was different to that of other injections of Cobras by Cobra poison, I cannot help suspecting this may have been the case, and it is sufficient to throw a doubt on the validity of the experiment. It would, however, improve the extreme susceptibility of the snake to the action of strychnia.

EXPERIMENT No. 11.

At 2 p.m., a large Cobra had bit at 15-30 of his own poison injected with 15 drops of the same, about 2 inches from the head. The head was contracted in the ventral position, and it is probable the body may have been potrifid.

At 2-5 p.m. the snake was motionless, apparently dead.

2-10.—It was dead, but very much inflated.

2-30.—Apparently very much inflat.

At 9 p.m. it was cut up by Mr. Seva, and the Cobra was very much inflated, to this.

At 12-30, 5th August, the Cobra still alive, and apparently not at all bit, nearly twenty after the experiment.

EXPERIMENT No. 12.

At 2 p.m. a large Cobra had bit at 12 drops of poison, partly

his own, partly from another Cobra, injected about 8 inches from the head. No effect was apparent when I left at 2-30 p.m. But at 4 p.m. of the same date, Mr. Seva reported that it died at 7-40 p.m. It became more and more sluggish and lethargic, and it was quite dead, but there was no convulsive movement and tetanic spasm.

It appears probable to say the least of it, that death in this case was caused by the poison. It is possible that the snake may have penetrated the ligament or some large internal vessel, and that it caused death either by hemorrhage or embolism. I had not an opportunity of examining the snake after death, and I cannot, therefore, regard the experiment as conclusive.

The Cobras used in these experiments were remarkably large and vigorous.

PRESENT. Dr. J. Ewart, Professor of Physic, Egry,
and Mr. Seva, of the Indian Museum.

EXPERIMENT No. 13.

August 8th, 1868.—A half-grown Cobra had about 25 drops of fresh Cobra poison, taken from another snake immediately before the experiment was performed, injected by means of the hypodermic syringe into the body, at about 8 inches from the head.

At 12-50 the snake appeared unaffected in strength and activity, striking at anything that approached it; but it walked a large quantity of light brown fluid *per anum*.

On the 12th August it was still quite well.

At 2-50, when I left, it was as well as ever.

EXPERIMENT No. 14.

A half-grown fowl was bitten in the thigh by a Dabola Russi at 1 p.m.

It fell over in violent convulsions, as it was placed on the ground, and in less than 30 seconds it was completely dead. This is the most rapid action of snake-poison I have yet seen.

EXPERIMENT No. 15.

About half a drop of venom was with difficulty obtained from the same Dabola. These snakes, with their long mobile fingers, do not shed their poison into a shell or spoon covered with a leaf, as usually is done with the Cobras. This very small quantity of the venom was injected, by means of the hypodermic syringe, into the thigh of a half-grown fowl. At 12-2 p.m., when placed on the ground, it walked a few steps, as though nothing had happened. In about 30 seconds it suddenly fell backward, and rolled over in violent convulsions. At 12-1-0, that is, in 1-0 second, it was dead. These two experiments show the terribly deadly nature of the Dabola's poison, and also the difference of its mode of action from that of the Cobra. In the one case death being preceded by violent convulsions, in the other by paralysis and lethargy.

The quantity of the poison inoculated must have been very small, in both cases, for the snake did not inflat in the first, and I a very large amount of poison, and in the second experiment, where the quantity was certainly not more than half a drop, part of that must have been absorbed by the glands of the piston, and a small part lost by adhering to the syringe, or by evaporating to the piston not being so tightly applied. It is also worthy of notice, that in the same snake the head has been used in my experiments, and that it has been in use now for some weeks. It appears that it and its companion have eaten some small frogs lately.

EXPERIMENT No. 16.

One drop of poison, taken from a small Cobra, was injected, at 1-11 p.m., by means of the hypodermic syringe, into a fowl's thigh.

In fifty seconds it was walking about with that leg partially paralyzed. At 1-16 it was pecking at the punctured part; wings drooping. At 1-19 it sat down, head hanging, and supporting itself with the point of the beak resting on the ground, growing gradually more comatose, and generally paralyzed.

At 1-22 in the same state. One drop of the strychnia solution, about $\frac{1}{16}$ th of a grain, was injected into the thigh. At 1-23 it appeared quite paralyzed. When thrown from the hands to the ground, the wings involuntarily performed the movements of flying, and it alighted gently, but lay there perfectly motionless. At 1-25 tetanic twitchings of muscular system were apparent. At 1-26 general muscular quivering, and slight spasmodic extension of the legs. At 1-27 $\frac{1}{2}$ dead. The contents of the cloaca were evacuated just before death. The action of the strychnia was apparent, but it did not in any way seem to ameliorate the condition induced by the Cobra poison.

The Owl was larger and stronger than those in the preceding experiments, and a full drop of poison was injected. Death did not occur for 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ minutes, and the symptoms differed from those in the birds poisoned by the Dabchia, whose more rapid death was preceded by violent convulsions.

EXPERIMENT No. 17.

A large pale-colored Cobra had 10 or 12 drops of freshly extracted Cobra poison injected into the anterior ventral aspect of the body, about 8 inches from the head, at 1-43 p.m.

At 2-30 the snake seemed unaffected. On the 12th August, at 5 p.m., the snake remained perfectly well.

EXPERIMENT No. 18.

A large pale-colored Cobra had ten drops, equal to $\frac{1}{16}$ th of a grain, of a solution of strychnia injected into the anterior part of its body, near the head, at 1-50 p.m. At 10-52 tetanic twitchings commenced. At 10-53 it became rigidly fixed in undulating curves, with a general lateral curve of its entire length. The head completely shrivelled up, and the head twisted to one side. In this spastic condition the snake was as rigid as a bar of wood. In 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ minutes after the strychnia had been injected, the Cobra was quite dead; muscular twitchings had passed away just before death; rigidity remained for a short time after it.

The snake, notwithstanding its cold blood, is very susceptible to the poisonous effects of strychnia. The object of the experiment was not only to test the action of strychnia on the snake, but also to shew that the method of injecting the poison was an effective one, and that as the snake-poison was injected in precisely the same way, failure in its action could not be attributed to the mode of administration.

EXPERIMENT No. 19.

At 2-6 p.m. a full-grown Cobra had six drops of fresh Cobra poison injected under the skin with the hypodermic syringe, about 8 inches from the head.

Seven minutes after voided a quantity of dark-colored fluid from the cloaca.

2-30.—Unaffected.

On the 12th, at 5 p.m., still quite well.

In these three experiments, 13, 17, 19, the Cobra poison, though fresh and thoroughly well injected into the Cobra, had no effect. Four days after the experiment, the snakes injected were unaffected. I am, however, still not satisfied that the Cobra may not be poisoned to death by the venom of its own species, and shall make further experiments before recording any decided opinion.

EXPERIMENT No. 20.

Ten drops of carbolic acid were injected, at 2-9 p.m., by means of the hypodermic syringe, into a Cobra, at about 8 or 10 inches from the head.

In half a minute it was affected with muscular twitchings and tremor; the anterior 12 inches of the snake affected with paralysis agitans.

Vermicular movements throughout the body.

2-12.—Universal paralysis.

2-14.—Dead.

The snake is evidently very susceptible to this poison, as it also is to the strychnia. No warm-blooded animal could be more so. This, I think, seems to shew that, apart from any immunity peculiar to the reptilian circulation, it has a special toleration of the poison of its own species; for it certainly is not easily, if at all, affected by it, as the majority of the experiments hitherto performed tend to shew that neither by inoculation of the poison by the syringe, nor by biting, is any deadly effect produced.

In my last report, in alluding to the poison fangs of different snakes, I described them simply as they appear, and not according to their development. But as this may be misunderstood, I would here remark that, though different in form and size, they are all developed on, and are modifications of, the same plan. The fang is a long tooth, consisting of dentine and pulp. This is folded on itself, and thus forms the poison duct, constituting a conical tube. The canal thus formed lies on the convex side of the fang, which is recurved, and is in front of the pulp. The poison canal is, in fact, enclosed in a circular canal of dentine, the fibres of which are arranged vertically around the duct.

This inflection or involution is more or less perfect according to the age of the tooth, or according to the genus of the snake. In some, as in the Hydrophida, the inflection is never completed, and the canal remains an open groove.

In the Elapide, as in the Naja and Bungarus—the involution is sufficient to close the canal, but the vertical line of union, as well as the triangular opening at the base, and that of exit near the apex, can be seen: whilst in the Viperidae and Crotalidae the involution is so complete, that the tooth presents the appearance of a perforated tube, and the inflection or involution of the margins is not seen.

These poison fangs, which are connected with the maxillary bones, are ankylosed to them when they are in working order. The supplementary fangs, of which there is always a good supply in different stages of growth, are loose, and lie covered by the fold of mucous membrane and gum which envelopes the poison fangs, and protects them when not in use. A second, or even third, fang may be ankylosed with the principal one to the maxillary bone: and I have before me a skull of a Daboia, for which I am indebted to Mr. Seeva, in which this is the case; and where there are five well developed poison fangs on each side, of which on one side *two* are ankylosed to the maxillary bone. The muscular apparatus by which the fangs are moved, the jaws opened, and the poison gland made to shed its contents through the hollowed tooth, are very complex and beautiful. I hope, on a future occasion, to give some account of this, as well as of the osseous details concerned in the movements by which the deadly wound is inflicted.

ON CHOLERA.—No. IV.

By C. MACNAMARA,

Surgeon to the Calcutta Ophthalmic Hospital.

WE may now briefly consider the circumstances of rather an important epoch in the history of cholera, noticing its appearance in Persia in 1821. I have already shewn that we have ample evidence to prove the existence of epidemic cholera on the western border of India throughout the years 1817 and 1820. In place, however, of supposing that the influence

mixed up together. The 53rd Regiment shortly after underwent their volunteering in the same neighbourhood and under the same circumstances with the 34th—of exposure to heat in camp and intoxication—yet escaped the disease. The 53rd had but two months before undergone a severe visitation, induced by marching and atmospheric influences, by which its susceptibility was exhausted, and the causes which proved so fatal to us were insufficient to reproduce it in them.*

In 1824 cholera was only generated to a slight extent beyond its endemic area. It broke out with considerable violence among the European Artillery and men of the 15th Regiment N. I. at Mhow, "the patients being attacked with vomiting and purging of a whitish-coloured watery fluid, the most awful collapse of the system ensuing, leaving but little time for the employment of remedies; there was nothing like reaction. The vital powers seemed completely exhausted by the first stroke. There were only three cases where anything like spasms appeared."† Concerning this outbreak of cholera, the Superintending Surgeon remarks—"The only troops of this division that have suffered from cholera were the 15th Native Infantry and European Artillery, which unfortunately passed on their route through the crowded and filthy cities of Indore and Onjein, while the dire disease was raging with great violence; whereas in Mhow, the station they had left, though only 12 miles distant from Indore, not a single case had occurred."‡

In the Jubulpore district there was rather a severe, but short, outbreak of cholera in July; it did not affect the troops.

During the early months of the year 1825 we have a repetition of the old story—Cholera in Calcutta; the pilgrims at Porce suffering severely, and the Government urgently called on to exert themselves in favour of these poor creatures. In April, May, and June reports were received from various districts in the Delta of the Ganges as to an increase in the number of cholera cases; from Ganjam and along the eastern seaboard a similar ery was raised, and later in the year from the western side of the peninsula at Mhow. Among the inhabitants of Calcutta and the city of Dacca, cholera was very prevalent again in August and September. Nevertheless, on the whole, India was comparatively free from the disease.

The following twelve months are of special interest with regard to the history of cholera, and I am almost entirely indebted for the information I have gained regarding this period to the reports and returns contained in the "Proceedings of the Medical Board." From these we shall find that the great epidemic, which spread over Europe and extended to America in 1830-31-32, arose in Bengal in 1826. This point has never, so far as I am aware, been insisted on. The cholera of 1830-31 is usually described as having originated in Astrachan, as follows:—"In 1823 it passed the Caspian Sea, and in the month of September showed itself in Astrachan. It made no further progress, however, in Europe until the year 1830. In that year, having appeared again at Astrachan in June and July, it extended rapidly through the eastern part of Europe."§ This account gives us but a very meagre idea of the origin of the great wave of epidemic cholera, upon the study of which we must now enter.

During the first quarter of 1826, cholera was evidently on the increase throughout the whole of Lower Bengal. Among the troops in the Presidency Circle, no less than 76 cases occur-

red in April, of these 38 died; but what is of more importance to notice is, that H. M.'s 31st Regiment at Dinapore was attacked by cholera in April, 1826, fifty-seven men having been seized with the disease, of these 23 died; and, at the same time, in the Regiment at Buxar, forty-nine men were affected with cholera, and twenty-nine died. From Dinapore, Dr. Dickson writes on the 4th of April 1826—"I am very sorry to report that cholera has again commenced its ravages at this station: the surrounding districts are, likewise, most severely affected."¶ The Superintending Surgeon at Benares, on the 13th of May, 1826, reports—"that, in the city of Benares, two or three hundred persons were daily carried off by cholera, and yet the troops and prisoners in the Jail remained entirely exempt from the disease, which, nevertheless, was most severe all over the Benares division." In the Cawnpore Circle, during the month of June, 64 European and 105 Native soldiers were attacked by the disease. We have clear evidence, therefore, of a most severe outburst of epidemic cholera, commencing early in 1826, throughout the whole of Lower Bengal, and gradually extending towards the north-west as far as the Cawnpore division, during the first six months of the year. Beyond this area, we hear of nothing approaching to an epidemic outbreak of cholera. The Saugor, Agra, Meerut, Kurnaul, and Nusseerabad divisions were absolutely free from the disease, with the exception of the usual sporadic cases which occurred there every season. Before the month of August cholera had subsided, but by no means disappeared, from Cawnpore eastward.

In November, 1826, we notice the first muttering of the storm from the west. The Superintending Surgeon of the Nusseerabad Division writes as follows:—"In the stations on the right banks of the Jumna, *viz.*, Delhi, Muttra, and Agra, the returns show that the Corps there have experienced, during the month, a slight invasion of cholera."

The above details are sufficient to give us an idea of the invading cholera of 1826; its steady advance from east to north-west as far as a line drawn about half-way between Cawnpore and Agra; its halting precisely as it had done in 1817, but apparently not intruding Bandelmeed (in the Nagpore Subsidiary Force the ratio of admissions to strength per 1000 for cholera was, in 1827, 0.605; in 1828, 1.129; in 1829, 1.517; and in 1830 there were no admissions at all); in other respects the phenomenon of the cholera of 1826 was an exact counterpart to that of 1817, and in all probability of 1783.

I would draw special attention to the observation of the Superintending Surgeon of the Nusseerabad Division as to the slight invasion of certain cities by cholera on the right bank of the Jumna, towards the close of the year 1826; the skinners, as it were, thrown forward by the invading power; the evidence of the potential force exercised by the disease in these localities.

See J. R. Martin remarks: "I served in the General Hospital Calcutta, in March, 1827, the time referred to by Mr. Twining, when the house was filled with cholera patients, and when all of us, Europeans and Natives, were exhausted with the labours of attending on the sick, but none of us suffered from the disease." Mauland, Armen, Chittagong, and the whole Delta of the Ganges were, during the first quarter of the year, under the influence of a severe outburst of cholera.

In May, 1827, Dr. Taylor writes to the Board from Agra, reporting that cholera "has prevailed, in an epidemic form, in all the villages within several miles round Agra; an immense number have fallen victims to its destructive influence." Dr. Skipton, from the same place, remarks that 23 cases of cholera

* Essays on the Epidemic Cholera of India, by R. Gordon.

† Report by Assistant-Surgeon J. V. M. Clark, M. S. Proceedings of the Bengal Medical Board for 1824.

‡ M. S. Proceedings of the Medical Board.

§ Reports on Epidemic Cholera, drawn up at the desire of the Cholera Committee of the Council of Physicians, by Drs. W. Ebery and W. Gaird, London, 1854, p. 118.

* See also Dempster's account of this epidemic in the Transactions of the Medical and Physical Society of Calcutta, Vol. III., p. 123.

† The influence of Tropical Climates on the European Constitution, by J. R. Martin, new edition, 1859, p. 247.

a tendency to subside more speedily than its predecessor of 1817-18. During the year 1826, some 503 cases of cholera occurred among the European troops, and in the General Hospital of this Presidency, in 1827 there were 812 cases, in 1828, 691, in 1829, 632, and in 1830, 277 cases.

(To be continued.)

NOTES ON CINCHONA CULTIVATION IN BRITISH SIKKIM (NEAR DARJEELING.)

(Continued from Vol. III, No. 8, page 179.)

By JOSEPH EWART, M.D.,

Professor of Physiology, Medical College of Bengal.

Seeds have already been procured from the *cinchona succirubra* and *cinchona officinalis*, and from these seeds excellent plants have been reared. The prosperity of the plantations is such that Dr. Anderson hopes to dispense with the present expensive system of artificial propagation by cuttings, and to extend the cultivation, to almost any extent, by means of seeds in 1859 Dr *cinchona officinalis*, and 1870 for *cinchona succirubra*. That this will be perfectly feasible, is manifest from the ease with which all the *cinchonas* under cultivation take root and grow, and also from the great productiveness of their fructification. Howard's analysis of the bark sent from Darjeeling further stamps the plantations as a complete success, as may be observed from the subjoined statement.

No. 1.

Oldest *succirubra* bark from a tree cut down thirty-one months after planting.

| DARJEELING. | OOTACAMUND. |
|--|---|
| Quinine, crystallizing freely as a salt 3.29 | Quinine, specimen of white sulph. sent 3.14 |
| Cinchonidine, a little quinine 2.27 | 2.96 |
| Cinchonine 1.03 | 0.83 |
| 6.19 | 6' |

This is a satisfactory return, and shews that the bark of *cinchona succirubra*, as cultivated at Darjeeling, is richer in the important alkaloids than that of a corresponding age grown on the Neigherry plantations.

The estimated produce of bark for this year is 3000lbs; that for 1869 not less than 3,000lbs. In September next there will be planted out from 700 to 800 acres, and by the end of 1870 the whole of the forest land cleared for cinchona cultivation, amounting to a total area of 1,500 or 2,000 acres, will be planted out.

The simplicity of cultivating cinchonas, as carried on at Darjeeling, is very striking. Propagation by cuttings from stock plants is effected with great rapidity. When the plants have been subjected to the hardening process, all that is needful is to place them in the soil by hand, no preliminary preparation being needed, excepting the marking out of the situation of each plant on the ground, from which the jungle has been thoroughly cleared and burnt, and the digging up of the soil to a depth of a foot or eighteen inches, and over a diameter of about 9 inches. The weather being favorable, a hole is made with the hand, the root of the plant placed in the same, and then surrounded with soil. No further precaution whatever is needed. There is no such thing as trenching—no surrounding of the young plants with bamboo or grass-frame-works to protect them from frost and storms, and extreme sunshine, no stripping of the plants of all but their top leaves, to enable them to withstand the violence of the winds, as are found essentially necessary at the Neigherry plantations. Neither is there any danger from wild animals. In fact, the only care is to see that the plants, after having been properly hardened, are carried out from the nurseries in dull, cloudy weather with slight showers. Heavy and prolonged rain, or much sunshine, is prejudicial to the plants newly put in the soil.

Labour is abundant—mainly derived from Nepal. Men are

procureable in almost any number at Rupees 6, women at Rupees 5, and boys at Rupees 4 per mensem.

The *Lanning Cinchona Association* is situated on the left bank of the Rangtee. One hundred and twenty acres are planted out with *cinchona succirubra*, and this looks very promising. The plants have not been in the open much more than a year, and they range from two to four feet in height. Mr. Munro is the Superintendent. He had no previous training, a fact which plainly shews that the propagation and cultivation of the cinchonas need very little of the cunning of the expert, as Mr. McTear would induce us to believe. By the end of September, Mr. Munro will have a hundred and twenty acres more planted, making a total of 240 acres. Mr. Southby, the Manager of the *Solon Tea Association*, has 10,000 very thriving *succirubra* plants, a year old, on various parts of the estates. They vary from two to four feet in height. Mr. Graham, of *Takoo*, is also successfully prosecuting the cultivation of the cinchonas. When Dr. Anderson is able to distribute abundance of seed, and this he will be in a position to do in a year or two, then the cinchonas may be extended, in favorable localities and climates, in this country, with as much ease as potatoes or oats. Once in the ground congenial to them, the cinchonas are extremely tenacious of life. They bear mutilation with impunity, and, under sowing, they repair severe injuries with great rapidity by granulation and cicatrization. Nay, when cut down to the ground, they spring up as quickly and vigorously as willows.

The existing mode of rearing and propagating cinchonas, rendered necessary owing to the dearth of seeds, is described as follows in Dr. Anderson's Report from 1st April 1865 to 31st March 1866.—

The progress of the open air plantation has been secured by separating a large number of plants of each species, as the stock from which the plants to form the plantation are procured. The cuttings of *cinchona succirubra* and *cinchona officinalis* now obtained, are grown solely for the purpose of planting in the open ground, and no cuttings are made from them. Thus, as healthy and vigorous plants are obtained as can ever be yielded by artificial propagation. The progress of the cultivation and advances made during the year will be understood by an account of the stages through which the plants pass before they are finally disposed of by planting in the permanent open air plantations. From the stock plants of each species which are planted in the soil in low, glazed wooden frames, a crop of cuttings is obtained monthly during the cold and dry periods of the year, and twice a month from May to October.

These cuttings, prepared by a European gardener assisted by trained natives, are planted in shallow, well-drained wooden boxes in coarse sand; 150 cuttings are placed in each box. These boxes fit closely into a wooden frame with glazed lights, in every respect like a cucumber frame; while in these frames, the cuttings are carefully sheltered by thin cloth nailed lightly over the glazed sashes, and also by mats which are placed over the sashes during the day. Great attention is given to the watering of the cuttings during the first month, as the slightest excess of moisture causes their decay. Water is given sparingly, and only by means of a garden syringe provided with a very finely pierced nose. In two or three days the drooping cuttings begin to look fresh and living, and by the end of three weeks, most of them have become provided with one or two delicate roots, and in three weeks more at the furthest, the process of hardening the young plants commences. This is effected by removing the boxes, with the cuttings still undisturbed, to other glazed frames (principally old cutting frames, where sashes from use and exposure do not fit tightly), into which air is admitted more and more daily, while the use of mats, as a protection against the sun, is dispensed with. After a fortnight of this treatment, the cuttings, now two months since they were taken from their parent plants, are placed, still undisturbed, in the boxes on terraced beds, protected from the sun and rain by a low roofing of mats

supersecretion of bile. In Reynolds' System of Medicine, Dr. E. Goodeve's exhaustive article, and a proper division of diarrhoea, will be found. I have nothing to say about the bilious forms; but a little consideration of bilious diarrhoea, or that attended with a deficient secretion of bile, may do us no harm. Dr. Goodeve (in addition to the other varieties) well describes one form of diarrhoea, *viz.*, the *chronic or cachectic, or white flux*. He does not think deficient secretion of bile is the exciting cause of the disease, but "that the liver derangement is merely a part of the great general disease which gave rise to blood changes." In the true *cachectic diarrhoea or white flux*, or in most of its forms, this is undoubtedly the case; and particularly so if amyloid degeneration of the villi and glands of the intestine is associated with it. Now and then, however, I think, we meet with cases of diarrhoea which are evidently caused by irregular action of the liver, and deficient secretion of bile. If, in a physiological point of view, we consider the changes that then take place in the alimentary canal, we need not wonder at diarrhoea supervening. In the present state of our knowledge of the action and uses of bile, these changes may briefly be summed up as follows:—(a). Fermentation proceeds unchecked, owing to the absence of bile in, or its non-admixture with, fermenting substances.

(b). The acidity of the gastric juice not being neutralized, acts as an irritant on the mucous membrane.

(c). Destructive changes in the composition of the chyme are not checked, and the very fetid colour of the discharges is increased.

(d). The capability of absorbing oleaginous matters is diminished.

(e). There is a decrease in the excitability of the muscular fibre of the villi, and a consequent retardation of the flow of chyle through the lacteals.

In the form of bilious diarrhoea under consideration, there are white chylous stools; or these may be slightly feculent or putrescent, or of a chalk and water like variety. The looseness of the bowels generally occurs in the morning and early part of the day. This state of health may go on for some time, and then anæmia and prostration of strength set in; and when they do, we have the cachectic diarrhoea or *white flux* as described by Dr. Goodeve; in fact, there is no difference in the symptoms of the diseases, and they may be the same affection, but one form arises from deficient secretion of bile *per se*, while the other forms of *white flux* are dependent on other causes, and are merely associated with bilious derangement in common with other morbid states of the system. The disease is very common in Ireland, and is sometimes attendant on epidemics of continued fever. The symptoms are aggravated by preparations of opium and astringents, but strychnia cures it quickly; and this drug was successfully employed by Drs. Duncan and Graves, of Dublin, and others. It is also recommended by Dr. Goodeve. For the last six years I have always used it in this form of diarrhoea. Under its use the stools change and contain bile; they become feculent; diminish in frequency, and the general health soon improves. The remedy in reduced doses, with preparations of iron, and a nourishing non-irritating diet, now complete the cure. The preparation I now always use is the liquor strychnia of the pharmacopœia, sometimes in combination with the tincture of sesquichloride of iron, and sometimes with nitro-muric acid. That the diarrhoea depends on sluggish action of the liver, and deficient secretion of bile, is, I think, proved by the action of the remedy. Strychnia increases the biliary secretion, exalts the sensibility, and imparts tone to the nerves and muscles. Dr. Ingram Spence says strychnia acts through the blood; and that its effects are not due to the deterioration of that fluid by rendering it incapable of absorbing oxygen.

Notes.—There are two chief varieties of jaundice, the one of which arises from suppression, and that from obstruction. Ac-

ording to Dr. Harley, "some of the constituents of the bile are generated in the liver itself," while others exist pre-formed in the blood * * * * In jaundice from obstruction, all the elements of the bile will be re-absorbed into the circulation; while in that from suppression, there will only be an accumulation in the blood of the coloring matter of bile and cholesterine, no bile acids being present, since it will have been formed." (*Tanner's Practice of Medicine*). In all cases of jaundice it is most important to determine whether there is suppression of bile or obstruction. We do this in order that we may employ the most appropriate remedies. In *Tanner's Practice of Medicine*, the following directions are given for this purpose. "Add gently to about two fluid drachms of urine half a drachm of strong sulphuric acid, and a fragment of loaf-sugar, the size of a pea. If at the line of contact of the two liquids a purple or scarlet colour is produced, it proves that the acids of the bile are present, and the jaundice is due to obstruction; but if merely a browning of the sugar be produced, the case is probably one of suppression." It is about jaundice from suppression I wish to speak, as its treatment is of course altogether different from that from obstruction. In the former there is no remedy like strychnia. In a bad case of jaundice in the Jail Hospital in 1867, I tried many of those remedies that are so highly recommended for promoting the secretion of bile, but without success; the disease not only showed no sign of abatement, but even got worse; and in despair I nearly gave up my patient, that is, all hopes of saving him. At this stage of the case a "happy thought" occurred to me—if strychnia cures bilious diarrhoea by promoting the secretion of bile, why should it not cure jaundice when it arises from suppression, or non-secretion? The drug was at once prescribed, and the man was well in a few days. Since then I never use any other remedy in jaundice from suppression.

Intermittent and Remittent Fevers.—Dr. Hall, in the pages of the *Indian Medical Gazette*, recommended strychnia in these diseases. In Myensing, in 1866, I treated for some months many private patients, and nearly all of my fever cases in the J. I. and Police Hospitals with liquor strychnia. The conclusions I arrived at are as follows:—

(a). In ordinary quotidian, tertian, or quartan ague, it is a valuable remedy, inferior to quinine, but superior to arsenic and native drugs.

(b). In remittent fevers it is too slow in its action, and consequently dangerous.

(c). In chronic intermittent fevers it is inferior to arsenic, that is, the latter drug is more likely than strychnia to cure an intermittent fever as quartan, extending over many weeks or months. This I experienced in my own person, although neither cured my fever.

(d). In convalescence after fevers, strychnia, in combination with the tincture of sesquichloride of iron, is a valuable tonic.

(e). I never found it, in from $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{8}$ of a grain doses three daily, to produce poisonous symptoms. One case (in Buxa) of a peculiar idiosyncrasy has, however, been recorded.

The action of strychnia on many nervous diseases is well known.

Dr. George Balfour recommends the administration of strychnia in cholera. (*Lancet*, Vol. I, 1867, page 8).

Dr. Charles Hunter recommends strychnia to be administered hypodermically in paralytic affections (*Med. Chir. Rev.*, Vol. XII, page 115), and perhaps if administered in this way in other diseases, its action might be more apparent.

Dr. Chevall's case of poisoning by strychnia (in the Calcutta Medical College Hospital) goes to show that tobacco can be used without it as an antidote. He administered the remedy as an infusion.

RAYNHAM, *June*, 1868.

Note.—The reader is referred to "Warning on Therapeutics" for much valuable information on the actions and uses of these drugs.—*Ed.*, J. M. G.

4,000 of the particular caste,) above alluded to, must also be taken into consideration.

7. The original of Statement A was necessarily prepared *in haste*, and is so recorded in this office. I have not, however, thought it requisite to trouble you with the details which it involves, and therefore submit the return *hastily*.

8. You will perceive, in column 16 of Statement B, two casualties recorded between the ages 195 and 100. I made special

enquiries in these cases; and, as far as I could ascertain, they are represented correctly.

I have &c.
 ALFRED NATHAN SUB-DEPUTY OP. AG. W. MASHERS, *Acting Sub-Deputy Opium Agency*,
 The 14th February, 1861.

(True copy)
 W. MASHERS,
Sub-Deputy Opium Agency,
 The 30th August, 1861.

Statement showing the number of Deaths amongst the several Castes of Opium Cultivators in the Sub-Deputy Opium Agency of Allypore during the Opium Year 1859-60.

| 1 | NAME OF CASTE. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 |
|--|----------------|-----------|---------|-----------|----------|---------|----------|---------|---------|--------|---------|----------|---------|--------|-----------------|--|--|--|----------|----|
| | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | | | | | |
| NAME OF KOTHEE | Boorsee. | Moochund. | Altoor. | Koosmeer. | Bojjoor. | Benham. | Channar. | Doozal. | Kurloo. | Taloo. | Cooree. | Bloohar. | Noonah. | Lohar. | Various Castes. | Total number of deaths in 1859-60 in each kotha. | Total number of opium plants per settlement of 16 kothas and kothas below. | Percentage mortality amongst opium cultivators in 1859-60. | Remarks. | |
| Goa change ... | 82 | 36 | 39 | 11 | 12 | 11 | 11 | 8 | 5 | 5 | 12 | 3 | 6 | 1 | 48 | 917 | 42,760 | 1.51 | | |
| Soolah ... | 153 | 33 | 33 | 55 | 6 | 11 | 11 | 13 | 18 | 12 | 5 | 19 | 12 | 41 | 306 | 11,012 | 3.22 | | | |
| Shyash ... | 33 | 13 | 19 | 21 | 19 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 9 | 4 | 9 | 3 | 38 | 210 | 18,270 | 1.31 | | | |
| Total number of deaths ... | 277 | 106 | 85 | 76 | 39 | 71 | 32 | 29 | 32 | 29 | 26 | 17 | 19 | 15 | 130 | 983 | 48,210 | | | |
| Total number of opium plants belonging to each caste in this subdivision ... | 10,215 | 5,963 | 5,140 | 3,485 | 3,469 | 3,200 | 2,245 | 1,619 | 1,534 | 1,112 | 1,074 | 1,078 | 994 | 919 | 6,522 | | | | | |
| Percentage of mortality amongst each caste in this subdivision ... | 2.70 | 1.98 | 1.65 | 2.18 | 1.15 | 2.22 | 1.45 | 1.79 | 2.0 | 2.34 | 2.12 | 1.60 | 1.91 | 1.96 | 1.88 | | | 2.1 | 1.51 | |

Statement showing the various Causes of Death, Number of Casualties, and Ages of Deceased, amongst the Opium Cultivators of the Allypore Sub-Deputy Opium Agency, during the Opium Year 1859-60.

| 1 | AGES OF DECEASED. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 17 | 18 |
|---------------------------|-------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|---|----------|----|
| | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | | | |
| NATURE OF DISEASE. | 15 to 20 | 20 to 25 | 25 to 30 | 30 to 35 | 35 to 40 | 40 to 45 | 45 to 50 | 50 to 55 | 55 to 60 | 60 to 65 | 65 to 70 | 70 to 75 | 75 to 80 | 80 to 85 | 85 to 100 | Grand Total. | Remarks. | |
| Fever, and Fever and Ague | 29 | 23 | 85 | 41 | 158 | 29 | 108 | 9 | 195 | 29 | 41 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 642 | I have no report of any deaths from this cause. | | |
| Cough | 14 | 13 | 46 | 19 | 11 | 1 | 31 | 6 | 22 | 5 | 1 | ... | ... | ... | 113 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Dyspepsia | 1 | 2 | 7 | 2 | 15 | 5 | 6 | 3 | 10 | 1 | 3 | 2 | ... | ... | 55 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Dysentery and Diarrhoea | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 4 | ... | 2 | 3 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 11 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Malaria | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 10 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Alimentum and Gout | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 3 | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 10 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Wounds | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 3 | ... | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 6 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Cancer | ... | ... | ... | ... | 2 | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 4 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Scrophulous | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 4 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Encephal | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 4 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Jandoo | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 3 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Sukanta | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | 1 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Apoplexy | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | 1 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Paralysis | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | Deaths from this cause are not reported. | | |
| Total | 48 | 42 | 116 | 60 | 228 | 37 | 152 | 24 | 115 | 37 | 53 | 7 | 2 | 2 | 863 | | | |

ALLYPORE SUB-DEPUTY OP. AG. W. MASHERS, *Acting Sub-Deputy Opium Agency*,
 The 14th February, 1861. (True Copy)

The above return is valuable, because it is reliable. In the subsequent day, a severe treatment of opium was tried in the same way? As the *Dobson Medical Gazette* is read by subscribers who are unacquainted with Hindustani, or any other of the languages of a translation of the local terms would be acceptable. —Eng. J. M. G.

SUMMARY OF FIFTY POST-MORTEM EXAMINATIONS OF INHABITANTS OF THE JESSORE DISTRICT PERFORMED IN THE JAIL HOSPITAL.

By KENNETH McLEOD, A.M., M.D., F.R.C.S.E.,
Civil Assistant Surgeon of Jessore.

I.—WEIGHT OF THE MOST IMPORTANT ORGANS, AND THEIR RELATION TO BODY WEIGHT.

The examinations which form the subject of the following notes were all, with two or three exceptions, performed by myself, and the facts in each case were noted at the time of performance. The summary will possess a peculiar ethnological and pathological value, from the circumstance that all the subjects examined were natives of this district. So many cases of individuals, whose life and ancestry are confined within so small an area, can only be obtained amongst a people of stationary propensities, and not possessing facilities or inclination to migrate. In them we possess indications not only of the pathological effects of the circumstances of life peculiar to the area in question, as regards individuals, but also as regards race; for the conditions which produce changes in the individual, so violent as to come under the domain of pathology, must also produce changes of a physiological kind in the succession of generations, which will constitute peculiarities of conformation of the race. The time when such records can be easily collected is rapidly passing away. Education and enlightenment, combined with increased facilities for migrating, will eventually break down the barriers which now separate races, and geographical distribution and classification of the animal; man will become more and more a thing of the past. Now is the time to gather statistics of this kind with ease and accuracy. Large questions, such as this, require large inductions, and many simultaneously labouring; and were data collected on a plan somewhat similar to that of the following article in every district in India,—and there is no difficulty whatever in doing so,—the information gained would be of the utmost value. As now we are able to map out the country, as regards its physical and meteorological features, so we might be able to map out its inhabitants, as regards their physical conformation, physiological peculiarities, and pathological tendencies. I coincide with Dr. Francis in his remark on this subject, in an article on "Fatty Degeneration," (*Indian Medical Gazette*, Vol. III., p. 150.) most thoroughly; only I would have the investigation conducted on the broadest basis, and on some uniform system. With these remarks I shall place my observations on record without further comment. The serial number attached to each case in Table No. I. will be preserved strictly as indicating the cases throughout the discussion.

1. *Scale and weights employed.*—The same scale and weights were used for all the cases. The scale is English, and the weights, which I have carefully tested, are the "bazaar weights" of 80 tolas to the seer, and 40 seers to the moul. The bodies were weighed without clothes on an accurate balance, showing bazaar weights supplied for the purpose of weighing prisoners. The weights are thus thoroughly uniform, and capable of easy reduction to English weights.

2. *Body weight.*—The average weight of the 50 bodies, all males, is 49 s. 4.7 ch. (82.73 lbs. avoird.) This is considerably below the weight of the bodies of living males of this district. The average weight of 4,439 persons belonging to the Jessore district, mostly males and adults, admitted into the Jessore Jail during the years 1862 to 67, I find to be 1 m. l. 11s. 9.6 ch. (105.91 lbs. avoird.) I also found the body weight of 29 males, aged from 18 to 55 years, whom I selected as healthy adults, to be 1 m. l. 12 s. 10.2 ch. (118.08 lbs. avoird.) The average height of these persons was 5 feet 3.5 inches. From these data, 1 m. l. 12 s. (106.77 lbs. avoird., or 7.6 stones) may be taken as a fair average of the weight of adult males of this district. This gives a deficit of

11 s. 11.3 ch. (24 lbs. nearly) to be debited to the effect of sickness and the wasting of tissue, which, in the large majority of cases, precedes the fatal issue. As this wasting must detract from the net body weight a much larger proportion than from the weight of the several organs, the relation of the several organs to body weight must be considerably under-stated, by taking the average body weight from the dead. Another difficulty in adjudging the true proportion of the weight of organs to body weight,—and I take this to be the correct index of the real weight for purposes of comparison,—consists in the circumstance that many of the organs which go to constitute the average in each case are in morbid condition. The problem to be solved, therefore, is a more complex one than at first appears. It is, *first*, to ascertain the correct average weight of the organs in a state of health in the adult; and, *secondly*, to compare these with a true body weight got from a large number of cases. The first of these objects can only be attained after the influence of age, disease, and morbid condition is eliminated. This will form the subject of analysis in a future communication. The second point has been already determined.

3. *Brain weight.*—The average weight of the whole brain mass is 1 s. 5.9 ch. (44.95 oz.). The range is from 1 s. 11 ch. (55.42 oz.) to 1 s. ½ ch. (33.87 oz.): mean 1 s. 5.7 ch., which comes very near the average. The number 1 s. 5 ch. occurs oftener than any other. The relation of the average weight of the brain mass to the average body weight is 1 to 30, and to the corrected body weight (1 s. 12 ch.) 1 to 38. This relation fluctuates between 1 to 42 and 1 to 16.

The *cerebrum* gives an average weight of 1 s. 3.07 ch. (39.0 oz.): 1 s. 2 ch. (36.9 oz.) is the most frequently occurring number. The range is from 1 s. 8 ch. (50.26 oz.) down to 1 ½ ch. (29.76 oz.): mean 1 seer 3.2 ch. (39.41 oz.). The proportion to average body weight is 1 to 33.8, and to corrected body weight 1 to 43.7. The proportion to body weight ranges from 1 to 59 to 1 to 19.

The *hemispheres* average each 9 ½ ch. (19.42 oz.). They are equal in weight, except in two instances, in which the left hemisphere has the advantage.

The *cerebellum* averages 2.3 ch. (4.71 oz.). Its weight ranges from 3 ch. (6.15 oz.) down to 1 ¼ ch. (3.07 oz.): mean 2.25 ch. The average proportion to the weight of the cerebrum is 1 to 8.2, and to that of the whole body 1 to 280. Taking the corrected number for body weight, the proportion is 1 to 361.

The *medulla oblongata* and *pons varioli* together give an average weight of ½ ch. (1.02 oz.); a proportion of 1.38 to the cerebrum, and 1 to 1289 to the average body weight, or 1 to 1661 to corrected body weight.

I have no record of the weight of the spinal cord. These facts may be taken to express the normal weight of the brain and its divisions; for, as we shall hereafter find, these organs were found in nearly every case.

4. *The lungs.*—The right lung gives a greater average weight than the left, of 2.4 ch. (1.92 oz.). The average weight of the organ is 10.7 ch. (21.95 oz.). The range is from 2 s. 2 ch. (69.8 oz.) to 4 ch. (8.21 oz.): mean 1 s. 3 ch. (23oz.); 6, 7, 8, and 9 ch. are the most occurring numbers. The proportion to body weight is 1 to 64 or 1 to 77 of corrected body weight. The range is from 1 to 197 to 1 to 20. This betokens a great fluctuation in condition.

The left lung averages 8.3 ch. (17.02 oz.). The weight ranges from 1 s. 6 ½ ch. (46.18 oz.) to 4 ch. (8.21 oz.): mean 13 ½ ch. (27.09 oz.). The most frequently recurring figures are 5, 6, and 7, and fractions of them. The proportion to body weight is 1 to 77, or 1 to 109 of healthy body weight. The proportion varies from 1 to 159 to 1 to 22.

5. The *heart* gives an average of 3.8 ch. (7.79 oz.), and varies from 7 ½ ch. (15.79 oz.) to 2 ch. (4.10 oz.): mean 1.87 ch.

TABLE NO. 1

| 1894 | | 1895 | |
|------|-----|------|-----|
| Age | Sex | Age | Sex |
| 10 | M | 10 | M |
| 11 | F | 11 | F |
| 12 | M | 12 | M |
| 13 | F | 13 | F |
| 14 | M | 14 | M |
| 15 | F | 15 | F |
| 16 | M | 16 | M |
| 17 | F | 17 | F |
| 18 | M | 18 | M |
| 19 | F | 19 | F |
| 20 | M | 20 | M |
| 21 | F | 21 | F |
| 22 | M | 22 | M |
| 23 | F | 23 | F |
| 24 | M | 24 | M |
| 25 | F | 25 | F |
| 26 | M | 26 | M |
| 27 | F | 27 | F |
| 28 | M | 28 | M |
| 29 | F | 29 | F |
| 30 | M | 30 | M |
| 31 | F | 31 | F |
| 32 | M | 32 | M |
| 33 | F | 33 | F |
| 34 | M | 34 | M |
| 35 | F | 35 | F |
| 36 | M | 36 | M |
| 37 | F | 37 | F |
| 38 | M | 38 | M |
| 39 | F | 39 | F |
| 40 | M | 40 | M |
| 41 | F | 41 | F |
| 42 | M | 42 | M |
| 43 | F | 43 | F |
| 44 | M | 44 | M |
| 45 | F | 45 | F |
| 46 | M | 46 | M |
| 47 | F | 47 | F |
| 48 | M | 48 | M |
| 49 | F | 49 | F |
| 50 | M | 50 | M |
| 51 | F | 51 | F |
| 52 | M | 52 | M |
| 53 | F | 53 | F |
| 54 | M | 54 | M |
| 55 | F | 55 | F |
| 56 | M | 56 | M |
| 57 | F | 57 | F |
| 58 | M | 58 | M |
| 59 | F | 59 | F |
| 60 | M | 60 | M |
| 61 | F | 61 | F |
| 62 | M | 62 | M |
| 63 | F | 63 | F |
| 64 | M | 64 | M |
| 65 | F | 65 | F |
| 66 | M | 66 | M |
| 67 | F | 67 | F |
| 68 | M | 68 | M |
| 69 | F | 69 | F |
| 70 | M | 70 | M |
| 71 | F | 71 | F |
| 72 | M | 72 | M |
| 73 | F | 73 | F |
| 74 | M | 74 | M |
| 75 | F | 75 | F |
| 76 | M | 76 | M |
| 77 | F | 77 | F |
| 78 | M | 78 | M |
| 79 | F | 79 | F |
| 80 | M | 80 | M |
| 81 | F | 81 | F |
| 82 | M | 82 | M |
| 83 | F | 83 | F |
| 84 | M | 84 | M |
| 85 | F | 85 | F |
| 86 | M | 86 | M |
| 87 | F | 87 | F |
| 88 | M | 88 | M |
| 89 | F | 89 | F |
| 90 | M | 90 | M |
| 91 | F | 91 | F |
| 92 | M | 92 | M |
| 93 | F | 93 | F |
| 94 | M | 94 | M |
| 95 | F | 95 | F |
| 96 | M | 96 | M |
| 97 | F | 97 | F |
| 98 | M | 98 | M |
| 99 | F | 99 | F |
| 100 | M | 100 | M |

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

A CASE OF HERMAPHRODITISM.

By JOHN MURRAY, M.D.,

Carl Simon, Malabar.

The following curious case of hermaphroditism, so-called, which occurred lately in the District Jail at this station, may possibly be thought worthy of some notice. The individual whose peculiarities I am about to describe was sentenced to rigorous imprisonment for six months, and was mentioned as a *female* in the Magistrate's warrant. To avoid confusion, therefore, while I relate the history of the case, I shall take it for granted that the assumption of the Magistrate is correct.

My attention was first directed to the case last January by the Jailor, who informed me that he had some misgivings as to the real sex of a convict who was at present confined among the female prisoners.

According to his statement, this *persona* had attempted to take improper liberties with one of the females on the previous night. On this circumstance being reported to him, he had examined the accused woman, and observed, much to his surprise, that she had a *penis*, which he described to me as being of "a *very good length*," and altogether he seemed to think that he had a very doubtful person to deal with.

On proceeding to inspect the woman, I was greatly struck with her thoroughly masculine appearance. She seemed about 30 years of age, and about 5 feet 4 inches in height. She had large square shoulders, and the muscles of both chest and limbs were strongly developed. The mammae were altogether absent, and she had a hard and harsh voice.

On examining the organs of generation, a very much enlarged clitoris was observed protruding from the upper part of the labial fissure. It was more than an inch in length, and exactly resembled a small penis. There was no orifice in the glans. At the root of the clitoris there was a cutaneous pouch, which contained one testicle about the size of an olive.

On fully separating the labia, the meatus urinarius was observed occupying pretty near its usual situation, but there was no other opening or canal of any kind, and not a trace of a vagina. I ought also to mention that there was no hair on any part of the face.

The woman positively asserted that she menstruated every two months, and that the secretion escaped by the urethral orifice. This statement, however, is unsupported by evidence of any kind. She stated that she had never in her life experienced sexual desire, and actively denied ever having taken liberties with any of the female prisoners. She considered herself to be a man, and had never doubted the fact for a moment. She appeared to possess considerable intelligence, and was rather ashamed of her physical peculiarities. From what I have mentioned, her claims to be considered a female may be thought somewhat questionable; but on this point I refrain from offering an opinion, merely remarking that she cannot be said, strictly speaking, to belong to either sex; as the malformation I have described must almost certainly have occurred through an arrest of development at that early period of fetal existence when the organs of generation in both sexes are the same.

2nd June, 1868.

CASE OF HEMIPLEGIA OCCURRING AFTER COLD AND DAMP, SUCCESSFULLY TREATED BY STRYCHNIA AND GALVANISM.

By R. D. Linn,

Carl Simon, Parangipoh.

The following case came under my observation during the winter of 1867—

Miss O., a healthy, robust-looking girl, of florid complexion, with dark brown hair, aged 14, born and brought up in the F.M.S., was attacked with hemiplegia of the right side of the body on the 5th February, after exposure to a heavy rain storm, while out for an airing the evening before.

I first saw my patient on the morning of the 8th, and I found the following history of her case from her mother, who informed me that her daughter was seized by a heavy shower of rain on the evening previous to the attack, which was not thought of as being of any consequence, as she had not had any treatment, without changing, she slept peacefully that night, and in the morning, when she rose from her bed, her mother remarked that the right side of her body was powerless. On

examining the pld. I observed the following symptoms—The arm and leg of the affected side flaccid as if lifeless, all power of motion in them being destroyed, the arm hangs by her side, and is drawn a little backwards; she can walk, but only with a staggering gait, as if she were going to fall every moment, and drags the affected leg after her with difficulty; convulsions of twitching in both limbs, especially so in the arm, mostly drawn a little to the opposite side, when asked to put out her tongue, the patient does so with difficulty, when put out the point of it was turned to the affected side, can shut and open both eyes well; deglutition unimpaired; voice thick and indistinct; when making efforts to articulate, ends with the constant use and repetition of some unmeaning phrase, and becomes irritated at finding she is unable to express herself at once. There is partial anaesthesia of the parts affected, when pinched, feels more in the leg than in the arm; temperature on both sides of the body alike. Mental faculties unimpaired; temperament excited; has no headache, and, so far as I could learn, has never suffered from chills, hysterics, or epilepsy. Appetite impaired, bowels constipated. Tongue clean, pulse slow and irregular. After the most minute examination, I failed to detect any injury of the brain or spinal cord; and the only thing I could detect from the girl's mother, was that five or six previously the girl had a severe cold, when had her up for a time, but from which she made a rapid recovery, and had been in excellent health and spirits ever since. (Being horse exercise almost every evening.) I also learned that the girl had never been convulsed. This, I imagined at the time, might in some way be connected with, or account for, the symptoms above described. The bowels at the same time being constipated, and my patient complaining of occasional headaches, led me in the first instance to adopt the following plan of treatment, which I endeavoured to change for strychnia and the use of the galvanic battery daily, with happy results, as the sequel proved.

R. Pil aloes C. myrrhae, grs. iij.

every night going to bed.

5th February.—No change this morning, bowels acted on once during the night, slept well, tongue clean, tried to articulate, but cannot, and is so anxious that she cannot lift her hand to her head to comb her hair, which she had made several unsuccessful efforts to accomplish. Continue pill as last night.

10th.—Much the same as yesterday; complaints of pain at the back of head, and appears frightful, bowels open; appetite good; pulse small and irregular.

Continue pill at night; apply a small blister to nape of neck.

After continuing the aloes and myrrh pill for more than a fortnight without inducing the monthly motion, or producing any change in the symptoms, I prescribed strychnia to be taken every morning and evening in very minute doses at first, and directed the aloes and myrrh to be given every other night. In a week after my patient commenced taking the strychnia, a decided improvement in the symptoms became manifest, but as the twitching of the arm and leg increased, I had to reduce the dose of strychnia from $\frac{1}{16}$ th to $\frac{1}{32}$ th grain twice a day, which was now steadily continued in connection with the use of the galvanic battery once daily for a month, at the end of which time a marked improvement was observed in my patient, who, with great satisfaction when I visited her on the morning, told me that she could very nearly comb her own hair again. The aloes and myrrh pill was now discontinued, and an occasional slight purge given instead; this, with another blister to the nape, completed the cure, my patient being well enough at the end of two months to ride on horse back again. The R. Pil aloes and C. myrrhae were the longest in recovering its full power.

REMARKS.—As I have never seen on record of a case of pld. occurring after cold and damp, the way in which the symptoms above detailed has attended, which appears the more remarkable from such a young so readily to treatment.

Carl Simon, 19th June, 1868.

Notices to Correspondents.

Dr. J. B. NEWTON, M.V., New York.

D. J. Linn, Esq., Parangipoh, Malabar, F.M.S.

A. C. SIMON, Esq., Parangipoh, Malabar, F.M.S.

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D. J. Linn, Esq., Parangipoh, Malabar, F.M.S.

ever, at one time, students at the College, but that they were either unable to pass the examination at the end of their studies, or that they left the institution after having completed only one or two terms there. Now, this is a crying evil; and it is said that the law cannot touch these deceivers. We venture to doubt this. That singularly comprehensive and classic book of law, the *Penal Code*, has an Act No. XLV, of 1860, Section 415, headed "*Chattings*," in which a man, who pretends to be what he is not, renders himself liable to punishment.

The best remedy undoubtedly would be, as suggested at a meeting of the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association, to extend to Calcutta the English "Medical Act," which, by the way, has not done all the good it might, even in London, have done, *although the slaves* of the Council have cost the public 12s. 6d. a minute! But, pending this, we would strongly advise that the capabilities of the Penal Code be tested. We doubt not that it will be found sufficiently effective for the purpose. Some one possessed of sufficient public spirit, energy, and leisure must come forward and prosecute.

SUBORDINATE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

We have received several enquiries on the subject of the new rules for the Subordinate Medical Department, with reference, more especially, to the *training* of youths. We would say, in reply, that there are many *moot* points which, being difficult of solution, have, we understand, been referred to the Government. In the course of a few weeks, we may be able to reply satisfactorily to our correspondents. With regard to the Widows' and Orphans' Fund, we may state that we are in correspondence with a senior member of the Department, to whom we have communicated whatever information we were in possession of, and to whom we have likewise suggested a course of action which seems likely to lead to a satisfactory result. But our friends must not be too impatient. *Final Arrangements and Boards*, and such like ponderous machines, are naturally endowed with *tortoise* habits. It is not in their constitution to move at railway speed, as some of our correspondents seem to expect them to do.

THE PROPOSED MEDICAL SCHOOL AT RANGOON.

THE supply of native doctors for service in British Burmah from the resources of the Bengal Medical Department has long been a matter of considerable difficulty, and this notwithstanding the fact, that the pay, when a native doctor is ordered to Burmah, is increased to the extent of 50 per cent. They almost invariably object to serve in that country, and even if they are pushed hard to comply with orders, they—(1) of greater length of service than seven years—with few exceptions claim the privilege of discharge from the service, (2) of a more moderate employment which is equally distasteful and unprofitable. The climate, it is all agreed, is inimical to the natives of Bengal. The expenses of living are barely covered by the increased pay. There are almost insuperable obstacles to the transport of native doctors' families. Illness, even if there, and experience proves that, after a brief residence, characterized by unwillingness and discontent, they are compelled to return to Bengal wrecked in health.

Under such circumstances as these, Dr. W. A. Green, the Inspector General, Medical Department, Lower Provinces, suggested the advisability of having the Subordinate Medical Department in Burmah recruited from the Madras Medical College, under the impression that the natives of that Presidency were less obnoxious to the climate of British Burmah than the Hindoostanees. He, however, pointed out the probability of the Medical authorities of that Presidency to meet the requirements of the Subordinate Medical Service in Burmah. And such really appears to be the case. For the Inspector General of the Indian Medical Department, Madras, observes that the Principal of the Medical College is unable to receive more than 33 pupils each session, and the passed men out of this number are already found inadequate to meet the ordinary requirements of the Army and Civil Departments of the Madras Presidency. Moreover, supernumeraries go to Burmah, when ordered, *unwillingly* , in consequence of the much greater cost of living there, to meet which they have no increase of pay granted to them like the native doctors furnished from Bengal; and it would seem that the climate of Burmah is not less inimical to the natives of the Madras Presidency, than to those of Bengal.

Dr. Green points out two methods by which the difficulty in question may be surmounted. The *first* is, that Government should authorize a sufficient increase of subordinate servants on the Madras medical establishment, to enable it to meet the demands of the Chief Commissioner; or, *secondly* , that a school should be established, if practicable, for the education of native doctors at Rangoon, upon the model of those at Agra and Nagpore. It would now appear that the Madras Government are disposed to adopt the first alternative. The Junior Principal of the Medical College has been requested to explain the reason why only 33 pupils could be received into the Junior Department in 1868, and to indicate the arrangements which might be necessary in order to increase by about twenty the number of pupils either from the Presidency, or from Burmah, if natives of that country, capable of receiving instruction in the English language, are willing to come to the Medical College at Madras. We apprehend the reason is plain enough—want of accommodation for shelter, and the maintenance of discipline in obedience to the Articles of War. If, therefore, it be the case that considerable expense will have to be incurred before the additional twenty students can be accommodated, it becomes a question whether, in view of all the circumstances of the case, it is desirable, expedient, or prudent, to incur any outlay in this direction for the accomplishment of the object in view.

Should the supply of subordinate medical servants for Burmah be chiefly met direct from Madras, in the manner so far contemplated by the local Government, the ill effects of the climate upon the natives of Madras, and the great expense of living, still remain as barriers to the success of the scheme. An increase of 50 per cent. has not succeeded in removing the reluctance of Bengal native doctors to take willing service in the country. Is it probable that a similar increase to the pay of the hospital assistants of Madras will prove more successful? That an adequate number of educated Birmese will be tempted to go to Madras, in conformity to the participation of a medical subordinate, may be regarded as problematical. But the scheme of the Madras Government is one which

of the Government of the East. West Bengal, and the Andhra Provinces, and the Chief Commissioner of the Province of Burma, and the Chief Commissioner of the Province of Mysore.

The resolution proposed by Dr. G. G. G. is that which we would all commend. The Board of Council of Madras is, in the way of this, a valuable authority to the suggestion, and it is to be hoped that the Chief Commissioner of British Burma will have to propose to take the necessary steps for the establishment of a Medical School in Rangoon to meet the requirements of the people of that country. Burma has now a Director of Public Instruction, and with his officers superintending and controlling an elaborate system of general education amongst the natives, and must by this time be ripe for the formation of a medical school to be organized at Rangoon, to be supported for the instruction of medical students at Agra and Nagpur. The medical necessities of the country have prominently brought to light by the heads of the Medical Department in Bengal and Madras, clearly indicate that an opportunity has presented itself to the Chief Commissioner for the best of an excellent blessing upon an important position, and his management, by laying the foundation of a Medical School at Rangoon. What Lord Willoughby did for Bengal in 1855, Thomson for the North-West Provinces in 1854, Sir John Lawrence for the Punjab in 1863, and Sir Richard Temple for the Central Provinces in 1867. Chief Ryland possesses the power, if he chooses to exercise it, of accomplishing for British Burma in 1898.

That the Burmese are apt at receiving general and medical education, we know to be the fact. Dr. Low, a graduate in medicine at one of the American Universities, as a Burmese. We saw him on his return to London, and we were highly pleased with his general education and attainments. But the fact that he obtained his medical education half-way round the globe. What we want now is an opportunity for the development and growth of a sound medical education in the East at Rangoon. Let medical instruction be conveyed to the Burmese in their own country. In short we are anxious to see young Burmese bright men in a medical school of their own. When this much has been accomplished, the demand for medical aid from Bengal or Madras will cease. Not only the Rangoon Medical School supply all the wants of the population, but the surplus will be turned in the way of the European system of medicine among the civil population of the country, and thus the greater good to the Government will be obtained, a permanent and remedial medical philosophy, physical and mental economy.*

It is now we understand, being settled that a Medical School to be established in Rangoon, and that its operations, the study of anatomy, are to be limited to the instruction of students who are to be taught in the "Native Doctena" and to comply. The time will come when the higher class of "A. A. and Surgeon" must be created, and the creation of a preliminary class.

The course being determined upon, the next point for con-

sideration is,—in what *language* are the students to receive instruction? Upon this subject we hold a very strong opinion. *The language ought unquestionably to be English.* Quite enough English has been taught in Burma, even up to the present time, to satisfy the authorities in insisting upon that qualification. The students need not be "A. A. and Surgeon," all that is required is a sufficient acquaintance with the language to enable them to *understand the Lectures, and to write practical prescriptions.* Of course, more than a mere smattering is necessary to enable them to do this; but with the requisite attainments we believe that the educated youth of Burma are sufficiently familiar. It must not be supposed that we are too stringent in our demands. The era is progressive, and the time has arrived when the Government has a right to expect superior qualifications to those with which native doctors have hitherto been wont to pass for competent first classmen. It is no uncommon thing for such to mistake *Calamine, Cerate, for Calceol.*

Prior to the admission of students into the Medical Institution at Rangoon, we would urge that they should have been required to pass two or three years in a civil or regimental hospital, under the observation of the European Medical Officer. This is the Madras system, and it is found to answer very well.

VACCINATION.

It has been suggested to us that the remarks which we made last month on the subject of "inoculation being made penal" may lead careless readers to suppose that we advocate this measure *at all hazards.* We regret that our meaning should have appeared at all obscure, but, to do away with any misconception on this subject, we would state at once that we only advocate a penalty being put upon the practice of inoculation for small-pox in those localities where the efficacy of the vaccine prophylactic may be *thoroughly depended upon,* and where the system of supervision is complete. Otherwise, we would not oppose a well-ordered system of inoculation,—one in which the name of each inoculator was registered, and his work superintended. But *we would push vaccination where ever possible, provided our vaccine was reliable.* To secure such a virus, and to promote the absorption of inoculators, are objects at which we should systematically and zealously aim. We are aware that, in the former respect, Dr. Charles, the Superintendent General of Vaccination in Calcutta, has been eminently successful; and it is interesting and encouraging to know that of the 26 vaccinators employed during the past vaccinating season in the Darjeeling circle, 12 were *quarantined inoculators.* In the Hazaribagh circle, where inoculators for small-pox have, for the past ten years, given up so inoculating, the practice has been adopted by the *Subdivisional*, or vaccination officer, three of whom are now vaccinators.

"It is not on fait les gros heres."

TO THE NELLGHERRIES AND BACK.

(Continued from page 187, Vol. III.)

Between Calcutta and Madras there is not much sea-journey to speak of. At the same time there is quite sufficient to bring plenty of *disagreements* with it to those who are indifferent sailors; therefore, a good vessel and a favorable season (where these are left a matter of choice) should be among the

* See the "Medical Education of the People of British India," in the Indian Medical Gazette, 1897, p. 100.

first considerations. The trip being made frequently during the hot season, or about the time of the *Toorga Tooga* holidays,—in the autumn in fact,—it is of paramount importance that a vessel of some size should, if possible, be selected. In the height of the S.W. monsoon, (always an adverse wind,) with an adverse sea, although the passage may, even under these circumstances, not occupy more than five or six days, it will often happen that the passengers, and especially the lady portion, are driven below; when, if the saloon and cabins be small, an amount of misery must be endured, which these only who have gone through, and survived it, can appreciate. For the same reason, it is well to fix upon a steamer which can “carry her ports open” in rough weather. Four or five years ago, the English P. & O. Company fitted up three or four of their vessels with a few upper-deck cabins for passengers, situated at the stern. Now, these have all been done away with; and, we venture to think, a very serious mistake has been committed. Most undoubtedly, the existence of such accommodation for invalids was an incalculable boon. Conceive the poor victim of hepatic abscess, suffering at the same time from diarrhoea, one to whom air is everything, and who has been “got off” to sea as quickly as possible to secure it; conceive such an one compelled to leave the deck every half-hour or so, and descend below in obedience to urgent calls! Of what benefit will the sea air be to him? We have witnessed such a case, and of the very many; and we have no hesitation in saying that the sufferer’s end was hastened in consequence of the debility and irritation resulting from these repeated descents. Had an upper-deck cabin been available, or had the cabin which he occupied been constructed on the principle which the cabins of the P. and O. vessels ought to be, the patient would have been placed under the most favorable circumstances possible, instead of the worst, and he would certainly have been ensured, so far, a peaceful passage.

How many of those who are passengers on these vessels are more or less ill in various ways! We are confident that the confinement below frequently neutralizes the advantages of thesea trip to many such. It is urged that these upper-deck cabins interfere with the symmetry of the vessel. But who cares about symmetry in sickness? We cannot think that the Directors of the P. and O. Company would for one moment allow such an objection to have any weight, if it were represented to them that the advantages of such cabins were really very decided. No one, on the other hand, we believe, denies the advantages; but it is, further, argued, that there is always so much jealousy and such heart-burnings on the part of those who have not been fortunate enough to secure them! This we understand to be the real reason why the cabins have been done away with. There is no nautical objection to them, we imagine? But, surely, the step was unnecessarily precipitate. Could no arrangement have been made by which the really very sick, and they alone, should occupy such cabins? The other passengers would never grudge them if they saw that no partiality was shown. The selection, we should think, could very readily be made under the superintendence of the Medical Superintendent and the Surgeon of the ship. Has this ever been tried? Such cabins should be known as *Invaliol Cabins*, and no attempt should be made to appropriate them to any other purpose.

We write strongly upon this point, having frequently made

passages on the P. and O. steamers, and having as frequently witnessed the great discomfort to which invalids are subjected in the absence of upper-deck cabins, or of *habitable* cabins below. In this respect, sailing ships possess great advantages over steamers so constructed. It is not so on the Cunard line of Steamers, or in the West India Mail Packets, which, by the one between England and America, and the other between England and the West Indies. In the former vessels there are, we believe, several cabins of the kind which we advocate,—a kind of poop-cabin; and if they succeed—as we understand they do—with one Company, surely they might with another? The cabins in the West India Mail Packets, where the decks are flush, are very large. It is singular that, in the portion of the passage between England and India, where there should be the greatest space and the freest ventilation provided for passengers, &c., between the Indian port and Suez, there are actually the least. The P. and O. steamers (in the Mediterranean) of *both* Companies, French as well as English, are magnificent. Is there any good nautical reason why these steamers should not take the place of the vessels in which we are now condemned to live some three-fourths of the passage on this side of Suez? Is “draught of water” in the Hooghly the difficulty? And if so, is it remediable?

A regulation of two or three weeks on board a P. and O. steamer, on the Indian side of Suez, is not enviable, except for those who have risen high in the P. and O. service. These vessels do not exactly represent *Elysium*. We have no doubt whatever that, if the public were more intimately acquainted with the internal economy of these P. and O. vessels, it would not be so ready to jump into them, even though the exit should be from Calcutta. It will, of course, happen sometimes that a choice of two evils presents itself—risk of life in India, or a P. and O. steamer for a few weeks. The selection is evident. But should the public be driven to this extremity?

At the best, a voyage in one of these vessels is a *period of confinement*; and the only consolation a passenger experiences is, that it will soon come to an end. If it be so for those in health, *à fortiori* for the invalid it must be a season, very frequently, of misery and torture. The confinement in a small ill-ventilated cabin, the uncertain food, and the repeated changes from one conveyance to another, between the Indian and the English port, are all very trying; and, so far from the invalid deriving benefit from the voyage, it would be a matter for surprise if a positive increase of the malady, for which he was sent to sea, was not the result. We are inclined to think that if these *degrèes* are often lost sight of when a patient is hurried off to sea in a P. and O. steamer. Undoubtedly the sea will sometimes act like a charm, and so soon render the invalid a “raw man,” that he will be able to encounter all the discomforts without being prostrated by them.

But, in the case of a delicate lady, or where there is but little stamina in the system, we fear that too much is expected from this all-powerful agent. In these cases, a well found, 1st class sailing-ship possesses far greater advantages. Of course, where *time* is a paramount object, the Overland route must be adopted *coûte qui coûte*; but, where the

* Even in these steamers the cabins might be larger than they are, although the vessel is generally well covered, in size, those on the Indian side. The sailing ship, however, made up for the deficiencies,—Eng. J. M. G.

logical in the observation that the men and the cattle of a district are simultaneously affected by some prevalent morbid influence; but seen by the light of recent investigation, the fact suggests relations of cause and effect which a very few years ago were unthought of. The tendency of modern enquiry is to resolve into their real component elements all etiological agents. The microscopical and the test-tube have done much to render us infatigable of words which are extended and indefinite. In cholera and typhus, specific media of communication, and perhaps of origin, have been demonstrated, where before the term *causative* would have been accepted as a sufficient guide, and it is indispensable that in such an enquiry as that now before us all possibilities of cause should be examined to the full extent of means and opportunities. To learn that there exists a close relation between outbreaks of cattle disease and human epidemics in Bengal, is at once to be reminded of the phenomenon noticed in Germany in 1866, where the consumption of trichinous meat "was found to be at the root of local epidemics, which of old would doubtless have been confounded with typhus." Says the Medical Officer to the Privy Council in his 8th Report: and though there are, in the habits of the people of Bengal, such differences as render them comparatively little liable to direct parasitic infection by consumption of fresh tallow, and a strong to them abundant channels through which parasites interesting stock would find their way to man.

All the present and past soil should result in the discovery, or, at least, in the proof, that the spread of disease takes place through parasites of the high still lower forms of organic life, there will naturally arise the question of how far such agents are concerned in the etiological question of these diseases. That a sick beast is seen to be infested with vermin is, of course, in proof that the vermin have caused the sickness, but it calls for close enquiry as to the exact relation between the phenomenon, and there is no satisfactory report far from unimpeachable. The *post mortem* sections from the more parts which it attacks is suggestive of great communication from the ground the animal feeds on, and the vegetable it eats; and in the severe malades, the symptoms, seen on the carcase, corresponding with those of trichinosis, are well illustrated with the known results of alleged or alleged experiments, afford us to regard any investigation of cattle disease as complete, or even as fairly advanced, which does not fully take into consideration of parasitic origin.

There is an engineer of Dr. McLeod's epiphytosis, once attacked by such a subject, would, if he met with positive results, soon be carried lower down in the scale of education than his present of course. Each link of the chain which he would now be well qualified to such for a great deal of work.

ἄλλο τὸ εἶδος ἀλλὰ καὶ φωνήτια ἔχει, ἴσως τὸ τοῦ
 τίθενται ἐπὶ αὐτὴν ἀποδείξεις εὐθείαι. The world is to be
 born in such things as geological facts, so long as the
 means of further penetration existed. Having full need of
 organic cause of disease from animal to vegetable life, he
 would next enquire to what abnormal condition of the vegetable
 condition itself the cause might owe its appearance, and another
 vast field of enquiry would be open to him in the whole subject
 of epiphytosis, next, step by step, he would approach some
 principal change of organic matter, beyond which his means of
 research would fail to carry him. But by this time he would
 have developed facts and laws serving or tending to combine into
 one intelligible and consistent account of natural operations, the
 whole fragments of knowledge which, as thus advanced, a
 number of observations will be gathered for us in his working
 number and variety of forms. With this portion of the report,
 which suggests these reflections, the work of the reviewer must
 terminate. The subject is serious, and of a high order of
 interest, and the manner of its treatment and of the several
 questions which are observed and explained here, has a general
 bearing on the enquiry, and is useful to the student of the subject,
 but the general conclusions which offer no material for our own
 Field of the kind of *Nyctelia*, however, some very interesting
 and important comparisons drawn between diseases of earth
 and the human system, which we would not enter into, in a
 comparison with the following remarks on the relation between
 epiphytosis and epiphytosis.

The arrangement of the matter in the report is throughout
 such as to make the information clear and easy on a question
 like this, and, however, and most generally, the style of language
 and reasoning, we find a certain laxity of expression,
 which is to be regretted. Thus, page 22, speaking of the
 poisons which may produce the disease, the author says, "The
 rapidity of the disease, we infer that they are very subtle

and diffusible, and most probably capable of being conveyed by
 atmospheric influences." The words italicized are of uncertain
 meaning. They may indicate that natural agents are carried
 mechanically by the air in motion, or point to some change in
 the atmospheric air, its gaseous constitution, or its polar state.
 Also, though for somewhat different reasons, we feel positively
 rebellious against such terms as a "putrescent enquiry,"
 (page 34).

Short Notices of Recent Books.

Education in Theory and Practice as a subject for State Legislation, &c. By A. FRY-DEN, London: Churchill, 1868.

This is not a medical book, nor does it refer, more than incidentally, to medical training; but it is an essay on the subject of State education, and is written by one who, while he thoroughly understands the problem before him, offers us an excuse for not understanding it, that no man is more familiar than is the physician with the real results of more of education. He compares a good man to some brute force stored up within the bowels of the earth, and whose power on accumulating till at last it bursts forth in fury, and envelops a whole city, or destroys a nation. Let us, he says, control this force, let us find an outlet for the waste, and we may divert it to useful purposes. The engine he believes to exist in "the superior force of truth." He asks—"What is truth?" and a simple in our days, might reply to "A Puff-blow" in position by a similar query. But the book does contain the same, that education is a great controller of at least the course of our view. Therefore the author urges upon the Government to take some means to make education compulsory. We think we can recognize a brilliant and distinguished member of our profession in the opinion laid down, and the vigorous character of the arguments. Still we cannot agree with him that a system of education, similar to that which exists in Prussia, will ever be tolerated in a country where the liberty of the subject is so much vaunted as in England.

The Life of Organic Life. London: Hurdwicke, 1868.

It is a book, just published anonymously, but written, we believe, by a medical man in a very large practice. The title curiously misrepresents the character of the work, by leading to the supposition that the subject-matter relates to general biology, the fact being that the whole of the author's aim is to show that the reason why man is provided with a considerable length of fasting is that Nature intended him to feed on the progress which proceeds in the rotten dead matter, which, if it were immediately thrown out of the body, would be so immediately and irremediable. The grand climax in the author's startling hypothesis is that the colon is what he calls a mummy organ, and that the difference between a plant and an animal is that the former grows where it can find manure, while the animal has his own mummy (lives on it also), and carries it about with him. Peel this piece of scientific sensibleness. "A," however, the gaseous matters from the mummy of the soil are absorbed by the vegetation, and as plants do not possess organs for storing them, they are immediately used in the production of food. Not so with animals, but no animal which eats, digests, and absorbs is free from the debecating process, which is the animal's duty, and hence we see a storing organ provided for the purpose, and being provided, we cannot say that there is any real profit, or its contents useless, awaiting the animal's convenience to get rid of it. It is much more than this. It is an organ, and corresponds with what the earth and its rotting vegetable vegetation, and no other philosophy can exist on the same, that the animal is compelled to carry it about with him, and that the gases from which are just a necessary and useful to its existence as the gases from manure are a necessary part of it, and *not poisonous*. What filthy philosophy! What stinky dogmatism! Can the author be in his right mind? We do not say so, but he has thought an over-estimate of manure, and he has given us a display of non-sense, such as that in the volume before us. The author, who has been so fully and so fully ignorant of modern science, has, however, established an analogy such as that referred to above, but he, in his part, has his *pro* reasons, and the author's confidence in the manner of plant and manure, his confidence falls at once to the ground. Little has been said, and it is the most incontestable manner, that the gases

to some of the reformers, and so they have bolstered up their plan by suggesting that all the commoner cases shall be visited at their homes by the students, a compromise which is even more objectionable than the original idea. Why, there is no hospital in London that would tolerate such a mode of dealing with patients; *firstly*, because it would be opposed to the interests of the charity; *secondly*, because it would lead to serious mistakes on the parts of the students, and would involve the Governors in serious broils with the legal authorities and the public; and, *thirdly*, because it would be an extension of a very improper practice, which, I am sorry to think, holds good even now, viz., sending over the patients to be treated for grave ailments by young men often without either experience or intelligence, and invariably without a legal qualification. An attempt is being made to carry out this idea at St. Mary's Hospital, but I may tell you that the Board of Governors is totally opposed to it; and that, should the scheme be approved by the Medical Officers, it will be as certainly rejected by the real supporters of the hospital, and, if I may add my opinion, very properly so.

You may remember that I some time since spoke of the injustice of the King's College officials to one of their most active and distinguished teachers, Dr. John Harley, in compelling him to resign his post of Assistant Physician to the Hospital. It is in a corresponding degree gratifying to know that at least Dr. Harley's friends and pupils were not of the same opinion as the authorities. On the 17th instant, his former pupils met, and presented him with a testimonial, in the form of a beautiful copy in silver of the Cellini Vase, in token of their sincere regard, esteem and regret on the occasion of his retirement from King's College, London. The address, which accompanied the testimonial, was suitably engrossed on vellum.

The meeting of the *St. Andrew's Medical Graduates Association* on Monday (20th) last was of more than ordinary interest, since the discussions related almost entirely to Dr. Richardson's candidature for the representation of the United Universities. The Report of the Council expressed the opinion that the representative of the University ought to be a medical man, and that the members of the Association should be asked to support Dr. Richardson in his candidature. Dr. Richardson then addressed the meeting, and, having explained that he had no ambition to become a Parliamentary man, would, nevertheless, stand as a candidate, if supported. But inasmuch as a man who goes into Parliament honestly undertakes hard work, he would not undertake to pay a penny, nor would he countenance any expenses but those which were absolutely necessary. As to politics, he would enter Parliament as a member, independent of all party, and would support those measures which he thought good, from whomsoever they might come. He considered old foundations which had been proved good, better than new ones which had not been proved. Dr. Fraser James said that he was also a candidate, and begged that the members would accord him their support, but no one seems to have responded to his appeal. It was curious to see how general politics and polemics got mixed up in the matter. Dr. Drysdale declared he would support no one who would not vote for the disestablishment of the Irish Church, and Dr. Martin declared himself as equally decided in the opposite direction. Dr. Richardson's opinions tend towards conservatism, and he is quite opposed to the disestablishment of the Irish Church. In all probability, Dr. Richardson will leave the field to Professor Lyon Playfair, who seems at present to have the largest and most influential support.

It was some time since proposed to the Comitia of the College of Physicians that a certain number of registered medical practitioners, of mature age and good standing, should be allowed to obtain the Licentiate without passing the examination. The Comitia met on Tuesday last (21st), and I am sorry to find that the proposal was withdrawn. The grounds on which the Comitia declines to adopt the proposal are those which have ever been opposed to every reform from time immemorial. They formulate two objections: (1) that a number of persons might be admitted over whom they would have insufficient control. They formulate two objections: (2) that it would injure the standing of several old Licentiates, who have, at great pains and in their ripe old age, submitted to be questioned by the Examiners. Could any objections be more purely than these? Why should the condition of the newly-entrated license be to place the bearer at risk of cancelling his diploma under the control of the College? And what change for the better was ever thought of respectively? The Council of the College is reduced to a lamentable state of "old fogyism," when arguments such as these can influence their minds.

The British Medical Association, under the presidency of Dr. Stokes, of the University of Dublin, will hold its meeting at

Oxford on the 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th of August next. The section of Medicine will be presided over by Sir W. Jenner, the section of Physiology by Professor Rolleston, that of Surgery by Mr. Paget, that of Midwifery by Sir C. Leacock, and that of Public Medicine by Mr. Simon. Several interesting papers are promised. Mr. Paget is to read a paper on Stammering with other organs than those of speech. Dr. Russell Reynolds will read a paper on certain Affections of the Vaso-Motor Nerves. Dr. King Chambers will read a paper inquiring "How shall we make our daily experience advance science?" This last is most important, and I shall be glad to know how Dr. Chambers proposes to answer the query.

Progress of the Medical and Collateral Sciences,

The Syphilitic Affections of the Nervous System.—On the subject of a memoir recently sent in to the French Academy by M. Lagneau, M. Cloquet, who presented the work, said that it contained an immense deal of original matter, and was of a very high value. M. Lagneau has given a very comprehensive clinical history of the extension of syphilis to the different divisions of the nervous system; and he states, among other conclusions, that epilepsy may give rise to all the neuroses, and especially to paralysis, change of sensibility, and paralysis.

Use of Ergot in Hæmoptysis.—In the *British Medical Journal* for June 27th, Dr. Horace Dobell advises the employment of ergot in cases where other remedies have failed, in doses of twenty minims every three hours. He administers it in combination with digitalis, gallic acid, and various other substances. He states that he has seen wonderful results from this practice.

Caffeine used subcutaneously.—In an article on "Hypodermic Injection" in the July No. of the *Practitioner*, Dr. F. E. Anstie gives his experience of the value of caffeine in neuralgia and insomnia from chronic alcoholism. He especially records two cases, the dose employed in each being a grain. In one instance of severe neuralgia of the superficial branches of the brachial plexus in the shoulder, two successive injections of caffeine over the bones appeared to cut short the malady altogether. In a case of dors-intercostal neuralgia attending shingles, the patient was injected daily for five or six days, with the effect of notably mitigating the pain on each occasion. In a woman who had drunk to excess for years, without ever having had distinct delirium tremens, but who could not sleep at all, and was a prey to distressing visual hallucinations, a notable improvement was effected by caffeine. She was injected twice a week for three weeks, and on each occasion got great temporary relief. These cases of Dr. Anstie's are of the highest interest, for they show of how much benefit subcutaneous injection may be even in cases heretofore considered out of its sphere.

Hair as a Character of Race.—M. Pruner, whose "Researches on Anthropology" are already well known to our readers, has just published his more recent "Researches on the Race Characters of Hair." His memoir contains several drawings of sections of hair as seen under different microscopic powers, and it must doubtless be of much importance, and for a long time, the work of reference on this subject. The author considers that more is to be learnt from transverse sections than from any other preparations, for in this way, he says, one is able to ascertain the size of the hair, a point of great import in diagnosis. He states that he has established the fact that the hair of the negroes is not always black, but that, on the contrary, it is sometimes red, and is occasionally met with of an ashy color. Among two hundred specimens of hair from natives of India, only one occurred of a straw color, and this, he says, might have been of European origin. In his opinion, the hair of every race south of the Himalayas is jet black. M. Pruner establishes a remarkable distinction between the Siamite and Aryan races. The hair of the former is a regular oval section in the transverse section of the hair, while the cut-tan of the hair in the former is angular.

A new Microscope Condenser with a Blue-tinted Field Lens.—*Quarterly Journal of Microscopical Science*, Vol. 13,

the patient's condition. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work.

Effect of combining the Ketone in Epilepsy.—A. J. ...

The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work.

Action of Pine Phosphorus on the Tissues.—S. ...

The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work.

Amphetamine treated by Phosphorus.—M. ...

The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work.

Local Method of Treating a Rabid Dog.—H. ...

The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work.

Observations on Hydras.—M. ...

The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work.

On the Action of Cantharidin.—I. ...

The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work.

The Ophthalmology in Diagnosis of Nervous Disease.—

The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work.

Experiments on the Nerves of Invertebrates.—M. ...

The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work.

Anæsthetics in the Treatment of Hepatic Colic.—A. ...

The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work.

The Characters of Mollusca.—Those who are interested in ...

The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work. The patient's condition is such that the patient is unable to work, and the patient is unable to work.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF SNAKE-POISON.

By J. FAYRER, M.D.

PRESENT: Dr. Fayrer, Dr. Ewart, Professor of Physiology, and Mr. Seeva, of the Indian Museum.

August 15th, 1868. The object of these experiments was to make careful observations of the symptoms during the action of the poison, to note the pathological changes during life and after death, and the microscopical appearances of the blood of a mammal in the healthy state, immediately before submitting it to the influence of the snake-poison, and to compare these appearances with those of the blood of the same animal after death from the snake-poison.

The examination was made with the greatest care by Professor Ewart and myself with two microscopes, the power used being $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch, and they were repeated many times.

EXPERIMENT NO. 1.

At 11:59 a.m., a small pariah dog was bitten in the left hind-leg, just above the carpal joint, by a Daboia, the same snake that had been used in former experiments. The dog was put near the snake, which, though excited and hissing loudly, appeared disinclined to bite; on being irritated, it struck the dog in the leg as described; the wound bled freely.

It was nearly five minutes before the dog showed signs of the effects of the poison. It then began to stagger and seemed weak, and as if unable to co-ordinate the muscular movements of the limbs.

At 12:6 he lay down, breathing heavily; at 12:7 he rose and staggered a few steps and vomited.

12:9.—Gradually subsided on to his left hind-quarter; looks vacantly about him, but intelligent when spoken to. There is no indication of any suffering.

12:11.—Walks about when led, but very sluggish, and wants to lie down; weak in the bitten leg.

12:18.—Is walking slowly, staggering in the hind-quarters; has his head depressed, with the neck stretched out. Cold water dashed over the head seemed to rouse him partially.

12:22.—Lies down, weak and exhausted; no convulsions. Looks as though he were going to sleep. Takes no notice when spoken to.

12:12.—Lying down sluggish, and disinclined to move; can walk a little when roused.

12:46.—Respiration deep. Lying on the right side; appears generally paralyzed.

12:57.—Insensible; catching respiration.

1:5 p.m.—Dead.

Died in 66 minutes.

Post-mortem, soon after death. Part above the ankle-joint, where the animal was bitten, ecchymosed to an extent of 2 inches, and discolored by dark bloody fluid.

Decomposition commencing.

A coagulum corresponded to the points at which the fang had penetrated.

Blood in femoral vein fluid.

Thorax opened. Lungs pale and bloodless; completely collapsed when the thorax was opened.

Heart's right cavities contained fluid blood. The blood pressed out of the heart and from the great vessels in the thorax was fluid, with no tendency to coagulate. The left side of the heart empty.

The liver healthy. Spleen enlarged. Stomach contained a quantity of food. Kidneys healthy.

Blood taken out and carefully examined: it was healthy looking and firm, perhaps more amemic than quite natural. The blood was kept until next day, and there was no coagulation.

Up to 1:51 p.m., no *rigor mortis*.

The blood was most carefully examined before the dog was bitten, during the operation of the poison and after death. There was nothing suggestive of the changes described by Professor Hafford. The red corpuscles remained altogether unaltered. In one of the examinations after death, a few more of the white corpuscles were seen than we had observed in other specimens, but there was no peculiarity about them; and after most careful and repeated examinations, we could detect nothing that confirmed Dr. Hafford's observation.

EXPERIMENT NO. 2.

A healthy, medium-sized dog was bitten, at 12:10, in the left hind-leg by the Daboia Russellii. It was not certain that the fangs penetrated. The mouth of the snake was also brought in contact with the right thigh and the lower part of the abdomen, and the fangs were struck lightly into the parts. The snake was one that had been used on former occasions, and was weak, and probably almost exhausted of poison.

1:20 p.m.—Lies down; looks depressed; evidently affected by the poison.

2:3 p.m.—There has been very little change during the last 10 minutes. Lies down quietly. There are abdominal contractions, as of irregular action of the diaphragm.

5 p.m.—When roused moves about, but is sluggish and weak. Steps irregularly with a staggering gait, crossing the hind-legs, at other times keeping them wide apart. After walking a little, the steps become more regular and steady. The dog having usually been fed at this time, food was offered, but he refused it.

6:30.—Quiet; no symptoms of pain or convulsions; perfectly conscious; when spoken to, responds readily by raising his head and wagging his tail. Is insensible to pain if irritated in any part of the body.

In some of the former experiments it seemed as though anæsthesia were produced on the limb that had been bitten.

The dog gradually drooped, without any sign of pain; no spasms. Died at 8:15 p.m.

Bitten at 12:4.

Died at 8:15.

Eight hours and eleven minutes after being bitten.

In this case death was very slow and painless. It seemed more like a gentle lethargy stealing over the animal, and gradually increasing until death. There was no sign of pain; no convulsions; just before death the defæcation was of a mæmorrhagiolent character, having been perfectly natural before being bitten. The body was examined soon after death.

On making the incision, it was found that the deepest wound from the snake's fangs had been received in the middle of the lower part of the abdomen, but they had not penetrated deeper than the adipose tissue.

Several small punctures (4 or 5) were found in the side of the abdomen and in the inner part of the thigh.

The *post-mortem* appearance of the thoracic and abdominal cavities were exactly the same as in the former case, except that the spleen was healthy in this case.

The blood was watched for 14 hours, and it did not coagulate, and being carefully examined under the microscope presented no change from the normal condition.

The results of these experiments, which were carefully watched and every precaution exacted, are as follows:

as if he had been roused from a state of overpowering nervous oppression. Breathes slowly and imperfectly; does not half-fill his lungs.

Bitten at 12-53.

Died at 1-14 p.m.

Dead in 21 minutes.

This is further proof of the deadly action of the poison on innocuous snakes.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

At 12-55 p.m. a large Cobra was bitten by a full-grown, freshly-caught Cobra; they were both of one variety, that marked with one ocellus in the hood, the *Keautak* of the snake-catchers.

The scales were scraped off, and the snake was made to imbibe his fangs deeply in two different places about 10 inches from the head. There could be no doubt of the penetration, or of the injection, of a large quantity of poison.

At 12-59 five drops of Cobra-poison, taken from the snake, were injected, by means of the hypodermic syringe, into the muscles of the Cobra's back.

1-30.—No effect produced; the Cobra is as lively as ever.

1-45.—Still unaffected.

4-30.—Still unaffected.

18th August, 5 p.m. The snake is as well as ever.

This experiment goes far to prove the immunity of the Cobra from the noxious effects of the poison of its own species.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

1-20 p.m.—Civet cat (*Viverra Malaccensis*) bitten by a Daboin. The snake struck in more than one place.

1-25.—Appears paralyzed.

1-26.—Appears almost dead.

1-30.—Still breathing imperfectly; stretches his legs as if from spasms.

1-32.—Got up on his fore-legs and vomited; lying down exhausted.

1-37.—When roused, he seized a stick, but is evidently half paralyzed in the hind-quarter; lies down again on left side.

1-40.—Gets up again when irritated, breathes hurriedly, and lies down at once. Evidently very drowsy and much exhausted.

1-47.—Tries to get up of his own accord; finds he cannot; rolls over on other side; right hind-leg paralyzed. Continues restless and endeavouring to move, and has again succeeded in changing his position.

1-57.—Lying flat on side with all his legs stretched out. Can be roused, but his hinder extremities still paralyzed, and he does not give fight as before. Is uneasy and restless.

2-12.—Roused; walks about much better, but his right hind-leg is very weak; quite paralyzed. Put into his cage; gave much more fight.

2-30.—Seems reviving, but he is restless and manifestly uncomfortable; lying down, and at full stretch, on side.

4-15.—Purged freely; very low; evidently at the point of death.

4-25.—Convulsive movements for two or three minutes; stretching the limbs, &c.

4-36.—Dead.

Body examined, showed the animal to have been bitten on the nose, on the side of the head (in the temporal muscle), and in the thigh.

The *post-mortem* appearances of the viscera were like those in other animals.

This viper was the same that had been frequently used in other experiments before described, and must have been considerably weakened. The deadly nature of the snake is manifest from the continued power of inflicting mortal wounds, and it is

probable that it has the power of rapidly secreting fresh poison. It is regarded with great dread by the snake-catchers, and evidently with good reason.

ON CHOLERA.—No. V.

By C. MACNAMARA,

Surgeon to the Calcutta Ophthalmic Hospital.

M. SAWS, a member of the Cholera Conference assembled at Constantinople in 1866, thus describes the origin of the European cholera of 1830-31. "In 1829 it broke out at Orenburg, which maintained extensive commercial transactions with Bokhara. From Orenburg it passed to Kiakhta, a town on the frontier of the Russian empire, and the seat of a great fair. From Kiakhta the disease was communicated to Cabul in 1829, after the fair, and thence it passed progressively to Herat and Meshed, and broke out in the following year in Teheran."* From the evidence, however, which I have already adduced, I trust I have made it clear that the Bombay Presidency, Scinde, and the Punjab, were under the influence of an invading cholera from the east, during the year 1827, which had reached Khiva† and Herat in 1829; and I shall now endeavour to trace the continuation of the epidemic from India, through Europe, to America.

On the 26th of August, 1829, the disease broke out in the city of Orenburg; it was not, however, until the 10th of September that its true nature occurred to the physicians of the place.‡ Between the 9th and 25th of the month, 57 cases had been reported, and before the 21st of October, 747 people were attacked by the disease. By the 20th of November, the epidemic had entirely disappeared from the city, into which, in the first instance, it was said to have been imported by caravans from Bokhara.§

About the 23rd of September, cases of cholera began to appear in other parts of the Orenburg Government; and the first place in which it was known to exist was in the fortress of Razusa, sixty miles west of Orenburg; and, between the 3rd and 4th of October, it appeared in various villages and forts to the west and south-west of the district. The epidemic influence extended about two hundred miles to the north and north-west of Orenburg, and about sixty miles to the westward; this space it traversed between the 26th of August and the 6th of February, but the greater part of it was visited by cholera before the middle of November. On the 23rd of February the disease had well nigh disappeared, though it still cropped up here and there, being generated, for instance, at a few advance posts beyond the sanitary cordon round the infected localities.

We witness, therefore, in this, the first detailed invasion of cholera into Europe, phenomena precisely similar to those I have described as occurring in India: the invading cholera progressing forward from east to west, and north-west, after a time almost entirely subsiding over the invaded area, but only to burst out again in these localities, and simultaneously to be engendered over a vast tract of country to the west and north-west of its former limits.

We must pause for an instant to notice the progress of the epidemic from India directly westward into Persia. I have already quoted a passage from the *Government Gazette* as to

* Proceedings of the International Conference at Constantinople, 1866. Calcutta, 1868, pp. 343 and 349.

† The Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal, Vol. 56, p. 422.

‡ *Ibid.*

§ Proceedings of International Sanitary Conference at Constantinople, 1866. Calcutta, p. 265.

Medical-Chirurgical Review, Vol. 161, new series, p. 163.

Hamburg. "The persons first attacked in the port resided on the quay, and were exposed to intercourse with the shipping. No communication, however, was satisfactorily traced between these persons and the particular ships referred to, nor were any of these ships known to have persons sick with cholera on board."* Whether it is more probable that those non-infected ships should have introduced cholera into England, or that it should have been generated there in obedience to that mighty force which had caused it to move onwards from Bengal to the west of Europe, I leave it for the reader to judge: of one thing we are quite certain, and that is, the inhabitants of the populous village of Deptford, close to the Ayres quay, "where the disease was very prevalent and fatal," escaped its influence: as did the agricultural villages in the immediate neighbourhood of Sunderland.† The truth is, that cases of cholera had in reality occurred in Sunderland as far back as the 5th, 14th, and 27th of August—two months before the declared importation of the disease.‡ Cholera subsequently appeared at Newcastle, Gateshead, Edinburgh, and in London in February. The number of deaths in England amounted to 97 in November, 292 in December, January 614, February 708, March 1,519, April 1,401.§

The influence of the invading cholera of 1831 having failed to pass beyond Germany, France remained absolutely free from the epidemic until the following year. On the 24th of March, however, cholera burst out in the very centre of the country at Paris. According to M. Goudrin, on the third day of the appearance of cholera, he received patients from every district of Paris into the Hotel Dieu. The patients' distant residence, and opposite professions, preclude the probability of their having derived their disease from human contact. Of the first ninety-eight cases admitted into the hospital, no less than ninety-six died.¶ Within the first week of the disease, the mortality reached 500 per diem, and the cases to four times that amount: in eighteen days no less than 7,000 persons had died of cholera in Paris. M. Meunier observes that the Luxembourg quarter contained about 20,000 inhabitants, and of these 7,582 were indigent people, and 13,330 of the better classes. Among the former, no less than 4,500 suffered from cholera, and only 2,500 of the latter.¶ The village of Issy, situated on the road from Paris to Versailles, totally escaped, although surrounded by other hamlets—Vanores, Vangirara, Beau, Genelle, which were all cruelly ravaged by the disease. M. Goudrin remarks that all other diseases participated in the general features of the epidemic, exhibiting abnormal epiphenomena of a choleric kind. This tendency was observed by almost every physician of eminence throughout Europe during the years 1830-31-32.

At the time of the advent of the epidemic into France, it was also generated in Ireland, and spread over many of the principal towns in that island. The disease was re-produced in England, and, before the end of August, had visited Hull, York, Leeds, and several other large towns; the total number of cases in England, however, amounted only to 11,756, and of these 5,132 died.

The progress of the invading cholera from east to west was not destined to be limited by the Atlantic. On the 8th of June,

1832, it broke out among the inhabitants of the city of Quebec, and on the 10th at Montreal. On the 23rd of the month cholera appeared in New York, and on the 5th of July in Philadelphia. It spread over nearly the whole extent of the United States before the end of the year. The epidemic still continued its original course, attacking, for instance, the towns and villages along the banks of the St. Lawrence, then following the borders of Lake Ontario, until it entered lake Erie, visiting Detroit and Amherstburgh on the 6th of July.

It will be observed that as yet we have heard little or nothing of cholera in Spain or Portugal. These countries appear to have escaped the influence of the epidemic until 1833.

The disease was said at the time to have been imported into Portugal. "The London merchant steamer sailed from England to Oporto on the 25th of December, 1832, and arrived at the mouth of the Duro on the 1st of January, 1833, having lost seven men on the passage by cholera. The troops which she took out with General Salignac landed immediately at Foz, about ten miles west of Oporto."* Cholera appeared at Foz on the road to, and in Oporto before the 15th of January, and spread to Coimbra and Galicia. The circumstances of this case were reported on the 8th of May, 1833, by Mr. Lardner, and in a subsequent number of the *Lancet* (November 22nd, 1834) he gives a more detailed account of the phenomena of the disease. In the first paragraph of his second letter to the *Lancet*, he remarks, "I know that the *Botanica* frigate in Vigo Bay, while at anchor alongside the *Donna Maria*, was severely attacked with cholera in its most malignant form, while in the latter (although few and constant communication existed between the two vessels) the disease never made its appearance."† It appears, moreover, that the sick men landed from the *London* were at once confined in the Foz hospital, "which was well calculated, by its locality, to hinder any communication from being made between the patients and Oporto."‡ Very shortly afterwards, however, the disease appeared in the very heart of the city. A month afterwards Aveiro was affected with cholera. There was every reason to suppose there was little, if any, communication between the cities, Aveiro being in the hands of the Miguelites. The disease did not appear in Lisbon till June; but it is most difficult to gain any precise information on these points, or as to the history of the epidemic in the interior. The press was gagged, and the circumstances of the disease not allowed to be discussed.

In Spain quarantine was most rigorously enforced. Every traveller from an infected district was subjected to the performance of quarantine; and if he entered Spain without having gone through the formality, he was liable to be punished with death, his apparel burnt, and goods seized; the same punishment being extended to those who received him.‡ In spite of all these precautions, cholera raged with great violence in many of the provinces of Spain during the summer of 1834 and 1835.

The disease broke out on the 26th of February, 1833, in Havana, and continued to the 20th of April. During this period no less than 8,253 persons were destroyed in a population of 65,000 souls.§ Later in the year the epidemic was generated with fearful virulence in Mexico; before August no less than 15,000 individuals are said to have perished from it.¶

Throughout the year 1833 we hear of cholera being reproduced over almost the entire area through which we have traced it during the preceding years. Cases occurred in the majority of the large towns of Europe and America. Not

* Drs. Baly and Gull's Reports on Cholera, p. 21. And Cholera as it recently appeared at Newcastle and Gateshead. By T. M. Greenwood, p. 104.

† *Cyclopaedia of Practical Medicine*, Edited by Drs. J. Forbes, Tweedie, and Conolly. Vol. I, p. 499. London, 1833.

‡ *Quarantine*, By Gavin Melroy, M.D. London, 1847, p. 30.

§ Report on the Mortality from Cholera in England, 1818-19. By Mr. W. Farr.

¶ *Monographie de Cholera Morbus Epidemique de Paris*, Par J. M. Goudrin, Paris, 1832.

‡ *Histoire du Cholera Morbus dans le quartier Luxembourg*, Par M. H. Doulay de la Meurthe, Paris, 1832.

* *London Medical Gazette*, Vol. xii, p. 123.

† *Ibid.*, p. 69.

‡ *Lancet*, October 5th, 1833.

§ *Ibid.*, for 1833-34, p. 325.

¶ *Ibid.*, p. 306.

where overstepped by the disease again and again, after it had reached the more civilized parts of Europe.* As, for instance, in the case of Debrezynin, in Hungary, which suffered more than any other town in the country, although guarded by a triple cordon †

The greatest efforts were made to keep the cholera out of the Russian capital, by means of quarantine; but, as usual, these having signally failed, a strong double cordon of troops were still maintained around Larozels and Peterhoff, to which the court and nobility, with their attendants, in all 10,000 persons, retired, and resided in seclusion (among them, I am sorry to say, were two English physicians.) In the beginning of October, the restrictions were withdrawn; and it was accurately ascertained that not a single instance of the disease had occurred within the enclosure, though it raged in all quarters around in the close vicinity of the lines. ‡

“ Kristofsky, situated in the middle of the populous islands of Petersburg and which communicates with them by ten magnificent bridges, and with the town by a thousand barges, which bring every day, and especially Sundays, very many people, who go to walk in the beautiful island, we say, has been completely preserved from cholera; there has not been a single patient in the three villages which it contains. During the cholera, most of the French players retired to Kristofsky, and not a single patient was found among them; while out of the small number of their companions who remained in town, many either died from the disease, or were seized with its most violent form.” §

“ On the St. Lawrence, immediately opposite to Montreal, and within a very short distance of the city, is a small island called St. Helena. Immediately upon the breaking out of cholera at Montreal, the authorities removed the military to “St. Helena.” The people from the island went every morning to the city to make their bazaar, and mixed with the inhabitants of the infected city; but, notwithstanding this daily constant communication, there was never one case of cholera in the island during the whole time.” ||

Colonel Tullach states that, “Cases of cholera were first noticed in Quebec on the 8th of June, 1832, among a party of emigrants who landed there on their way to Montreal, in consequence of the steamboat in which they had embarked being overwrecked. On the following day a person belonging to the same party, but who had preceded by vessel to Montreal, was attacked shortly after his arrival there, and within a few days the disease became general in the town.” * Dr. S. Jackson, however, the consulting Medical Officer of Philadelphia, distinctly affirms that, although the emigrants were at first supposed to have transmitted the epidemic across the Atlantic, “a more close investigation into the facts connected with the commencement of the disease in these cities, served to destroy this supposition. It could not be traced to importation.”

The Brig *Ancho* left New York, when cholera prevailed, on the 19th of October, 1832, with one hundred and odd passengers on board, from stress of weather they were confined below. After being at sea six days, cholera broke out among them. On the 31st of October the vessel was wrecked on Folly Island. Up to this period twenty-four persons had died of cholera, and several remained sick.

A boat's crew of wreckers was sent from Charlestown to save a part of the cargo, and immediately after returning to the city one of them was seized with cholera and died. The patient resided in a most filthy part of the town, and was visited by “hundreds of curious people,” but the cholera did not spread in Charlestown. The remainder of the wreckers were sent back to Folly Island, and during the passage two of them fell sick with cholera and died; they are described as of exceedingly intemperate and dissolute habits. The crew of the vessel had from the very first been placed under strict quarantine on the island. Of four negroes, the only persons left on the island by the proprietor, three died, one a child and two adults. Of the wreckers eight died; of the guard employed to perform the duty of a cordon sanitaire, and who were stationed about 120 yards from the sick, nine were reported severely ill, and one died. The three physicians in constant attendance escaped, but a nurse employed on the first wrecker, who died, fell a victim to the disease a week afterwards.*

The first case of cholera observed in the village of Moor, Monkton, six miles from York, occurred on the 28th December, 1832. The disease did not exist at the time in the neighbourhood, or in any place within 30 miles. John Barnes, a labourer, had been suffering for two days from diarrhoea and cramp, when on the 28th December he was taken ill with all the symptoms of cholera, and died the next day. Barnes' wife and two other persons, who visited the sick man, were seized with cholera, but recovered. The son of the deceased man arrived. He had been apprentice to his uncle, a shoemaker, in Leeds, his aunt had died of cholera fifteen days before, and her effects were sent to J. Barnes without having been washed. The trunk containing the things had been opened by J. Barnes in the evening, and the next day he fell ill. This case is cited by the Cholera Commissioner of Constantinople in proof of the transmissibility of cholera by articles tainted with cholera, or soaked by their dejection. †

(To be continued.)

DIFFICULT CASES IN MIDWIFERY, OCCURRING AMONG NATIVE WOMEN.

BY T. MURRAY, M.D.,
Civil Surgeon, Jamaica.

“The positive advantage we obtain from embryotomy is the saving of a large proportion of the mothers, who, in addition to the suffering, must have a puerperal, but not a fatal, fever. The children, of course, are all lost.—*see ibidem.*”

The following cases from my note-book may help to prove the idea, very generally prevalent, that native women are less subject to the accidents and chances attendant on child-bearing than women in European countries.

I have found that flooding after delivery, retained placenta, and puerperal fever, are by no means uncommon among native women; and I am informed that, in villages and hamlets far away in the interior of the country, women often die *mal parituræ*. Obstetric medicine is certainly at a very low ebb among the natives in this part of India.

UNNATURAL LABOUR, MAL-POSITION AND MAL-PRESENTATION OF THE CHILD; EVISCERATION.

CASE I.

P, Brilimnee, aged 40; fourth labour.

This woman was the wife of a respectable Brahmin of this city, and had been in labour for about twenty-six hours before

* Edinburgh Medical Journal, No. 37, p. 110.

† Liverpool Medical Gazette, Vol. 1, p. 277.

‡ Official Reports on Cholera by Drs. Russell and Barry, p. 35, London, 1832. *Ibidem*, p. 203.

§ Observations Sur le Cholera Morbus, Par l'Amiral de France in R. de St. Pierre, October, 1834.

* Report of the Committee on the Mauritius Cholera, 1836, p. 196.

† Report on the Statistics and Mortality amongst the troops in British America, p. 146.

* Edinburgh Medical Journal of Medical Sciences, Vol. XIV, p. 375, 1834.

† Proceedings of the Sanitary Commissioners at Constantinople, Constantinople, 1839.

INDIAN EXPERIENCES OF LITHOTRITY.—No. II.

By SCRIGLON J. B. SCRIVEN,

*Principal of the Lahore Medical School.**(Continued from Vol. III., No. 8, page 182.)*

HAVING, in the last number of the *Indian Medical Gazette*, laid before the public a few remarks on Lithotripsy in India, it seems to me desirable now to give a brief history of the cases on which the former observations were based. This I do in the present communication, placing them in chronological order.

It will be remembered that, in the last paper, I stated that there had been thirty-six cases in the Medical School Hospital. I now find, on careful examination of the case books, that Kootha, No. 5 upon the list, and Emam Deen, No. 21, were each three times in hospital, and that, in the daily register, the former has been put down three times, and the latter twice, as a fresh case. These two cases, therefore, appear as *two*, so that the number 36 must be reduced by 3, making the correct number 33.

In the former paper, I have fallen into a slight error in saying that injections, previous to lithotripsy, had not been used in *any* of my cases. The detailed account now given shows that, once in each of the three cases, No. 1, No. 2, and No. 17, the bladder was injected. However, as this was only done three out of the 157 times that I have executed the manipulation of lithotripsy, and two of the occasions were in my first two cases, so long ago as the year 1861, I may, perhaps, be excused for having forgotten it.

I add to the detail of cases a fabulous statement, for ready reference, which shows twenty-nine male cases and four female. Of the twenty-nine male cases, nineteen were cured, of one of them having undergone the operation of lithotomy. Of the remaining ten, seven left the hospital of their own accord, four of them being relieved, and three no better; one was discharged, relieved; one was lithotomised, and left the hospital suffering from liver disease; and one only died in the hospital. Of the four female cases, in one, No. 20, lithotripsy was performed after lithotomy; one, No. 28, left the hospital before I wished her to do so, but in all the cure eventually was complete.

CASE I.

Ehobany, male, aged 40, (Hospital Register No. 1, page 130), a stout, healthy looking man, had had symptoms of stone for one year. This man was operated on with L'Estrange's lithotrite on July 12th, 1861. The urine was held for 2 hours; but, as the bladder was supposed not to be sufficiently full, some tepid water was injected by means of a syringe and catheter. The bladder was also washed out after the operation, and a few small fragments brought away. This man was operated on a second time on July 20th, and a third time on the 27th. On the second occasion chloroform was given.

The quantity of calculous matter that was collected in this case was 232 grains, which was found to consist mainly of uric acid. This man was discharged on the 29th of July, apparently quite well.

CASE II.

Monwar Shah, male, aged 50, (Hospital Register No. 1, page 152). Symptoms of stone for three years. Much emaciated. Urine albuminous.

Bladder injected, and stone crushed on July 20th, 1861. This man's bladder became very irritable after the operation. A few grains only of calculous matter came away, which was found to consist mainly of urate of ammonia. He was discharged, at his own request, on the 26th July.

CASE III.

Doornah, aged 21, male, (Hospital Register No. 1, page 278). Symptoms of stone three or four years.

Crushed with L'Estrange's instrument on January 14th, 1862. Bladder washed out with tepid water morning and evening. He was again operated on on February 1st. On the 7th February the symptoms of stone had disappeared, and no stone could be detected on sounding. Discharged cured. This man passed altogether about 270 grains of calculous matter, the nature of which is not noted, but from the readiness with which the stone was crushed, and brought away, it was doubtless phosphatic.

CASE IV.

Bala, aged 36, male, (Hospital Register No. 1, page 282). Symptoms of stone for one year. Was first operated on with L'Estrange's lithotrite on February 6th, 1862, and again on the 15th. The bladder was washed out twice a day with tepid water. Altogether this man passed 122 grains of calculous matter, which consisted principally of phosphate of lime. He was carefully sounded after this, and no calculus detected. He was discharged cured on February 19th.

CASE V.

Kootha, aged 30, a stout, healthy male, (Hospital Register No. 1, page 292). Symptoms of stone of 18 months' standing; operated on first on March 16th, 1862. He continued to pass calculous matter up to the 29th, and remained in hospital till April 5th. He had now passed altogether 52 grains of detritus, and the symptoms of stone had quite disappeared, at least so he said; and he was returned "cured" in my annual report; but, as he went away without leave, I had not the opportunity of satisfying myself on this point. On the 29th of June, 1863, he presented himself again, saying that he had been greatly relieved by the former treatment; that for a whole year, in fact, he had enjoyed tolerable health, though the symptoms of stone were not altogether absent. During three months previous to his second admission, he had suffered from very frequent and painful micturition. There appeared to be more than one calculus.

Lithotripsy was performed on July 2nd, 8th, 21st, 29th, and on the 13th August. On the 31st of August he again got tired of the treatment and absconded. This time he passed 162 grains of stone. A third time he appeared at the hospital on October 5th, but would not stop. Some remaining fragments were therefore crushed, and he went away. On the 14th of October he came again as an out-patient, and submitted to another crushing. On the 22nd he was sounded, and no stone felt. He said that he had now no pain in making water, though a straining effort was necessary for it. He had kept the detritus that had come away since October 5th, which was found to weigh 30 grains. On the 3rd December of the same year, 1863, this man was again admitted as an in-patient, suffering severely from frequent and painful micturition. He had intermittent fever also; the urine was opaque, albumine, and albuminous. Lithotripsy was performed on the 9th of December, under chloroform, and the bladder was washed out twice a day with tepid water. From the 9th to the 15th he continued to pass calculous matter, in all 35 grains. The urine became clearer, and on the 16th I find the following note:—"Lithotripsy passed to-day under chloroform, but no stone felt. Has now no pain or inconvenience in micturition. Makes water about three times a day."

After this he began to suffer from orchitis; this kept him in hospital till the 12th of January, 1864, on which day he was discharged, well.

CASE VI.

Javage, female, aged 20, (Hospital Register No. 1, page 304). Symptoms of stone of somewhat less than one year's standing.

This woman was first operated on on the 2nd of June, 1862.

1½ inch in diameter, as caught by the lithotrite. The operation was repeated on the 29th. He went away on the 13th of August, saying that he had lost all symptoms, though a small fragment could still be felt in the bladder. He passed altogether about 89 grains of calculus.

CASE XVII.

Soobhan, aged 60, male, (Hospital Register No. 3, page 245). Symptoms of stone for seven years. Urine contained crystals of triple phosphate and pus. Lithotomy first performed on the 14th of December, 1864. Stone found to be about an inch in diameter. The lithotrite bent in crushing it, and was removed with difficulty, bringing with it a small fragment of stone. The operation was repeated on the 21st and 30th, the second time after injecting. After this the man's bladder became very irritable, and further treatment was interrupted by his getting an attack of dysentery. Not having patience to wait till he recovered from this, he left the hospital on January 4th, 1865. He passed altogether 38 grains of stone. This was a case in which, I make no doubt, I should have succeeded, had I had Sir H. Thompson's instruments. The bladder was an irritable one, and required to be very carefully operated on; whereas several unfortunate accidents occurred. In the first operation the instrument bent, entangling an angular fragment of stone, and, as this could not be disengaged, it was dragged along the whole course of the urethra, between the distorted blades of the lithotrite; and, in two of the three operations, I find it recorded that a small piece of the mucous membrane of the bladder was brought away with the instrument.

CASE XVIII.

Wuzera, aged 60, male, (Hospital Register No. 3, page 252). Symptoms of stone for two years. Urine acid, No crystals deposit. Stone first crushed on the 31st December, 1864. On the 3rd January, 1865, I find it noted that the urine, examined again, was found to contain crystals of uric acid. The operation was repeated on January 9th, 14th, and 29th, and on February 3rd and 10th. He continued to pass calculous matter up to the 24th. He was kept in hospital a month longer, in consequence of some remaining irritability of the bladder, during which time he was carefully examined both with the sound and lithotrite, but no remaining fragment of stone could be detected. He was discharged, cured, on March 29th, having passed altogether 74 grains of calculous matter.

The following four cases occurred during my absence in England, and were operated on by Drs. Brown and Heariverson.

CASE XIX.

Sazawar—This is the same man (case 15) that was under treatment in April, May, and June, 1864. He was readmitted on September 29th, 1865, operated on on the 20th of October, and discharged on the 15th November. He is put down in the monthly register "Relieved."

This man's readmission on September 29th, 1865, he it observed, was fifteen months after his discharge on July 1st, 1864. It seems fair to put him down as a fresh case; for, if I had overlooked any fragment of stone in 1864, it is most probable that the symptoms would have been continuous, and that he would have applied earlier. Now we know that he had a marked lithic calculus on his first admission, he informed us that he had been unable to pass sand and gravel for fifteen or twenty years, and on his discharge in July, 1864, he was carefully examined and none found. I think, therefore, there is sufficient ground for assuming that, in 1865, he was suffering from a second calculus, and not from any remnant of the former one. I had not the opportunity of inquiring into this point myself as I was in England at the time, and I do not find any remarks upon it in the case-book.

CASE XX.

Eman Bochee, a female child, aged 5, (Hospital Register No. 6, page 51). This case is put down as one of lithotripsy; but the stone seems to have been crushed only once on November 1st, 1865, in order to diminish its size, and was afterwards removed by lithotomy. The case did well, and was discharged on the 18th November.

CASE XXI.

Eman Deen, aged 30, male, (Hospital Register No. 9, page 58). Stone first crushed on the 16th of March, 1866, and again on the 28th. This man was discharged on April 30th, readmitted on the 30th of May, and discharged on the 3rd of June; of this second admission I find no record in the case-book; but a third time he became an in-patient on the 19th of November of the same year, 1866. On this occasion he was lithotritized on the 20th and 24th. On the 27th no stone could be felt, and he was discharged, cured. The quantity of detritus is not noted.

CASE XXII.

Kamon, female, aged 10, (Hospital Register No. 7, page 136). Symptoms of renal calculus of 2 years; of stone in the bladder only a short time (not recorded exactly) before admission; stone crushed first on November 24th, 1866, and again on the 27th, 30th, and on the 4th of December. On each occasion, except the last, chloroform was administered. The patient was discharged, cured, on December 11th. One hundred and eighteen grains of stone were collected.

This brings us to 1867, in January of which year I returned from England with Sir H. Thompson's instruments, with which I operated on five cases during the year 1867.

CASE XXIII.

Nazar, aged 60, male, (Hospital Register No. 4, page 504). Symptoms of stone for four years. Was first operated on on the 16th of February, 1867, and six times afterwards, at intervals of from four to six days. On 17th March he left the hospital of his own accord, much cured, but with some small fragments still in the bladder. He had passed 70 grains of calculous matter.

He returned on August 1st, and was operated on four times, at intervals of from four to seven days, and went away a second time of his own accord, on the 24th, having passed 39 grains of detritus, and saying he was well. Not being quite satisfied about him, I went to his village; I did not find the man himself, but his friends reported him well.

The result of the case, however, is remarkable.

Some time after this, I met him, and asked how he was, to which he replied, that he was *not* quite well, indeed, that he had not been so since he left, and that he believed there was a remnant of stone remaining. I told him to come again, but he did not obey the summons till the month of May, this year, 1868. The man's condition now became unbearable, the pain on moving water excessive, and its frequency so great, that he described it as constant throbbing. In this condition he presented himself to me on May 10th, 1868.

At first, as it appeared hopeless to attempt lithotripsy on a lithic calculus, and but I was very unwilling to operate on a man for whom he gave his age and years as 60, he was weighed at 70; and, on more close inquiry, he told us he believed he was 75, which was about what his appearance indicated. Moreover, the man himself was averse to being cut, and both he and I perceived how reluctant he had been of the many years since he was 20. After two days' rest in bed, I made a small incision into the bladder somewhat larger, so that he could remain in it for 35 minutes; and the quantity passed during that time was some half drachm and a half. On May 17th I made him pass it before me. I now wanted 25 minutes in order that a little more might be secured, with a very much greater result. This succeeded perfectly; the stone was

ordinary lateral method. (See *Lancet*, January 4th, 1868, page 1).

This certainly facilitated the operation, by enabling me to reach the fungus of the bladder more easily with the forcinger of the left hand. There was some free bleeding after the operation, but it was not more difficult to stop, by means of a well-padded tube in the wound, than in the ordinary lateral incision. This man, for some days, appeared to do well, the urine flowed freely through the wound, which became red, granular, and healthy; he began again, however, to be troubled by costiveness, the bowels were opened with the greatest difficulty by strong purgatives and enemata, and the feces were white and scybalous; there appeared to be no secretion of bile, yet he did not become jaundiced. The urine continued to flow through the wound, which never lost its red, granular aspect, but the patient became weak and emaciated, in which state, of course, repair could not proceed. On the 7th of April he left the hospital, at his own request, which I did not oppose, as medicine did not seem to benefit him, and there was some hope from change of air. I have had no tidings of him since. This man passed about 21 grains of calculous matter before he was lithotomised, and, when the stone was removed, it was found to weigh 599 grains. In all, therefore, it was about 620 grains.

CASE XXXII.

Milava, aged 35, male, (Hospital Register No. XI, page 86). Stone uric acid, diameter two inches. It was crushed first, with the fenestrated instrument, on March 31st, 1868, and fourteen times afterwards, nine of the operations, only, being with the flat-bladed instrument (see the former paper). This man was discharged, cured, on June 6th. Altogether 387 grains of calculous matter were collected.

CASE XXXIII.

Nathoo, aged 45, male, (Hospital Register No. 13, page 8). Symptoms of stone of ten months' standing. Urine acid, depositing crystals of uric acid; could hold his water three hours, at the end of which time the quantity passed was about 2½ ounces.

Lithotripsy was first performed, with the fenestrated instrument, on the 28th of April, 1868. The stone was found to be 1½ inch in diameter. The operation was repeated with the flat-bladed lithotrite on the 2nd and 5th of May. It was kept in hospital till the 12th, and was three times carefully examined, but no more stone could be found. All his symptoms had subsided, except slight scalding, and frequency of micturition. He could run without any inconvenience. He passed altogether 83 grains of calculous matter.

Tabular Statement of the foregoing Cases.

| No. | Name. | Age. | Sex. | Size of Stone. | Date of first operation. | Number of operations. | Duration of treatment. | Composition of Stone. | Result. | Remarks. | Quantity of detritus. |
|-----|-----------------|------|--------|----------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|--------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1 | Bhojany | 40 | Male | Inches. | July 12th, 1861 | 3 | 17 days. | U. | Cured | ... | 232 Grs. |
| 2 | Monwar Shah | 50 | " | " | July 20th, 1861 | 1 | 6 " | U. | No better | Left of his own accord | ... |
| 3 | D. Unah | 21 | " | " | Jan. 11th, 1862 | 2 | 24 " | " | Cured | ... | 279 " |
| 4 | Bala | 36 | " | " | Feb. 6th, 1862 | 2 | 13 " | P. | Do | ... | 122 " |
| 5 | Bhadr | 34 | " | " | Mar. 16th, 1862 | 3 | 14 " | " | Do | 3 times in hospital | 279 " |
| 6 | Jayava | 20 | Female | " | June 23rd, 1862 | 6 | 19 " | U. | Do | ... | 349 " |
| 7 | Amra | 43 | Male | " | July 2nd, 1862 | 1 | 19 " | " | No better | Left of his own accord | 28 " |
| 8 | Saeba | 41 | " | " | Aug. 1st, 1862 | 3 | 39 " | U. | Cured | ... | 85 " |
| 9 | Kaman Deen | 61 | " | " | Aug. 20th, 1862 | 2 | 28 " | P. | Do | Died of diarrhoea | 83 " |
| 10 | Rohana | 63 | " | " | Sept 24th, 1862 | 2 | 49 " | " | Relieved | Left of his own accord | 109 " |
| 11 | Fazi Deen | 39 | " | " | Dec. 12th, 1862 | 5 | 39 " | " | Cured | ... | 196 " |
| 12 | Bichun Singh | 22 | " | " | May 1st, 1863 | 1 | 7 " | P. | Relieved | Left of his own accord | 129 " |
| 13 | M. Farid Bichun | 59 | " | " | May 14th, 1863 | 1 | 4 " | " | Do | Do | 279 " |
| 14 | Eladon Bakhsh | 53 | " | " | Aug. 23rd, 1863 | 2 | 49 " | " | Cured | Lithotomised on Aug. 5th | 192 " |
| 15 | Sazwar | 58 | " | " | April 2nd, 1864 | 7 | 99 " | " | Do | ... | 294 " |
| 16 | Mhta | 60 | " | " | July 17th, 1864 | 2 | 17 " | U. | Relieved | Left of his own accord | 89 " |
| 17 | Saidhan | 63 | " | " | Dec. 14th, 1864 | 3 | 25 " | P. | No better | Do | 38 " |
| 18 | Wazera | 60 | " | " | Dec. 31st, 1864 | 6 | 89 " | U. | Cured | Do | 74 " |
| 19 | Sazwar | 53 | " | " | Oct. 24th, 1865 | 1 | 29 " | " | Relieved | Lithetasy | These four cases were operated on when I was in England. |
| 20 | Emam Beebee | 5 | Female | " | Nov. 1st, 1865 | 1 | 17 " | " | Cured | ... | ... |
| 21 | Emam Deen | 39 | Male | " | Mar. 10th, 1866 | 4 | 57 " | " | Do | 3 times in hospital | 118 " |
| 22 | Kamon | 19 | Female | " | Nov. 24th, 1867 | 1 | 17 " | " | Do | ... | 115 " |
| 23 | Nazar | 63 | " | " | Feb. 13th, 1867 | 17 | 196 " | " | Do | 3 times in hospital | 118 " |
| 24 | Emam Deen | 26 | " | " | June 6th, 1867 | 4 | 19 " | P. | Do | ... | 52 " |
| 25 | Mozaf Shah | 91 | " | " | Aug. 22nd, 1867 | 9 | 12 " | P. | Do | ... | 94 " |
| 26 | Buckstair | 49 | " | " | Sept 13th, 1867 | 2 | 11 " | " | Do | ... | 39 " |
| 27 | Vaid Dab | 49 | " | " | Nov. 15th, 1867 | 2 | 23 " | P. | Do | ... | 7 " |
| 28 | Parnesdar | 55 | Female | " | Jan. 9th, 1868 | 1 | 6 " | " | Do | ... | 197 " |
| 29 | Jacq | 63 | Male | " | Jan. 11th, 1868 | 6 | 54 " | " | Do | ... | 250 " |
| 30 | Natha | 65 | " | " | Mar. 4th, 1868 | 17 | 91 " | U. | Do | ... | 235 " |
| 31 | Lahman | 45 | " | " | Mar. 6th, 1868 | 3 | 52 " | U. | Lithotomised | Weight of stone extracted, 699 grains | 21 " |
| 32 | Mlava | 35 | " | " | Mar. 31st, 1868 | 15 | 67 " | U. | Cured | ... | 372 " |
| 33 | Nathoo | 45 | " | " | April 28th, 1868 | 3 | 14 " | U. | Do | ... | 83 " |

I now wish to offer a few explanatory remarks on the above details.

The grounds on which it was considered that any patient was "cured" will, for the most part, be found in the statement of each case; and it may fairly be taken as a fact, when the patient, having been believed cured, at the time of discharge, has not since returned. There are but four instances, out of the 33 cases, in which the patients have returned for treatment of the same disorder, viz., Kootba, No. 5; Sazwar, No. 15; Emam Deen, No. 21; and Nazar, No. 23. Now Kootba, Emam Deen, and Nazar were each three times in hospital, and left it, on the first and second occasions, with the evidence of cure either absent or manifest. They were all three eventually cured. In Sazwar's case there is good ground, as stated before, for believing that the cure was complete on the

first occasion. As to the duration of treatment, I have reckoned it from the day of the first operation to that of discharge from hospital (in the case of re-admission, of course deducting the time the patient was absent and not under treatment); but in the case of Kootba, who was detained in hospital after the completion of the treatment for stone, on account of orchitis, I have reckoned it from the first operation to the cessation of symptoms. In the cases of Nazar and Kootba, who were both treated for some time as out-patients, this time has been included. In those instances only, in which the case-book history affords distinct evidence of the composition of the stone, or is inferred from the recorded condition of the urine, or a chemical analysis, has it been noted in the table; U. standing for phosphate, and V. for uric acid or urate. The quantities of detritus collected have been stated, but

other zymotic diseases, a specific poison or miasm for its source. This belief has been gradually gaining ground; but it has hitherto existed only as a belief, and the virus of insolatio has probably always been regarded as separate and distinct from others of its class.

It is not improbable that a more intimate acquaintance with the subject will teach us that some diseases now apparently unconnected, are really identical, and owe their dissimilarities to the fact of the poison working in different constitutions, in varying quantities, or perhaps under differing circumstances yet unknown, and thereby acquiring not only varying degrees, but perfectly distinct forms of action. This may be illustrated in many ways, but one simile will suffice. Oxalic acid in a concentrated form is a powerful irritant poison, but largely diluted, it is an equally powerful relative—diametrically opposite effects produced solely by the presence or absence of a certain quantity of water.

I have not the intention, nor indeed the power, of advancing any new arguments in favour of the zymotic theory. In this paper that doctrine will be accepted as a truth, although it has not received the incontestable proof that is so desirable in all medical investigations; and I wish it to be understood that I use the word *zooch* without any reference to its derivation, simply to express some sort of change taking place after the introduction into the body of external causes competent to excite such morbid alterations. In like manner, the words *anticholera*, *antipestiferous*, &c. are used to denote these exciting causes; and to convey the impression that they are actual, tangible substances, but they are not intended to carry any farther significance. When writing upon subjects that are uncertain, it is necessary to say arbitrarily upon words which will convey the idea as quickly, although the elucidation of those words may be impossible, and the words expressing them very different and even in some conceptions. This is a mode of writing which is not unknown.

The difference which exists between ardent continued fever and cholera has been so generally pointed out by many who have written upon the subject. In the following pages it will be my endeavour to establish as far as I can the relation, but the absolute equality of the two diseases, and in order to do this, it will be necessary to mention at the first place those remarks upon cholera fever which the physicians in India have suggested to me.

The common continued fever of the hot season is epidemic in this country during the summer months, in the widest sense of the term; and if this is understood, there would be strong reasons for attributing the disease solely to the effects of miasmatic impurities, and the excitation. But, besides being general in its extent, it exhibits remarkable epidemic characters, which render it differs in one locality far greater than in another that is equally adequate, and under precisely similar climatic influences. And from this I draw the conclusion that it is dependent on the causes which cooperate to produce it.

It appears to me that heat is the generator of the specific miasm which is conveyed into the economy, are capable of exciting, when it is not fever in constitutions predisposed to yield to it, or to their cause. With conditions not usually favourable to it, as with the sun's heat, or the hot day upon the spot, the excitation of the *anticholera*, whether it be organic, whether it be phlogistic in its nature, or from what element or elements it is derived, I cannot conjecture. But it is not to be denied that such an miasm exists, and in such a quantity at some periods than at others.

When this miasm is introduced, it will produce symptoms of great or less severity, according to its quantity, and the amount of predisposition existing in the individual attacked.

Vigour, but especially intemperance and impure atmosphere, become, as will presently be shown, two influences acting in precisely the same manner as the fever poison does, and produce in a lesser degree the same results. It does not seem necessary that there should be present that kind of predisposition peculiar to the robust European lately arrived in a warm climate; though, no doubt, such men contract the fever in its most asthenic form; nor does it appear that this form of fever is almost confined to the hot dry months of the year in all localities, and to regiments or recruits recently arrived from Europe;—as during the months of May and June, 1867, I witnessed at Dum-Dum an outbreak of sun fever in a regiment which had been eight years in India. In six weeks 303 men, out of a total strength of 680, were admitted into hospital with continued fever. Some of the cases were very mild (febricula), whilst others were of the greatest severity, and needed active antiphlogistic treatment. Many old soldiers were attacked—men who certainly could not be classed as "robust Europeans lately arrived;" and the difference between the dry and wet bulb thermometer rarely exceeded, and was often less than three degrees. A regiment stationed at Calcutta, seven miles distant, maintained excellent health, whilst we were prostrated with sickness. A similar epidemic occurred to another regiment at Dum-Dum the summer before, and sent 503 into hospital; but this corps had not been so long in the country, and had been weakened by service in Bhootan.

It therefore appears to me evident that there are other reasons for the causation of the fever in addition to elevated temperature, and while every allowance is made for personal and local causes, I believe it is impossible to deny the existence of a *anticholera* or specific principle which excites fever in constitutions predisposed to succumb to its effects.

Sun fever varies greatly in its severity. In its mildest form it is a very trifling ailment, and between febricula and the severest ardent fever, there is every possible gradation. Ardent fever is often accompanied with cerebral complications of the grave nature, and the post-mortem examinations in the fatal case frequently show great congestion of the cerebral sinuses, the vessels of the arachnoid, and the spinal vessels.

In most cases there is a tendency to congestion of the lungs, and in just one occurred to me in which death was caused in a few hours by this complication. The point in question was easily won from a not very severe form of ardent fever, on the fifth day he was suddenly seized with hæmoptysis and difficulty of breathing, and died asphyxiated in four hours from the commencement of these symptoms. His lungs were found engorged with dark-coloured blood, which had transuded into the alveoli.

I have not a firm case, in which the head was affected, subsident count, without oppression of the brain, and, on the other hand, men receiving from insolation exhibiting all the symptoms of common continued fever. And it by no means infrequently happens that the patient who is suddenly stricken down without asphyxia, and no cerebral miasm could be detected in the blood, but, as a rule, the membranes of the brain are unaltered.

The probability of the action of miasmatic impurities being directed on the human frame to that of the sun, is a point upon which I have no reason to doubt, and may now be conclusively demonstrated in the similitude I believe, to exist between the two diseases.

Acidulous mineral compounds, especially arsenical, are generally admitted to form primary action. The arsenical compounds, when speedily absorbed in the system, excite the function, and induce the febrile virus. But when a weaker concentration produces an agreeable stimulus, by supplying it to the organism, a great excess of it, in a very short time

for hours together to greater heat than ever emanated from a tropical sun; yet the peculiar symptoms of heat apoplexy never result.

There are no thermometrical observations in insolation to prove that the bodily temperature is any higher than in some other acute diseases; and even if this should be found to be the case, it follows that, inasmuch as the heat exceeds that of the surrounding atmosphere, it must be dependent upon causes operating within the body, and cannot be produced by a gradual heating of the blood by the external temperature which does not maintain an equally high degree. And it is also quite certain that the normal temperature is retained until very shortly before the attack, as a rise of even two degrees is quite enough, unless transient, to render a man incapable of performing any of his ordinary duties.

Some other cause for the disease, then, has to be sought for,—though, for the production of this cause, heat, no doubt, is essential. Under its stimulus, the lower forms of animal and vegetable life multiply, electrical phenomena exhibit their highest activity, and unknown atmospheric changes probably take place; and, I believe, it is from one of these conditions that the disease originates.

(To be continued.)

MISMANAGEMENT.

By a Civil Surgeon.

AN important case occurred in this district lately. A corpse was sent to me for examination. I found compound comminuted fracture of the skull, and reported accordingly. Some days after, various clothes and weapons were forwarded for inspection; they were examined, the articles numbered, and returned, with a report. About twenty days afterwards, I was called upon to give my evidence in Court, where I was, of course, asked if I had examined any weapons, &c. I replied that I had, but did not know whether they belonged to this case, as the Police, in their letter, had omitted to inform me with what case they were connected. I was then shown the articles, which I recognized; but, on being requested to point out on which of them I had discovered blood-stains, I discovered that my numbers had been removed. Natives' clothes being so much alike, I was unable, with satisfaction to myself, to do so, and stated the cause of my inability to the Court; adding, the removing of my numbers was more likely to defeat justice than to catch me tripping in my evidence, as in such a case I should always give my doubt in behalf of the defendant.

Five days after this, these clothes were again sent to me for examination and report.

Now, I wish to ask you, or any Civil Surgeon, if this was not unfair to the defendant? *2dly*, were the Police, or Court authorities, justified in removing my numbers? Or rather, were they not bound to preserve them? And *3dly*, could I have refused to report again on those clothes, considering the length of time they had been in the hands of the Police and Court officials, after my first report, and again after my examination in Court?

I may add that the way I recognized the clothes in Court was, that where I had noticed a suspicious spot on them, I had cut it out to examine.

CALCUTTA, 2nd August, 1868.

PERICHOLORE OF IRON, in solution, employed topically, is very efficacious to destroy the virus after the bite of a rabid animal. It is an antidote for various animal poisons.

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

BHURTPORE HOSPITAL REPORTS.—No. 1

By ROBERT HARVEY, M.B., C.M.

Surgeon to the Bhurtpore Political Agency.

Summary of Capital and Important Operations for the Half-year ending June 30th, 1868.

| No. | OPERATIONS. | DISEASE. | Recovered. | Disch. | REMARKS. |
|-----|---|-----------------------|------------|--------|--|
| 5 | <i>Amputations</i> | | | | |
| | 1 Shoulder-joint | Euchondroma ... | 1 | ... | |
| | 1 Arm | C. C. P. Gangrene ... | 1 | ... | |
| | 1 Fore-arm | Mycetoma ... | 1 | ... | |
| | 1 thigh | Necrosis ... | 1 | ... | |
| | 1 Leg | C. C. Fracture ... | 1 | ... | Of exhaustion consequent on secondary hæmorrhage. |
| 1 | <i>Resection</i> | | | | |
| | Elbow-joint | Serofulous ... | 1 | ... | Partially successful; arm of no great use. |
| 4 | <i>Lithotomies</i> | | | | |
| | 3 Lateral | Calculus Vesicæ ... | 3 | ... | Stones weighed 5½, 33, and 29½ grains, respectively. |
| | 1 do. with division of both lobes of prostate | Ditto ditto ... | 1 | ... | Stone weighed 3,515 grains. |
| 4 | <i>Eviscerations</i> | | | | |
| | 1 Tumour of upper jaw | Fibroma ... | 1 | ... | |
| | 1 Tumour of neck | Fatty ... | 1 | ... | |
| | 1 " of axilla | Glandular ... | 1 | ... | |
| | 1 " of scalp | Cystic ... | 1 | ... | |

CASE I.—COMPOUND COMMUNUTED FRACTURE OF LEG; SECONDARY HÆMORRHAGE AFTER AMPUTATION; DEATH.

MOHEN LAL, a Brahmin beggar, aged 65, admitted January 24th, 1868, at 7 p.m., having been run over by a heavy cart half an hour before. When seen next morning about 10 o'clock, he was found in the following state:—

The right leg was completely smashed and almost severed about its middle. Three inches of the shaft of the tibia, deeply fissured and much comminuted, protruded from a large and deep wound almost encircling the limb. The fibula was broken in several places, and there had been a good deal of bleeding. Pulse 120, weak and thready, but regular. General health below par. Spirits good. He consented to amputation without demur.

Chloroform having been administered, the leg was amputated at the junction of the upper and middle thirds, by the usual flap operation, by Sub-Assistant Surgeon Bholā Nath Das. There was little hæmorrhage, and he bore the operation exceedingly well. Three vessels were tied; the flaps (which were anapic) brought together with a few sutures, and a cold water bandage applied. His pulse steadied under the chloroform, and he was left, half an hour after the operation, comfortable, free from pain, and with a very fair pulse at 92.

Two hours afterwards the stump began to bleed, so much so that it was found necessary to re-open the wound. This was done in my absence *without* chloroform, and additional ligatures were applied to four small vessels. He bore the banding wonderfully well, and for some days it seemed probable that he would recover. The wound, however, made no attempts to heal, and after the 1st of February, became dirty and sloughy. From that day his strength gradually declined, and, in spite of stimulants freely administered, he sank, and died on the 8th, having been in a lethargic stupor for two days before.

REMARKS.

Whatever chance of recovery this patient may originally have had, was without doubt taken away by the renewed loss of blood, and the shock consequent on the indrawing of the flaps. The cause of the secondary hæmorrhage was, unfortunately, only too apparent. It was due to the ignorance, stupidity, or mere "masculin fond for the hands to do" of one of the assistants, who re-screwed the tourniquet immediately after it had been loosened. This was not discovered until the month's of the main vessels had become occluded, only to re-open when

time. Cold lead lotion was applied to the arm, carbolic acid sprinkled freely over the fore-arm, to correct fetor, and sulphur kept burning in sufficient quantity to leave a constant taint of sulphurous acid in the room.

This plan of treatment was continued till the 16th, when, as his health was suffering, and the arm had, to some extent, regained its natural condition, the limb was amputated through the middle of the humerus by flap operation. The parts were enormously congested, and much blood was lost: eleven ligatures being required, as the smallest arterial twigs bled profusely. After recovering from chloroform, he became very restless, and tossed about a good deal with the effect of renewing the bleeding. The wound was re-opened, and three small vessels, scarcely larger than pin points, ligatured. No more blood was lost, and he made an excellent recovery, the wound being now healed. He will leave the hospital in a day or two.

REMARKS.

Had this case occurred in England, the plea of malpraxis would probably have been urged by the defendant in mitigation of punishment. It is difficult to say whether it would have been a valid one, as it is possible that the serious nature of the original injury might have rendered amputation necessary, or have been sufficient of itself to cause gangrene. That there was gross malpraxis is sufficiently evident, both on the part of the Hakem and on that of the Native Doctor. The latter, indeed, excuses himself by saying that the ligature was intended as a purely temporary appliance, till the patient should reach the hospital, but as he allowed it to remain nearly thirty hours, he cannot be held blameless. Indeed, it is possible that but for his ligature, the bad effects of the Hakem's tight bandaging might have passed away. Had the patient died, the charge might have been extended to me, on the ground that immediate amputation at the shoulder-joint might have saved him; but to this plea the circumstances of the case, and the counter-plea of *bona fides*, would have been a sufficient answer. The youth and good constitution of the patient, and the absence of any urgent symptoms, sufficiently justified a delay, which has ended by saving a useful stump capable of sustaining an artificial limb.

POLITICAL AGENCY, BHUTTEPOOR, July 20th, 1868.

CASE OF ATROPHY OF THE LUNGS IN A NEW-BORN INFANT.

By G. D. McREDDIE,

Civil Surgeon.

This was observed in a female infant, which had survived its birth about a quarter of an hour. On opening the chest, the right lung was discovered, after some search, lying far back pressed against the ribs; it was removed and examined; respiration had freely taken place in it, but it weighed only 120 grains. The mean weight of *one lung* which has respired for less than an hour is something above 450 grains (918 grains being the figure given for both lungs in the 2nd edition of Guy's Forensic Medicine, p. 83). The left lung was not separated from its attachment to the heart; it measured about three-quarters of an inch in length by half an inch in breadth. The diaphragm on the left side was entirely absent, its site being indicated posteriorly only by a ribbon-like band of muscular fibres. The left lung also had respired.

HELDRI, Oude. 5th August, 1868.

Notices to Correspondents.

Communications have been received from

Inspector General of Hospitals, DR. JOHN MURRAY,

DR. WILSON, Mysore.

Surgeon, BARNARD,

A Madras Civil Surgeon,

Sub-Assistant Surgeon, H. R. CHUNDER BHUTTACHARJEE,

OUR OWN ENGLISH CORRESPONDENT,

&c., &c., &c.

The Indian Medical Gazette.

NOTICE.

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Subscribers who have not remitted payment for 1868 are solicited to do so.

HARE STREET, }
Calcutta.

WYMAN BROS.,
Proprietors.

SPECIAL NOTICE.

It is particularly requested that Subscribers to the INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE will notify to us EVERY CHANGE OF ADDRESS.

HARE STREET, }
Calcutta.

WYMAN BROS.,
Proprietors.

It is particularly requested that all contributions to the "Indian Medical Gazette" may be written as legibly as possible, and only on ONE SIDE of each sheet of paper.

Technical expressions ought to be so distinct that no possible mistake can be made in printing them.

Neglect of these simple rules causes much trouble.

Communications should be forwarded as early in the month as possible, as delay must inevitably occur in their publication.

Business letters to be forwarded to the Publishers, Messrs. Wyman Bros. and all professional communications to the Editor, direct.

THE CO-OPERATION OF THE PROFESSION THROUGHOUT INDIA IS EARNESTLY SOLICITED.

HARE STREET, }
January, 1868.

WYMAN BROS.,
Proprietors.

"You have chosen the path, not of politics, but of science. Among those who have preceded you in it, and in our own particular department, we find some of the brightest ornaments of British history; and I will not do so in the injustice of supposing that there is any one among you who would not prefer the reputation of Harvey or the Hunters to that of nineteen twentieths of the courtiers and politicians of the periods in which they lived."—SIR LEENJAMIN BRODIE.

THE EPIDEMIC CYANOSIS OF LOWER BENGAL.

A REMARKABLE discovery has lately been published to the world by the Municipality of Calcutta. The statistics appended to the Report for 1867 will afford great delight to certain scientific societies in England. The most astounding facts are there propounded without explanation, comment, or foot-note. Revelations, such as the physician does not usually meet with in a lifetime, are here offered to the profession with a degree of *sang froid* which would certainly be amusing, if it did not, as is actually the case, amount to official absurdity. Is it intended to extend the empire of human knowledge by the triumphs of human imagination—a process which, however successfully it may work in the realms of poetry, is not generally acknowledged as a fair fighting on the field of science? The following observations will prove whether we are justified or not in making these remarks. We need scarcely remind our readers that this disease, or more properly the condition, which is denoted by the term *cyanosis*, is one of very considerable rarity; at least we confess to having believed it to be so until now. But the Mortuary Returns of the Calcutta Municipality only prove in

most frequent cause we have a relief in the following: Cyanosis, the blue disease, is caused from the malformation of the vessels with a morbidly high, the result of imperfect development of the infantile heart, we have recently seen many instances. Those of an acute character have in all instances terminated rapidly than we have. Yet we may perhaps only say that no single individual being labouring with the disease in such frequency as to consider it very common. What do we feel in Calcutta?

The following is the statement of fact by the Municipality of Calcutta—

Table of Deaths in Calcutta during the year 1867.

| | | | |
|-------------|----|----|----|
| In January | .. | .. | 26 |
| " February | .. | .. | 24 |
| " March | .. | .. | 22 |
| " April | .. | .. | 26 |
| " May | .. | .. | 38 |
| " June | .. | .. | 52 |
| " July | .. | .. | 57 |
| " August | .. | .. | 78 |
| " September | .. | .. | 81 |
| " October | .. | .. | 81 |
| " November | .. | .. | 64 |
| " December | .. | .. | 84 |

Total .. 714

Comparing the *Table of Deaths in Calcutta during 1867* with the same of the year having evidently much to do with the high proportion of disease, there being 228 deaths among the population of last year during the second similar period, we may observe that "But in the *English Register*"

We are generally in 1841-1842 at English Statistics bearing the following—

We look to these in the 2th R part of the Registrar General's report for 1867. We find that the estimated population of England is 21,270,000 and the number of deaths from small-pox during the year was 12,000, or 1 in the same ratio as 7946 of the population of Calcutta. The population is consequently 1/10 that of England, but the number is more than 60 times as great as in Calcutta during 1867.

The next Statistics of Diseases of small-pox affimations are the following—

But look to the *Medical Statistics of England*. We are disappointed to find that the number of small-pox cases in England was 26,000, or 1 in 813 of the population of 1867. But, under the same conditions, we find that in England

small-pox is not so common as in England. It is not so common in India, especially in the Presidency of Bengal, where it is not so common as in the *English Register*. Reports of the *Medical Statistics of Bengal* for 1867 are not so common as in England. It is not so common in India, especially in the Presidency of Bengal, where it is not so common as in the *English Register*. Reports of the *Medical Statistics of Bengal* for 1867 are not so common as in England. It is not so common in India, especially in the Presidency of Bengal, where it is not so common as in the *English Register*.

But we are generally in 1841-1842 at English Statistics bearing the following—

We look to these in the 2th R part of the Registrar General's report for 1867.

cycles of mortality, success or failure—see the *English Register*. The mortality is very much in the *English Register*, in comparison of the *English Register* the mortality and so, whose houses and property have not destroyed by the *English Register*. We naturally ask—Must it be the *English Register* that we have accounted for the *English Register* from cyanosis during November, against 21 in February?

It was a slow, but it is a *English Register* by the *English Register* we know of. They are our personal friends, who are in need of research and amusement, we are confidently recommended, the study of the Calcutta Municipality's death statistics. They are replete with the most startling professional skill, and with much that is picturesque of general mirth. They will enjoy a read much in the same way as do the more familiar works of Mark Tennyson and Mr. Joseph Miller. The philosopher who first brought to light the epidemic cyanosis of Lower Bengal, could be said to work out many other like diseases? No, there is a uniform standard up to which our Health Officer seems always to exert his tancy, if not his intellect, and accordingly he brings still to us in profusion the very gems of thought. Let us still further look into the *English Register*.

During 1867, in Calcutta, two murders occurred. They were a public execution, only one man committed suicide by hanging. But we find that eight individuals were killed by accident? (The *English Register* Nov. 9). In England, in 1867, there were 189 murders, so the crime was almost the same number of people, nearly six times as common in 1867 as it was in Calcutta during 1867. In Calcutta eight persons killed their heads by accident in the nooses. In the course of many years no such curious phenomenon is returned in the figures of the Registrar-General of England.

Let us look a little more closely at the rest of the *English Register*. It will be sufficient to refer to the statistics of 1877 in this city with those of England in 1866, as we have already extensively corresponded upon the subject, contained in the *English Register* ways, but it will be more than six times as common in Calcutta. The *English Register* that dies from cholera in Calcutta, 51 persons in England, or 1 in 500,000 of the population.

Eleven deaths in 17 times more common in England than in Calcutta. Deaths from typhoid fever are nearly six times more common in England, 70,000, or 1 in 313, (when only six fatal cases reported in the *English Register* and this side by side with 272 deaths from pleurisy during the same time.)

As to the mortality of the same year in England, 1877, we find 11 times more fatal. Paratyphoid fever is more fatal. Atrophy and debility 74 times more fatal in England than in Calcutta. The mortality from heart disease is more common in England, 11,000, or 1 in 1,000, than in Calcutta, 1,000, or 1 in 1,000, than in Calcutta. The mortality from small-pox is more common in England, 26,000, or 1 in 813, than in Calcutta, 228, or 1 in 3,000, than in Calcutta.

Only two deaths from small-pox in Calcutta during 1877, only two in England, 1877, and not in the *English Register* places. The mortality from the pneumonia and influenza of our Health Officer, the *English Register* from many *English Register* 1,000 times more fatal in Calcutta than in England, and finally the mortality from death not reported in the *English Register* to be reported by 70, as they are in England.

Well, indeed, it is a *English Register*. Anything can be made out in a *English Register*. We have to go, however, to the *English Register*.

that the above propositions (whatever be their want of worth) are not set down by us at random, but that they are the result of a careful comparison between the Reports of the Health Officer for Calcutta, for 1867, and that of the English Registrar-General for 1866.

We are driven, from the above inquiry, to a few curious conclusions:—

1st. Our Indian Mortuary Returns are much more precise and valuable than those of England.

2d. There is no difficulty in arriving at the exact causes of death in all cases, within the limits of the Calcutta Municipality. Beyond such boundaries, the difficulties are allowed to be considerable.

3rd. The frequency of diseases of the pleura, kidney, heart, and brain in Calcutta is merely nominal.

4th. Death from hepatitis is a thing all but unknown.

5th. For one poor weak man to be seen in the purlieus of Calcutta, amongst half a million of souls, you have seventy atrophied and debilitated creatures amongst the same number of human beings in England.

6th. Children do not suffer at all from teething in India.

7th. Murder is never heard of in this metropolis.

8th. Suicide is equally rare.

9th. A 1 woman *abul* run their heads into hempen nooses, and it then becomes the painful duty of the Health Officer to return all such cases as deaths from *accidental hanging*.

Lastly, it is pleasant to know that the ratio of deaths among Christians to the Christian population in Calcutta, during 1867, being 2,896 per cent., this rate of mortality is lower than has occurred in Italy during the 5 years 1862-66, or in the population of Austria during the 11 years 1653-66. (*Table Dr. Farr's figures*, p. xxx., Registrar-General's Report, 1866.)

This is a true fact, if the health statistics in the report be also true; and who will be so pitiful enough to doubt their perfect accuracy? *Ehlo an-was p. i'et accuracy!*

Joking aside, this is an unpleasant task we have taken up. Yet it is our duty, as journalists, to correct pernicious error, and to counteract what is likely to deceive. It is honestly with this desire, and with this alone, that we are driven to thrust a lance through all this miserable mock science now before us. These might indeed, on favorable occasions, excite the laughter of the members of the Statistical and Epidemiological Societies of England, but we have no wish that they should bring ridicule and contempt generally on men of science in India. It shall be our task to prevent this if possible. It is a fact that cyanosis is unusually prevalent in Calcutta, it is but right that our physicians should see to it. If, on the contrary, it is a hoax, all we can say is, that it ill-becomes any Health Officer to indulge in such poor jokes at the expense of his public reputation. Physical malformations, the Health Officer would have us believe, are twice as common in *puting* as in *human*. What shall we be asked to believe next? Probably that old men die of teething, and infants of old age, or something equally absurd. What else can we expect from a statistician who is not restrained by any compunction in publishing, as matters of every-day occurrence, the most impossible mis-statements, and whose source generally seem to us to be based on chance or fancy, and on bad information. We not only distrust the accuracy of such returns, but we indignantly deduce them to be, in certain particulars, as in the matter of

epidemic cyanosis, accidental hanging &c. &c. *puting*. It is full time that all this unphilosophical *puting* should be brought to a stop. Two or three years ago we called upon the Health Officer to desist from careless blundering in figures and in fact. Our good advice, it would appear, has been thrown away.

We are inclined to ask,—Is there no Moral Vagrancy Act, the provisions of which can point to an appropriate place of detention for such triflers with science? Is not the deportation of those individuals justifiable whose offences against science can only be combated by time and distance?

When the Health Officer of Calcutta retires from office, it will be allowed by all that, during his reign, he particularly distinguished himself by his readiness to accept, and to publish, unquestioned, as important truths, the statements of ignorant persons that he aspired to be, and that he deserved the title of, the Baron Munchausen of Indian Statistical Science.

When the Calcutta Municipality see the list of their present Health Officer and appoint his successor—he be who he may—we shall be the first to congratulate them on having found a gentleman with weaker imagination and a greater reverence for accuracy than their present *Elipitus*—the *oreon* *suscep* who shews *Escher*, the unenviable discoverer of epidemic cyanosis in Lower Bengal.

Some of our readers may possibly feel inclined to accuse us of too great partiality in our criticism of public returns. We can only reply that it is very difficult to separate blunders from the author of those blunders,—as it would be for a Judge or jury to consider the merits of a charge of murder apart from all consideration of the individual charged with the crime. It may be well, however, for us to state that we regard the Calcutta Municipality as open to grave censure for allowing such figures to be published as those of which we have above exposed the culpable inaccuracy. The lamentable display of ignorance and error presented by the Calcutta Health Officer's Report for 1867, has, in a manner, come before the public, stamped with the *signature* of the whole Calcutta Municipality. It is to be regretted that a large and influential body of intelligent men should allow to pass, unsifted and uncorrected, reports the accuracy of which they must at least be interested in. We hope our civic senators may not think it unworthy of their consideration how long they should allow their Health Officer to continue to fritter away his time in the production of what must inevitably bring discredit upon the Municipality of Calcutta.

VERNACULAR MEDICAL EDUCATION.

THE extension of medical education among the natives of India is a subject of daily increasing interest and importance.

We have now not only the large collegiate institutions, the capitals of the several presidencies, and important cities, at Agra and Lahore, which may now be considered as fully established and time-honoured institutions, but in addition, through the honor Governments are bestirring themselves, and showing a disposition to carry on the good work. Just a few days ago we wrote on the subject of Vernacular Medical Education, and called attention to the active measures being taken by Mr. George Campbell, the able Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces, for the establishment of a vernacular medical

have come out to test the *El Dorado* fame of India? Or, are there not others less able, whose lot has hitherto been unlucky in the gyrations of fortune's wheel, and who would be content with almost anything they could get? We believe that there is a fair sprinkling of each of these classes. But, in the first place, the best of those who are willing to take Government service, are not always free to do so at once; and, in the second, it is not well that the Government of such a vast empire should be dependent upon mere adventurers in her hour of need. The quality of the material cannot always be detected. Who shall guarantee that, promiscuously entertained as such men are, and bound by no covenant, they may not, if they find the place does not suit them, simply abscond, and leave the sick who have been entrusted to their care to a kinder, and it may be a safer, guardian,—the *vis medicatrix nature*? It is too much the custom to depend upon such men, too, for the smaller civil stations; but it is a serious mistake. An instance has recently been brought to our notice, strongly illustrative of this. During the progress of negotiations between the Medical Department and one of the local Governments, with reference to the appointment of one of these gentlemen to a civil station,—nay, just as it was finally arranged that he was to go and assume charge, (his services there were urgently required,) the individual in question heard of some other appointment which he preferred, and, without any compunction, threw the Government over, and accepted it. Nor can we blame him.

We venture to urge two ways of dealing with this perplexing difficulty. After, in the first place, increasing the regular establishments, (a) *Second* those Medical Officers who have elected for other than the medical walks of life, and in which they look for prizes; and bring upon the Medical Establishment, in their place, men who shall perform the professional work which they were originally intended to perform, and who, in the event of the *Seconded* ever returning to the ranks of the profession, would become supernumeraries, and so remain, until they were absorbed, by vacancies, into the general service. Or, b), let Government enter into a contract with a certain number of well-qualified medical men in England, and induce them to come to India upon the same terms as a large number of engineers have recently taken Government service. There is but little doubt that the majority of such, *once here*, would remain. The pay is good, and the "Encroachment Family Pension Fund" offers a reasonable provision for widows and orphans. But the adoption of such a measure would be to aim a heavy blow at the old service. We incline rather to protect it—"Woodman spare that tree." We would rather add to its growth, and infuse new life into its constitution. It is our only chance of maintaining our Broughtons, our Huttons, our Sprengers, our Forsyths, our Coverers, and our Fayers. The primary object of every Christian, who comes to India, should be to benefit those amongst whom he is to live. If his sojourn is to be short, we can never expect him to identify himself with the people. His main object would be to strive to leave the country as good, and with as large a talent power, as he could. Nor can we wonder. His toes are elsewhere.

We firmly believe that, with years of experience, it will be found that a local European Army *in situ* can be maintained,

so must the old medical service be preserved on its ancient foundations. A *nomadic* race of Doctors, perpetuated from generation to generation, would, in time, lead as effectually to the estrangement of the people from our rule, as men, who had made India the land of their adoption, now do more to establish our popularity than untold battalions of infantry. We strongly incline, then, for this reason, to the first of our two suggestions. But, in the first place, we must increase the strength of the *regular establishment*.

"NATIVE MIDWIFERY."

We beg to draw attention to the cases of difficult labour recorded, in our present issue, by the Civil Surgeon of Ajmere. The subject is one of vital importance to the Native community, and it has at length attracted the attention of the authorities. Sub-Assistant Surgeons have, for some time past, been instructed in midwifery; and one of these, a proficient in the art, is now appointed at the Medical College, in Calcutta, to teach the *Native Doctor* class; so that there is a prospect of the blessings of good midwifery, as well as of good medicine and surgery, being, in course of time, conveyed to the masses. But this, in itself, will do nothing towards the safe delivery of poor Native women in their own homes in remote villages, miles and miles away from dispensaries and Sub-Assistant Surgeons and Native Doctors. Though, indeed, when Native Doctors generally are educated with a view to their establishing themselves in practice, as some of those of the Bengalee class in the Medical College have done, then this desirable result may come to pass. According to their popularity, so will they be "called in" and consulted by the *Native Doctors*. But we must advance a step further, and *educate the Native Doctors themselves*. A few of these future *Messiahs in Capite* are being taught by the Civil Surgeon at Umballah, who has set an admirable example in this respect. He has a *class of Doctors* whom he instructs in practical midwifery; and we see no reason why, with reference to the habits of seclusion prevalent in Native society, this should not be done systematically throughout India at our colleges and schools. It is a fact well known to all experienced medical men, that parturition in this country is far from being the simple process that it is thought, by the uninitiated, to be. We trust that others will follow Dr. Murray's example, and record the results of their experience, in this respect, in these pages. We doubt not that a mass of evidence will be collected, which, whilst it may surprise those who perhaps have not thought much on the subject, will prove the necessity of systematic and enlarged endeavours to remedy the evil.

Review.

Notes on the Treatment of Cholera. By DAVID E. SMITH.

The author has filled several lines with a carefully considered and judiciously selected series of cases, which have been treated by the professional and unprofessional classes of the medical profession in India. From the perusal of these cases, especially worthy of notice, (and the recommendations which they contain,) we are enabled to compare our knowledge of the nature and treatment of cholera with that of the author, and to perceive how far we differ, and to obtain ideas, which may be of service to us in our practice.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF SNAKE-POISON.

(Continued.)

By J. FAYRER, M.D.,

Professor of Surgery, Medical College of Bengal.

September 11th, 1868.—I am indebted to Messrs. Greenhill and Rutherford, Veterinary Surgeons, for the opportunity of making the following experiments. The horses experimented on had been condemned to be destroyed for the disease, partial paraplegia (gone in the loins), and were placed at my disposal by the above gentlemen, for whose valuable aid in noting the symptoms and recording the pathological conditions I am under much obligation. The disease, though incapacitating the animal for work, is not such as to reduce his strength so much as to vitiate the evidence derived from the effects upon him of the poison; and I believe these experiments may be accepted as fair illustrations of the action of snake-poison on the larger animals. The subjects experimented on were a stud-bred mare about 11-3 high and aged 27 years, suffering from partial paraplegia, and an Australian horse, 15-1, 9 years old, a powerful animal, and in good condition, though also paraplegic. The mare succumbed in an hour and twenty minutes from the effects of the bite of a large Cobra; whilst the stronger and younger horse survived the bite of a powerful, fresh, and full-grown Daboiu nearly twelve hours.

The difference in the effects of the poison of the Daboiu and Cobra in these two cases is very remarkable, not only as to the duration of life in the animals bitten, but also in the pathological conditions before and after death.

The mare bitten by the Cobra was rapidly affected—staggered, became exhausted, and died in less than an hour and a half. The post-mortem examination shewed distinct rigor mortis, firm coagulation of the blood; the heart and large vessels, aorta as well as vena cava, distended by firm ante and post-mortem coagula. The lungs were very slightly congested, frothy when cut into, and on the anterior surface rather pale and bloodless than the reverse—whilst all the abdominal viscera were equally free from congestion. The horse bitten by the Daboiu, on the other hand, was affected very slowly, and seemed to doze his life away until just at the last, when a few unconscious plunges terminated his existence; the post-mortem in this case shewed less cadaveric rigidity, fluid blood, empty cardiac cavities, and lungs and other viscera congested.

But it is to be noted that the Cobra bit more vigorously, forced his fangs deeper, and had to deal with a more feeble animal than the Daboiu, who bit a more powerful and healthy horse, and did not insert his teeth with such vigor as the Cobra. The snakes were both fresh and full-grown, and their terrible power was strikingly illustrated by the death of these two horses.

The difference observed in the pathological appearances, and state of the blood after death, may probably be accounted for by the greater rapidity of death in one case, rather than by any essential difference in the nature of the action of the poisons. The mare bitten by the Cobra died in 80 minutes, and after death the blood coagulated firmly, and was found distending the heart and great vessels with firm coagula. Death was probably caused by the rapid effects of the poison on the nerve-centres, before the blood had time to be thoroughly devitalized. In the other case, where death did not occur for nearly 12 hours, there was no coagulation either in or out of the heart or vessels; sufficient time had elapsed to allow the blood to be thus thoroughly charged. I am inclined to believe that if

death were protracted after a Cobra-bite, the condition of the blood would be as it was in the case of the Daboiu-bite.

EXPERIMENT NO. 1.

A bay Australian gelding, 15-1 high, 9 years old, was partially paraplegic, (but otherwise a strong, well-conditioned horse); pulse 12, soft; respiration 18 per minute; was bitten by a full-grown fresh Daboiu Russellii near the lower part of the neck, over the track of the right jugular. The snake struck vigorously, and drew blood freely. The time was 12-15.

12-19.—Respiration 58 (gone up 10); pulse still 12.

12-30.—Respiration 61; pulse now 61. The puncture swollen.

12-52.—Lies down; looks languid; pulse 80 and weak.

1-1.—Twitching of head to the near side; horse still down and very dull. Lower lip pendulous; muzzle resting on the ground; sight and hearing natural.

1-5.—A spasmodic twitch of the muscles of the neck; patches of infarctia, about the size of a shilling, making their appearance on the abdominal surface.

1-9.—Pulse 70, intermittent.

1-16.—Pulse 76; respiration 52. Can rise from the recumbent posture without much effort.

3.—Pulse 80, tremulous and intermittent; horse looks dull and sleepy; yawning, getting up, and lying down again very frequently, as in colic.

4-30.—Pulse 67, weak and intermittent; breathing hurried; horse standing, but very dull; wound swollen, and very painful to the touch; mucous membrane of mouth pallid; ears and legs cold; body moderately warm; when roused is quite sensible.

6.—Horse lying down, breathing heavily; pulse almost imperceptible at the jaw, 60; fugitive colic pains.

9-30.—Breathing stertorous and very heavy; body and extremities cold; pulse imperceptible; horse drank a little water, but is evidently sinking; region of wound much swollen and very painful; purging thin, watery feces (they were quite natural when the horse was bitten).

11-15.—Down and struggling; getting up and moving to and fro in the loose box restlessly; then lying down again and struggling with all four legs; straining and passing small quantities of watery feces with datus.

12.—Dead.

Bitten at 12-15.

Died at 12, midnight, *i.e.*, in eleven hours and three-quarters.

Post-mortem 12 hours after death. Cadaveric rigidity moderate; abdomen distended, and mucous membrane of rectum partially congested and swollen; vicinity of wound blackened by infiltrated blood in the cellular tissue. Muscles all discolored, and general venous congestion apparent.

Thorax. Heart, right auricle empty; right ventricle contained a little frothy blood; left auricle and ventricle both empty; substance of heart firm, but presents numerous small ecchymosed spots. Larger blood vessels as usual. Blood in them fluid.

Lungs congested.

Liver and spleen congested.

Mucous surface of intestines in a highly irritable state, congested and thickened.

Other viscera healthy.

EXPERIMENT NO. 2.

A stud bred mare, about 11-3 high, aged 27, suffering from partial paraplegia and emphysema of lungs, but otherwise strong.

* The venæ were not penetrated.

It walked about, as was seen, rather lame in the injected leg, gradually became sluggish; drooped; could walk if roused, but remained quietly or leaning. It gradually drooped and died at 4:10 p.m.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

Mr. Seva in cut the blood of the fowl (experiment No. 5) into another fowl's thigh at 1 p.m., 26th September.

- 27th September, 10 a.m.—Fowl still alive.
 28th September, 2 p.m.—The fowl is alive, and apparently well, excepting slight lameness in the injected leg.
 30th October.—It is still alive. There has evidently been no local effect.
 2nd November.—The fowl is well.

EXPERIMENT No. 7.

A fowl was bled by 17 drops Cobra in the thigh at 12:49:5. The animal convulsed immediately, and was dead in 50 seconds.

Blood exsanguinated at 1 o'clock.

EXPERIMENT No. 8.

A hypodermic syringe full of the blood of the fowl bitten by the Cobra in experiment No. 7, taken from the thigh was injected into a hen's thigh at 12:20.

- 12:32.—Staggering, and in convulsed leg.
 12:47.—Woke about, but is drowsy.
 1:27.—In a very drowsy, sluggish state; another syringe full of the same that had separated in the clotting of the same quantity of No. 7 was again injected into the fowl's thigh.
 1:52.—Lying down, resting its beak on the ground; very drowsy and listless.
 2:2.—Could be roused.
 Died shortly after at 3:40 p.m.

EXPERIMENT No. 9.

A fowl bitten in the thigh at 12:33 by the Daboia that had bitten the Cobra. It waked about immediately after with slight muscular twitching.

- 12:36:15.—Standing with the lame leg drawn up.
 12:40.—Be knifed in the neck, but staggers slightly.
 12:41.—Bitten again in the thigh by the same snake, which is evidently much excited.
 12:43.—No very apparent effect.
 12:43:33.—Fell over in convulsions.
 12:44:15.—Dead.

This experiment shows that the snake was much exhausted by previous biting.

EXPERIMENT No. 10.

A fowl was placed on a fresh Daboia's fess on the ground. The snake, on being irritated, struck the fowl somewhere about the neck at 12:10. It fell, convulsed, and immediately, and was dead at 12:49:15, that is, it was completely dead in 35 seconds.

This experiment shows the terribly deadly nature of the Daboia's poison.

EXPERIMENT No. 11.

A Cobra was injected at 1 p.m. with fifteen drops of his own poison; the syringe was inserted about 8 inches from the head.

- Ten minutes after there was no effect.
 At 5 p.m. the snake was still unaffected.

* The Daboia is naturally very sluggish, and not aggressive, unprovoked, when it strikes with great rapidity and deadly precision.

Mr. W. Bland told me of an instance where a Daboia was carried home by a gentleman, who, 20 ft. he had got a young P. then, it bit him no injury, and he only became aware of the danger he had escaped by the snake striking at and killing a dog that approached too near it.

8th September, 27th, 10 a.m.—No effect.

30th September, 2 p.m.—No effect.

This experiment seems to show that the Cobra is not poisoned by his own venom.

2nd November.—Seems sluggish, but after so long an interval, it may be from other causes.

EXPERIMENT No. 12.

Five drops of Cobra poison, diluted with about ten drops of water, were injected with the hypodermic syringe into the inner side of a cat's thigh at 1:7:15 p.m.

- At 1:12 restless; muscular twitches; mewing loudly.
 1:13.—Partially paralyzed; dragging the punctured leg; breathing very much hurried. As the cat cringes on the ground the hind-quarters fall over as though paralyzed.
 1:14.—Tries to walk; drags the hind leg.
 1:50.—Sluggish; apparently in no pain; does not move, even when roused.

[Mr. Seva reports after this.]

2:20.—Lying on its side, with hind leg extended; profuse flow of saliva from the mouth, and symptoms of nausea. Frequent evacuation of thin fecal matter.

2:50.—Raised the head and fore part of the body; dragging the hind limbs for a short distance on the floor.

3.—Attempted to get up again, but was unable to do so.

3:5.—Died, slightly convulsed. The blood coagulated firmly after death. It was examined by Professor Forster, and myself, and no change from the normal structure could be made out. The corpuscles, red and white, were unaltered, excepting that some of the red ones were shrunken.

The quantity of poison used was only 5 drops, and that was mixed with water. It was injected at 1:7:15 p.m.; the cat died at 3:5 p.m., rather less than two hours.

It is evident from this that the poison does not suffer by mixture with water.

EXPERIMENT No. 13.

A large Cobra was injected at 1:33 p.m. with five drops of the solution of strychnin, gr. 3 to 5*ss*, near the head.

It was convulsed and powerless at 1:34.

At 1:40 muscular tetanic twitchings.
 1:42.—Dead.

This experiment shows that a poison is rapidly effective on the snake when inoculated into the circulation.

EXPERIMENT No. 14.

A Cobra was injected with about 15 drops of a poison of another fresh and vigorous Cobra at 1:13 p.m. The poison was carefully injected with the hypodermic syringe about 3 inches from the head. The Cobra injected was of the pale, yellow-brown variety, with a single red blotch on the head. It was very active and vicious, the most so I have seen. It was sent to me a short time ago by the Police and appears having been captured after biting a native lad in a boat, which it is said, within an hour after being bitten.

At 2:2 p.m. and 5 p.m. not affected; as vicious and active as ever.

- At 10 a.m. of 27th September still unaffected.
 30th September, 2 p.m.—Still unaffected.
 2nd November.—Still quite well.

PRESENT: Dr. Fayrer and Mr. Seva.

EXPERIMENT No. 15.

28th September.—At 1:17 p.m. a fowl, half-grown, was bitten in the thigh by a Daboia; convulsed immediately, and died in 35 seconds.

Blood drawn from the heart of the fowl in experiment

Bungarus, Naja Elaps, Naja Vittata, Hamadryas Ophiophagus, Trimeresurus Ophiophagus, Hamadryas Elaps.

Such are the synonyms given from different authorities by Gunther. The first is the one by which it is generally recognized by naturalists in the present day. It has a wide geographical distribution, and is found in Bengal, though I have not yet ascertained the localities in this province that it most affects. The snake-catchers say it is to be found in the Sunderbans and other dense and secluded jungle, and that it is difficult and dangerous to capture. It is certainly found in Barmah and the Tenasserim Provinces and Assam. Gunther speaks of three varieties: the one experimented with, found in the Malayan Peninsula, Bengal, Peninsula of Southern India; another in the Philippine Islands; a third in Borneo.

These are merely varieties, and are distinguished by some difference in color. It has, Gunther says, been found in every part of the Indian Continent—in the Andaman Islands, Java, Sumatra, Borneo, and the Philippine Islands, and, according to Dumeril, in New Guinea. It inhabits hollow trees, and is sometimes found between their branches.

Its food, as its name implies, consists of other snakes.

PRESENT:—Dr. Fayrer and Mr. Seeva.

EXPERIMENT NO. 20.

October 2^d, 1868.—The Ophiophagus Elaps, mentioned in experiment No. 21, September 29th, that had been deprived of its fangs, was made to shed its poison by squeezing the poison-glands; a drop or two only could be obtained, so much having been secreted in four days. It had the same appearance as on the first occasion. This, diluted with an equal quantity of water, was injected with the hypodermic syringe into a fowl's thigh at 12-30 a.m. The fowl was not immediately affected, and being carelessly placed near an open door, it made its escape into a drain, in which, as it did not emerge, I presume it died. The opportunity of watching the effects of the poison was lost; but the experiment is interesting, as it shows that the poison is secreted although the poison fangs are removed, and it shows the rate at which it was secreted, about two drops in four days. The snake had not been fed, but on this occasion it was fed with a Passerita Myterezans, (a green whip-snake) that was poisoned by a Cobra.—*Ibid* experiment No. 23. The snake-man put the head of the dead snake into the Ophiophagus' mouth: it seemed delighted to have it, and proceeded to swallow it forthwith, gradually drawing it into its gullet by alternate lateral movements of the lower maxillary bones. The process of swallowing occupied about five minutes, during which the Ophiophagus moved slowly about with the anterior part of his body raised and his hood distended, the Passerita hanging out of its mouth. The last few inches of the tail were swallowed more slowly than the rest.

A second Passerita being offered shortly after, was declined, and it had regained its normal state.

EXPERIMENT NO. 23.

A green whip-snake, more than three feet long (Passerita Myterezans), was bitten by a Cobra, about ten inches from the head, at 12-37 a.m.

At 12-58, it begins to move less actively; gazes, keeping the mouth wide open.

12-59. Almost paralyzed; mouth now closed; head lying on the side. The body is swollen where bitten.

12-10 = Dead.

Death was very rapid; a peculiarly active and vigorous, though innocuous, snake killed in two minutes by the poison of the Cobra.

EXPERIMENT NO. 21.

At 12-18 p.m. a Cobra bit a Cobra in three places near the head. They were both vigorous, fresh, and full-grown.

1-10 p.m.—Appears rather sluggish.

At 1-11 this bitten Cobra bit a fowl in the thigh; it died in four minutes.* I should note that it had been partially exhausted by biting the Passerita, which it killed in two minutes.

1-16.—Appears rather sluggish as it lies on the floor.

At 1-35 it appears in its natural state; raises its head, expands the hood, and strikes when threatened.

At 1-43 it was bitten severely in the body, about a foot from the head, by a Daboia, one of those that have been some time in confinement.

At 1-47 it appeared to be affected; was sluggish, and lay with its hood shrunken and its skin shrivelled. It is possible that in presenting it to the Daboia to be bitten it may have been squeezed, but it did not appear so. It remained in this sluggish state, and was dead at 1-10 p.m.

EXPERIMENT NO. 25.

A Passerita Myterezans, (green whip-snake) rather smaller than the former one, bitten in the body at 1-10 by a Daboia.

At 1-15 p.m. almost powerless. It gradually became more and more exhausted, gaped like the one bitten by the Cobra, and was dead at 2-2 p.m., or in 17 minutes.

The Daboia was one of those long in confinement, and had no doubt become exhausted.

EXPERIMENT NO. 26.

A large black Cobra bitten in the body by a Daboia at 1-52 p.m., October 2nd, at about a foot from the head.

At 2-20 no change.

October 3rd, 6 a.m.—No change.

EXPERIMENT NO. 27.

A full-grown Cobra bitten by a Daboia in the body at 2-1 p.m. At 2-20 no change.

Died at 10-30, October 4th.

EXPERIMENT NO. 28.

A half-grown fowl was bitten in the thigh by a Cobra at 1-11 p.m.

At 1-11-15 it crouched, drooped its wings, rose, staggered, and dropped down.

At 1-13 drooped its wings; rested on its breast, with the point of its beak on the ground.

1-14 = Convulsed and dying.

1-15 = Dead. Died in four minutes.

The Cobra was not quite fresh; it had bitten the Passerita, and had itself been bitten by another Cobra before biting the fowl.

EXPERIMENT NO. 29.

At 1-25 about four drops of the blood of the above fowl (experiment No. 28) were injected into the hind-quarters of a sock cardessus (musk-rat).

At 1-35 eating a portion of the dead fowl, apparently not affected, unless it may be perhaps rather sluggish.

At 5-30 a.m. of 3rd October the musk-rat found dead; appeared to have been dead two or three hours; no sign of any injury, but the syringe puncture in the thigh apparent.

The evidence of experiments Nos. 1, 2, 3, 11, 14, 26 goes to show that the Cobra and the Daboia are not affected by each other or by their own poison.

The experiments Nos. 21, 27, on the other hand, would prove that the Cobra succumbs to the Daboia. If such really be the

* *Ibid* experiment No. 25.

to enquire if the exceptional seasons of 1832, as described by the Superintending Surgeon of Cawnpore, may not have influenced this phenomenon.

It will be noticed, the amount of rain which fell during the year 1832 in the Cawnpore district was far less than usual, a fact also noticed by Colonel Baird Smith, for on account of the drought thus caused there was a partial famine in these parts in 1833. This idea is somewhat confirmed by subsequent events; for no sooner had the rain of 1833 set in, than the cholera of 1831, which until then we may suppose to have been suppressed for want of moisture, instantly burst out, and committed the terrible ravages described by the Superintending Surgeon of Cawnpore.

In 1834, the North-West was again under the influence of an invading cholera, which, although not characterized by any great power of diffusion, was generated with considerable force in certain localities. On the 7th August, the Superintending Surgeon of Agra writes that "cases of cholera took place towards the end of the month (July); in the city the disease has been very severe, yet in the jail not a single case has occurred." From Muttra Dr. J. M. Rae reports (5th September, 1834) "during the month of July it rained incessantly; about the middle of the month cholera made its appearance in the city of Muttra and carried off great numbers. The rains ceased suddenly on the 3rd of August, and none fell till the 22nd; during this interval of hot, dry, sultry, enervating weather, the cholera spread all round Muttra, and from the 14th to the 22nd it prevailed to a frightful extent. Amongst the Europeans of the 3rd Troop Horse Artillery, it was characterized by early collapse of the system, blueness of the skin had commenced in several cases at so early a period, that the individual seized had no other symptom of indisposition except a feeling of general debility and slight relaxation of the bowels; vomiting scarcely made any part of the complaint; spasms were seldom present in the early stages."

At the commencement of the year 1834, the disease, in a very virulent form, was generated in Sylhet, Cachar, and Assam. Dr. Brown reports from the former district that "about the middle of May cholera broke out in Sylhet for the second time in the year, and spread with great mortality; it raged with equal violence from the 4th to the 22nd, when the weather was excessively sultry." "Cholera generally appears twice a year in this district as an epidemic, and at all times sporadic cases are met with." In fact, the inhabitants of Sylhet and Cachar were never absolutely free from cholera.

The disease was very prevalent at Dinapore throughout the whole of the first quarter of 1834.

We must now briefly consider a few details regarding cholera in the Madras Presidency. In 1833, H. M.'s 62nd Regiment, while on the march from Chittoor to Masulipatam, was attacked with a most severe form of cholera; no less than 200 cases occurred in this regiment. Among the troops forming the northern division of the army, the mortality "in 1833-34 was much increased from the prevalence of cholera" in the Hyderabad subsidiary force, "the mortality being greater than usual in 1833-34 and 1835, in consequence of the great prevalence of fever and cholera." In the Nagpore Division, "cholera was very prevalent during the years 1833-34 and 1837-38, the greatest number of deaths occurring in June, July, August, and October."

In the central division of the army, in "the years 1833-34 and 1838, the mortality was considerably increased, and almost solely of cholera."†

In 1833-34 cholera was most severe among the troops of the Mysore Division. In the Godavari District, of which Bellary is the capital, an island includes the table-land lying between the Eastern and Western Ghats, having an average elevation of

about 1,600 feet above the level of the sea. "Cholera prevails to a greater extent than in any other division of the army (Madras), the percentage of admissions as well as of deaths to strength being much above the average. It has frequently been observed that regiments, while marching through this division, are particularly obnoxious to outbreaks of this disease. The question here arises, to what influence are these attributable? and if to a deleterious exhalation emitted from the soil, how is it to be explained that a regiment shall march over ground from one station to another in a perfectly healthy state, while in another body, on the same road, after an interval of only three days, cholera shall commit ravages? while, again, instances occurred where a regiment has been severely attacked with cholera in its march, and another following the same road, after an interval of only two or three days, has altogether escaped." "The mortality was greatly above the average in 1833 and 1838, the result in both years of epidemic cholera."

The Central Provinces and valley of the Nerbudda were also under the influence of a widespread epidemic of cholera in 1833-34. The Superintending Surgeon of Saugor states that the disease appeared at Hoshungabad at the close of the year 1833, "having raged epidemically for some time previously in the neighbouring villages. When it appeared, the weather was unsettled, the wind variable, and the temperature unusually high. The disease committed great ravages at Garrawarra. During the month of October, at Seoni, "easterly winds, as in the preceding year, prevailed in the end of June and July, when cholera first appeared, raging violently among the population." He adds, "cholera and fever may be considered as endemic" in these parts. During the year cholera was prevalent among the shipping on the Madras Roads; and incidentally we hear of it breaking out among the crew of the *Yezook* while at Manila† and at Trincomalee.

In May, 1834, the Superintending Surgeon of Saugor reports "that cholera is raging throughout the high table-lands to the south, a spot at Mundla with greater severity than it has ever before been known. In the neighbourhood of Bhalia and Dhanis, the roads have been nearly impassable from the putridity of the numerous bodies. Some of the deaths have been very sudden, only two hours having elapsed from the first moment of attack." Among the European troops in the Bombay Presidency, the deaths from cholera amounted to 35 in 1831, to 113 in 1832, and to 263 in 1834.

It is evident, therefore, as I before remarked, that the whole of the Madras Presidency, Central India, and Bombay were under the influence of a vast outbreak of epidemic cholera in 1832-33-34, which probably spread to the Hadjeey in 1835, and into the basin of the Mediterranean, and Europe, in 1836-37.

In 1835, epidemic cholera was at a very low ebb throughout Bengal, the districts of Chittagong, Benbulah, Malimpore, Patna, and Hazarebaugh suffered from it, the troops in the latter division being also affected during May and June. The private and troops in the North-Western Provinces and the Saugor divisions were well nigh free from cholera. The Superintending Surgeon of Meerut, however, described an outbreak of this disease in April. "The weather early in the month was very hot, with prevailing easterly winds, several cases of cholera appeared among the Cameromans. On the afternoon of the 17th, we had a shower, the temperature fell in a few hours, and the change was usually temporary; the weather soon resumed its heat and sultry. A number of cases of cholera appeared among the Cameromans, the rest of the troops remaining free from the disease." It does not appear that the cavalry, being in station,

† Report on the Medical Department, Madras Presidency, for the year 1834, London, Madras, 1844, p. 72.

‡ Essays on the Tropics and Progress of the Cholera, by J. S. M. Mather, 1837, p. 17.

§ Report on the Medical Department, Madras Presidency, for the year 1834, London, Madras, 1844, p. 72.

* Report on the Central Division, Madras, 1841.

† Report on the Medical Department of the States of Northern Hyderabad and Nagpore Provinces, compiled and published by the Madras Medical Board, 1844.

in a few instances partaken of the spasmodic form, but has been one of collapse; a few watery motions, succeeded by sudden prostration of all the animal powers, and the patient died without a struggle in a few hours.* It is useless my entering into further particulars regarding the invading cholera of 1838. The above quotations, which, it must be remembered, were written by officers widely separated from one another at the time and on the spot where the disease appeared, seem to me precisely the independent evidence we require to prove the fact of the districts belonging to this Presidency, west and north-west of the Cawnpore division, being under the influence of a vast outburst of cholera in 1838.

Our troops entered Cabul in 1838, but no cases of cholera occurred among them until the following year. Dr J. Atkinson reports from "near Cabul," that early in August (1839) "the camp at Quetta received a formidable visitation from cholera, which morally produced great alarm. The cases were numerous and very fatal, the natives of the country were dying daily in great numbers, both in the town of Quetta and the neighbouring villages."† We have in this and subsequent communications, evidence that during August, 1839, cholera had passed into Cabul, as I supposed the epidemic of 1828 had done in 1829, nor would it have been possible for us to have traced the further history of the epidemic of 1838, had not our untrained army happened to have been in the country at the time.

From the Mirras reports, it is evident that cholera was again very prevalent in that Presidency during the year 1837-38. The number of native troops suffering from cholera amounted to 12 in 1835, to 63 in 1836, 702 in 1837, 1,108 in 1838, 530 in 1839, and 270 in 1840.† The disease was very severe at Bellary among the men of H.M.'s 39th Regiment. On the 21st and 22nd of March, there were a few showers and much lightning. On the evening of the former day the first case of cholera appeared, and between that date and the 21st of May, 75 cases of cholera occurred in the regiment.‡

Among the European troops serving in the Presidency of Bombay, the deaths from cholera amounted to 62 in 1837, to 60 in 1838, and to 256 in 1839.§

Throughout 1859 we have accounts of cholera from almost every large station in this Presidency, the epidemic being reproduced over the whole country invaded by it in 1837-38. The following table, compiled from the reports contained in the proceedings of the Bengal Medical Board, illustrates these facts with considerable precision:—

Table showing the average strength, and number of deaths from cholera among the European troops in the Bengal Presidency for five years.

| Years. | Troops stationed to the East of 80° E. Long. | | Troops stationed to the West of 80° E. Long. | | REMARKS. |
|--------|--|--------------------------------|--|--------------------------------|---|
| | Average strength. | Number of deaths from cholera. | Average strength. | Number of deaths from cholera. | |
| 1835 | 4,707 | 20 | 4,707 | 3 | * Of these 2,000 only took place among the men of the 1st Regiment of Madras. |
| 1836 | 7,132 | 36* | 5,359 | 4 | |
| 1837 | 7,144 | 120 | 4,396 | 16 | |
| 1838 | 6,975 | 52 | 7,122 | 86 | |
| 1839 | 6,011 | 55 | 5,070 | 12 | |

* M.S. Proceedings of Medical Board.

† Report on Epidemic Cholera, by Dr. Larimer, p. 74.

‡ Report on Asiatic Cholera, by S. Rogers, p. 56. London, 1848.

§ Transactions of the Medical and Physical Society of Bombay, N. S., I. New Series, p. 98.

I may here remark that I had carefully kept returns in the proceedings of the Medical Board regarding the health of our troops and prisoners in the settlements of Singapore, Penang and Malacca from 1827 to 1840; and, as far as I can ascertain, not a single death from cholera occurred either among the troops or convicts at any one of these stations during this period. One or two instances of cholera are reported, but the patients recovered. And I find the Madras records confirm the fact that epidemic cholera was absolutely unknown in our eastern possessions during the period under review,* although within these fourteen years we have clear evidence of three great outbreaks of the disease over Hindoostan, our eastern settlements being in constant and speedy communication with India, receiving our convicts, and being absolutely unprotected by anything approaching to a system of quarantine.

ANTISEPTIC DRESSING: A MODIFICATION OF LISTER'S METHOD. KELO OIL, A CHEAP AND EFFICIENT SUBSTITUTE FOR CARBOLIC ACID.

By J. NEWTON, M.A., M.D.

For more than a year past, in the Mission Dispensary at Subathoo, I have pursued Lister's method of treatment, in more than a hundred cases, with results so uniformly successful and satisfactory, as to convince me that in it we have a most valuable means of relieving suffering, which we have no right to neglect.

Most of the antiseptics, though easily used in the form of a lotion, are not a convenient consistency for employment in a paste, after the plan recommended by Professor Lister. Probably no one substance of this entire class is more admirable than the chloride of zinc, introduced to the notice of the profession a few years ago by Mr. DeMorgan, by whom it is, I believe, still employed with great success in London. But neither chloride of zinc nor its late rival, sulphurous acid, seems well adapted to use in the form of a paste, being liable to decompose when used with any ordinary vehicle. In every respect *kelo oil* answers, better than anything else with which I am acquainted, the end in view,—that is, of securing a cheap substitute for carbolic acid. It is apparently rich in creosote, it mixes readily with oil, and it is certainly very cheap, being sold in the Sunda and Subathoo bazaars at the retail price of four annas a quart bottle, while kerosine and the oil of turpentine, either of which might be mixed with the paste, cost each a rupee a bottle. The antiseptic property of *kelo oil*, though doubted, inferior to that of pure carbolic acid, is yet very good, having proved sufficient in all the numerous cases in which it has been used, to prevent decomposition or fermentation.‡

Whether Pasteur's theory of the influence of atmospheric germs in promoting suppuration is correct, or whether it is believed by some high authorities, it is wholly unimportant, not my purpose here to inquire. I only maintain, independently of all theories, as a matter of fact, which cannot be gainsaid,

* Report on the Medical Topography of the Eastern Settlements, Malacca, 1841, also the *Medical Quarterly Journal*, V. 1, p. 71, Malacca, 1840.

† Similar in appearance and properties to the *kelo* of the East known in Europe.

‡ To test its power in this respect, I had made some of the pastes used for a dressing to wounds, in the latter of June weather, in an uncovered vessel. At the end of a fortnight it was found unaltered, being neither sour nor mouldy. The paste consisted simply of water, flowers and a little lard-meat, cooked in a con. on point of steel then knead. I up with as much *kelo oil* as it would bear with, and found that, without the *kelo oil*, it would have fermented and become sour in less than 24 hours.

of the wound, and the dressing should be renewed every day. I have used a variety of dressings, but the best, in my judgment, is that of the following composition:—A dressing of equal parts of castor oil and turpentine, mixed together, and applied only by impregnating the dressing with a small quantity of a strong solution of iodine. The iodine is used in diluted form, and is not used in the form of an ointment. I take the following proportion:—A drachm of the tincture, which is saturated with iodine, to four drachms of castor oil.

A few words will be said here, as to the use of caustics, which, in the cases I have applied, I have not used. It may be applied to the wound, and the dressing, if the case is not too far advanced, and the disease is not very far advanced, but it is not a subject of much interest, in the treatment of suppurating joints. Not only is it not applied to the joints, but a suppurating wound is not a suppurating joint, and by its treatment of an abscess, we may in this principle of treatment, and I consider, in my judgment, may be applied with advantage to the joints, and I have used it in cases of cutaneous abscesses, but I have never used it in suppurating joints. I have used it in suppurating lymphatic glands, but I have not used it in suppurating joints, and by its treatment of an abscess, we may in this principle of treatment, and I consider, in my judgment, may be applied with advantage to the joints, and I have used it in cases of cutaneous abscesses, but I have never used it in suppurating joints. I have used it in suppurating lymphatic glands, but I have not used it in suppurating joints, and by its treatment of an abscess, we may in this principle of treatment, and I consider, in my judgment, may be applied with advantage to the joints, and I have used it in cases of cutaneous abscesses, but I have never used it in suppurating joints.

The process of applying the dressing may be done in three distinct steps:—1st, the preliminary washing; 2nd, the careful application of a dressing of an antiseptic nature; 3rd, the application of the dressing, together with the covering with short hair, and the dressing of the whole.

1st. The Preliminary Wash. In the case of an cut wound, it is generally best to wash the wound with soap and water, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature. In the case of a suppurating joint, it is best to wash the joint with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature. In the case of a suppurating lymphatic gland, it is best to wash the gland with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature.

In the case of a suppurating joint, it is best to wash the joint with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature. In the case of a suppurating lymphatic gland, it is best to wash the gland with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature. In the case of a suppurating joint, it is best to wash the joint with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature.

In the case of a suppurating joint, it is best to wash the joint with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature. In the case of a suppurating lymphatic gland, it is best to wash the gland with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature.

It then is to be put in the case, and it should be done in our choice. In the case of a suppurating joint, it is best to wash the joint with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature.

The next step in the application of the dressing is by means of a moist dressing. This is done by the use of the following dressing:—A dressing of equal parts of castor oil and turpentine, mixed together, and applied only by impregnating the dressing with a small quantity of a strong solution of iodine. The iodine is used in diluted form, and is not used in the form of an ointment. I take the following proportion:—A drachm of the tincture, which is saturated with iodine, to four drachms of castor oil.

2nd. The Dressing of the Joint. This is a process of treatment, and it is done in three distinct steps:—1st, the preliminary washing; 2nd, the careful application of a dressing of an antiseptic nature; 3rd, the application of the dressing, together with the covering with short hair, and the dressing of the whole. In the case of a suppurating joint, it is best to wash the joint with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature. In the case of a suppurating lymphatic gland, it is best to wash the gland with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature.

3rd. The Antiseptic Test and Local Dressing. Having washed the joint, and dried it with a clean cloth, and after it has been washed with a strong solution of iodine, we proceed to apply the dressing. In the case of a suppurating joint, it is best to wash the joint with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature. In the case of a suppurating lymphatic gland, it is best to wash the gland with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature.

In the case of a suppurating joint, it is best to wash the joint with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature. In the case of a suppurating lymphatic gland, it is best to wash the gland with a strong solution of iodine, and to dry it with a clean cloth, and to apply a dressing of an antiseptic nature.

quantity; stir over the fire so as to form a thick paste; keep this up as long as possible without burning the flour, the object being to render the paste very tough and dry, in order to admit of a large quantity of kelo oil. When the mass is cool enough to be conveniently worked, pour upon it a mixture consisting of kelo oil three parts, to apricot (or any other) oil one part. As much as possible of the fluid should be well worked into the paste, care being taken that the latter become not too soft. The paste thus formed is now ready for use, and may be put away in a metallic or porcelain vessel, which should be kept closed to prevent either evaporation or the admission, in the rainy season, of excessive moisture. So rapid, indeed, is the absorption of moisture in the hills in the rainy season, that the paste cannot, with the greatest precautions, be kept tough and firm for more than a day or two. To save the trouble of making it afresh every day, I have lately, in very wet weather, resorted again to the old putty made with pipe-clay. This has, however, more than ever, by contrast, convinced me of the superiority of the poultice, whenever the season admits of its being used. The putty, I may here remark, may be made like the poultice, with a mixture of kelo oil, instead of carbolic acid, with common oil, in the proportion of about three of the former to two of the latter.

When the antiseptic paste, whatever be its composition, is to be applied, it is well to enclose it in a piece of muslin twice as large as the antiseptic curtain. This should first be dipped in kelo oil. The paste should then be spread evenly over one-half of it, the layer being from half an inch to an inch in depth. Over this should be folded the remaining half of the muslin. The ends and sides being then neatly tucked in all round, there will be no danger of any portion of the paste being pressed out. The whole can now be placed upon the antiseptic curtains. Around it should be put a thick border of cotton wool to protect the skin from the pressure of the margin of the *sheet lead*,* a piece of which, overlapping the paste, should now be laid over all. Finally, the entire dressing should be firmly secured by some turns of a common bandage.

Under ordinary circumstances, the paste should be renewed every third or fourth day; the latter is hardly safe if the suppurating surface is very large. In removing it, care should be taken not to disturb the antiseptic curtain, which should be kept closely adherent to the surface of the ulcer. The mere presence of pus should never induce us to remove the curtain, so long as there is no fetid odour. No matter how foul it looks, we should let it alone. But if there be any degree of fetor, there is something wrong, which calls for prompt redress. In such cases it will inevitably be found, either that dressing was not adjusted with sufficient care in the first place, or that it was afterwards suffered to get loose, or, finally, that the interval allowed to elapse since the previous dressing has been too great. At any rate, whatever the cause, if the antiseptic be found to have an offensive smell, it should be removed at once. The ulcer should then be washed as at first, then bathed by means of the spray-producer with sulphurous acid, some other antiseptic lotion, and a new curtain should be applied with greater care. If, however, there be no fetor, we may rest assured that all is right. The old antiseptic curtain should at once, without being disturbed, be mopped with some fresh carbolic acid and oil (1 to 4), so as to saturate it as completely as possible. Fresh paste should then be applied, enclosed in

* Neither gutta-percha nor oiled skin, Professor Lister tells us, will answer the purpose of arresting the vapour of a substance so volatile as carbolic acid. Hitherto I have obtained an abundant supply of sheet lead from the Emporium of Good Goods.

a fresh piece of muslin, and the dressing completed as at first.

Slowly, but very surely, a case thus treated will go on to a cure. After some weeks, the curtain may be lifted to see what progress has been made. The change will sometimes be very striking. If there be but a slight superficial ulcer left, it may be well to discontinue the method of dressing above described, and to employ either a simple water-dressing, or, what is better, a weak carbolic acid lotion. I may add that, in a large proportion of cases, especially in cases of ulcers, lupus, &c., I administer, as a matter of course, tonics and alteratives conjointly with the above local treatment. Iron, arsenic, atees, quinine, and strychnia in various forms and combinations are, as every practitioner knows, invaluable in the constitutional treatment of most of the maladies under consideration.

N.B.—Since the above was written, I have repeated several times the experiment of keeping, for a week or more, the paste described in this paper, consisting of flour and kelo oil mixed with a small proportion of apricot oil. In every case the paste, when kept more than five or six days, has been found covered, to some extent, with a superficial fungous growth,—a white mould. Practically, this fact has proved to be of no consequence. The paste has in no case undergone any fermentative change, nor has there been any ill odour. It has, therefore, been used freely as a dressing, with all the good effects ascribed to it above, the antiseptic curtain being always soaked in the mixture of carbolic acid (1) and oil (4). In the experiments made just before the rains, there was no such mould. I attribute its presence chiefly, however, to the fact that I have found it difficult, of late, to get kelo oil of a good quality. It is adulterated, often largely with water (?). I need hardly repeat that the use of kelo oil is recommended merely on the score of economy: its antiseptic power is far inferior to that of carbolic acid. A small proportion of the latter might be added to it with advantage.

SUBATHOO, September 17th, 1868.

MEMORANDUM OF POINTS TO BE STUDIED, CHIEFLY WITH THE HELP OF THE MICROSCOPE, IN POST-MORTEM EXAMINATIONS OF LEPROSY.

By J. NEWTON, M.A., M.D.

By way of preface, it may be said that a special record of each case should be kept separately. Yet the facts should be noted according to a fixed plan, in systematic order. This should be done partly in order to elicit the utmost amount of information, and partly for future convenience in tabulating the results. Each case, too, is best studied with primary (though not by any means with exclusive) reference to some hypothesis as to the pathology of the disease; either the one given below, or some other.

I. Obtain, if possible, a history of each case; especially a history of the last illness and immediate cause of death.

II.—Observe carefully the external appearance of the subject to be dissected. Specify the particular type of leprosy, whether anasthetic or tubercular, or mixed. Record the number, character, and extent of the external lesions.

III.—The hypothesis which I, for my own part, would like to have tested may be stated thus:—Whatever the specific cause, and whatever the accidental type of the disease, leprosy is essentially an affection of the gelatine-yielding tissues; *i.e.*, of the connective tissue of Virchow, together, probably, with the epithelial tissues likewise. We should examine them

1. Generally, all the tissues of the body, belonging respectively to these two categories, noting any peculiarity that may

for the comfort of the sick are naturally very imperfect; and consequently, where the sickness is likely to be severe, it is very common for the practitioner to order such patients to be sent to one of the hospitals on shore; or, if a man should be taken seriously ill after the morning medical visit, he is so sent by the officer on duty. Should the disease be cholera, the time which must necessarily elapse between the despatch of the patient and his arrival in hospital may seriously affect his recovery, if it does not lead to a rapidly fatal result. The statistics of the two principal hospitals in Calcutta, the General Hospital and that attached to the Medical College, show a large early mortality in those cases which have been taken from the shipping. This is doubtless due in part to the long distances which the sick are required to travel before they are brought under effective treatment.

It has been proposed that riverside dispensaries should be erected at convenient points on the river bank; and that all cases of cholera should be transferred to them, in the first instance, from the shipping. The Bengal Government, in a letter addressed to the Secretary to the Sanitary Commission in April, 1866, suggested the establishment of a *floating dispensary*. The Inspector-General of Hospitals, however, very wisely opposed this scheme, arguing that, unless a vessel of the character of the *Dreadnaught* were fitted up with all the appliances, the establishment, and the spaciousness of a well-equipped hospital, no great decrease in the mortality from cholera and other severe forms of disease could be expected. In a subsequent communication from the Bengal Government to the Board of Revenue, dated June, 1866, it was intimated that Mr. Crawford, the newly-appointed Shipping-Master, would be called upon "to report further on the subject when he had acquired more experience in his office." In due course, the Shipping-Master reported favorably of the establishment of riverside dispensaries, and the *flat* has now gone forth for the erection of one close to Prinsep's Ghât.

The establishment of a riverside dispensary is abundantly justified, and the only regret is that two, instead of one, are not sanctioned. Two have been recommended, one to meet the tides of cholera, at the Esplanade moorings, from the ships in which the patients are at present conveyed at once to the Medical College Hospital, and the other for the shipping moored off Prinsep's Ghât, the first stone of which we may hope shortly to see laid. The plan of the building has been finally approved of; and one question only remains, but that is an all-important one, *viz.*, "who is to pay for it?" It is questionable if the new amount of nine pie per ton upon the shipping will be sufficient to do more than pay for the ordinary hospital accommodation of the town, and that is far from being complete.

The dispensary is to be constructed in one block, and, standing obliquely across the grass-plot between the road and the river, is to face so as to receive as much of the south wind as possible. The block to be divided in the centre into two wards—each capable of accommodating five patients—will be surrounded by a raised verandah. A small room will be made at each of the four corners, and one of them is to be fitted with a reservoir and top for cases of *insolation*. The value of this arrangement has been frequently felt at the Medical College Hospital. The apothecary, whose quarters are ample, will reside in the building.

There can be no doubt that the establishment of this dispensary will, under Providence, lead to the saving of many

a life; but we earnestly trust that it will not be diverted from its original purpose. It is not a dispensary in the ordinary sense of the word, but a *feeder* to the hospitals on the Calcutta side of the river of a certain class of cases. It is intended especially for the temporary reception of cases of cholera and sunstroke, for the proper treatment of which there is usually no provision on board the ships, and which are to be forwarded eventually—as soon, in fact, as possible—to one of the city hospitals. If the building is used for general sickness, it may be unavailable when most urgently required for its own legitimate use, *viz.*, in the cholera months. Persons applying for admission on other than the grounds specified, should be instructed to seek it elsewhere. Medical and surgical aid would always, of course, be available where it was *urgently* needed; but we strongly protest against the dispensary being allowed to become an ordinary hospital, or to degenerate into what "Jack" would be only too glad to recognize it as—*viz.*, a building in which he could conveniently meet with treatment for the results of his visitations into the Wellesley Streets of the town. The dispensary is very public, and if the resort to it of such patients were encouraged, we very much fear that, at certain periods of the day, the neighbourhood of Prinsep's Ghât would be unapproachable.

The establishment of riverside dispensaries, together with the new mode of charging nine pie per ton to each vessel for the admission of her sick sailors into hospital, will materially affect the nature and extent of the medical practice on the river. We must say something on this subject, as also on the appointment of a Port Surgeon, a denomination of Health Officer who is most urgently required for Calcutta, in a future article.

"AS YOU WERE."

IN May last, the Governor-General enquired of the Secretary of State for India how a Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals, who may be compelled by ill-health to take leave to England beyond six months during his five years' tenure of office, is to become entitled to the special pension of £250.

It was a generous question, and an opening was offered for Sir Stafford Northcote to do a liberal thing. Six months' leave to a man advanced in life, and with a constitution more or less broken by long residence in India, is, in most cases, next to useless. It is a well understood axiom with medical men in this country, that a protracted residence in a good climate is required to maintain and thoroughly establish the health which has been recovered during the earlier portion of the sick furlough. What will six months' effort? As well might we hope to extinguish the flames of a burning edifice with the contents of a watering pot, as to effect any real good by an attempt to restore shattered human health with such a measure of leave. The time will come, however, we are convinced, when some useful Bishop will be burnt, and then the *flat* will undergo a change.

The reply to Sir John Lawrence's enquiry is highly instructive. The Secretary merely observes, that "although a five years' service, including six months' leave on medical certificate, is required in the rank of Deputy Inspector-General for the pension in question, and although on the expiration of five years' service on full pay, inclusive of all leave, a Deputy Inspector-General is entitled to a pension of £250, it is not a condition of the pension that the Deputy Inspector-General should have completed a five years' service on full pay, inclusive of all leave, before he is eligible for the pension."

larly when the disease had been developed in India, not upheld. The subject of tuberculosis in India was one of great uncertainty, that it would be well to bring it before the society from time to time. He would now call for a discussion in Dr. Fayer's paper, read at the annual meeting.

Dr. Fayer said that his paper had been chiefly intended to implement one read by him in 1855 before the Association, bringing out the evils caused by massing sick together. He wished to cast no reflection on the designers of the Medical College Hospital, the fall design of which had never been executed, but which, even as it stood, had been, at the time of its completion, of a model hospital, according to the then received standard. But the beds were too closely placed, and although a certain cubic space for each patient was considerable, it was chiefly *above* the beds, not around them. Since the number of beds had been increased, pyæmia and œdipetic diseases had increased in frequency.

A discussion followed upon the subject of hospital construction, in which Drs. Sutherland, Fayer, Francis, Chuckerbutty, and Charles took part.

Dr. Chuckerbutty said that the very important subject of hospital accommodation should be regarded in several lights:—size, cost, &c., and to be considered as well as sanitary arrangement. On ship-board, where space was necessarily valuable, it amounted almost to troops (150 cubic feet to each European, and 75 to each native soldier) was in the abstract absurdly small; but, owing to the number of openings provided for ventilation, the air was seldom offensive, even in the "sick bay," except in foul weather, when the hatches, &c., must be closed. Military hospitals were built in this country regardless of cost, but a liberal allowance of space, and on the healthiest sites, were being generally no necessity for placing them in large wards. With civil hospitals the case was different; they must be built close to the dwellings of the poor, for whose benefit they are intended, hence their sites were necessarily limited, and often unhealthy. He considered that, while there were any faults in the Medical College Hospital, the most had one made of the available space. The system of perfectly detached wards exposed on all sides to the air was, of course, the best, where practicable. He did not see how the plan of having a number of small detached rooms, each containing only one or two beds, could be carried into practice, a hospital so constructed would form a small town in itself. It was of great importance that the wards should be raised considerably above a ground. But the wards of the Medical College Hospital are arranged end to end (instead of side by side); the building could have required many times a larger area than it now occupies; and, though ventilation would be improved, on the other hand the wards would be more exposed than they are now to unhealthy emanations from the city. Even ventilation might be carried too far, as in the Scudlah Pinner Hospital, where the necessity of wind and rain to the interior of the building was often complained of. He agreed with Dr. Fayer that medical and surgical cases should be separated; and, further, that cases of capital operation should be kept apart from those of minor wounds and ulcers; but he deprecated the confining of all cases of dysentery into a separate ward. The atmosphere of such a ward would become so foul as to prove fatal to even mild cases of the disease.

Dr. Fayer did not advocate the system of wards with only one or two beds to the exclusion of larger ones; but he thought that every large hospital should contain five or six such wards, or the isolation of important surgical cases.

Dr. Francis could bear testimony to the deficient ventilation of the wards in the Medical College Hospital, which could not be fully appreciated by a visit on the daytime. He had been the inmate, when Philipson, in visiting the wards at midnight, had used to find them very offensive.

Dr. Charles said that, in a room, the air in the best ventilated cases became foul at certain seasons. He had served in several of the best hospitals in the country, as well as in the Garrison Hospital at New York, where he considered as unquestionably the very worst that any of the ventilation was more or less defective. He afterwards proposed to construct a ward capable of accommodating twenty-five men, the air in which could remain pure, with artificial ventilation, during three weeks of the year, with a corresponding atmosphere was close and stagnant. He asked Dr. Fayer whether he found that surgical cases gathered in Calcutta often troubled in patients they do in wards. At the same time he had found that the wounded did well more easily than in wards, the care of the limbs, when even open, being conducted judiciously.

Dr. Fayer thought that surgical cases did as well in tents as in wards at Calcutta, but not better.

Dr. Chevers spoke of the importance, first pointed out by Dr. Sutherland, of isolating all cases of gangrenous dysentery in large hospitals.

Dr. Sutherland said that where this plan was adopted, the mortality from bowel complaints was reduced by one-half.

Dr. Francis thought that Dr. Chuckerbutty over-estimated the amount of ventilation on board transports.

In these vessels a great number of soldiers were ordered to remain on deck during the day and night, according to the system of "deck-beds," and hence the cubic space per man between deck-beds was real rather than nominal.

On board coaling ships, however, with nearly the same means of ventilation, the mortality was very large, because a similar rule was not enforced. He dwelt upon the necessity for enlarging the amount of cubic and superficial space per man, proportionally to the increase in number of the persons to be provided for. A large body required more space, in proportion to their numbers, than a small one.

After some more discussion, the President proposed that the further discussion of the subject of hospital construction should be adjourned to the next meeting.

Dr. Fayer exhibited a knee-joint in an advanced state of disorganisation, the result of a wound inflicted three weeks before, owing to the patient having been thrown violently upon a heap of glass bottles. The patient had died with symptoms indicative of the formation of ante-mortem coagula in the heart and pulmonary vessels.

A discussion upon the subject of ante-mortem coagula in the heart and their influence in causing death followed, in which Drs. Chevers, Fayer, and Chuckerbutty took part. Dr. Fayer believed that these clots often formed suddenly in surgical cases, without any premonitory symptoms, and that the tendency to their formation was best combated by good food, stimulants, and pure air.

Dr. Colles reminded the meeting, that as Baboo Dwarka Nath Mokherjee's period of duty as House-Surgeon at the Medical College Hospital had expired, and as he himself expected shortly to leave Calcutta, it would be necessary to take steps to elect Secretaries for the rest of the current year.

It was then agreed to call a special meeting on Saturday, the 23rd May, at 9 a.m. for the purpose of electing the Secretaries.

The following gentlemen were then proposed for the office:—

Baboo Chunder Mohun Ghose, M.B., by Dr. Chuckerbutty, seconded by Dr. Francis.

Dr. W. K. Waller, by Dr. Fayer, seconded by Dr. Chuckerbutty.

Votes of thanks to the out-going Secretaries, and to Dr. Ewart for his address on Medicine, read at the annual meeting, were proposed and carried.

The meeting adjourned at 10-50 p.m., with a vote of thanks to the chair.

A special meeting of the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association was held in the Theatre of the Medical College Hospital at 9-15 a.m., on Saturday, the 23rd May, 1863; Dr. Chevers, President, in the chair.

The President submitted to the meeting a letter from Baboo Dwarka Nath Mokherjee, resigning his office as Secretary, his term of duty at the Medical College Hospital having expired.

Dr. Colles also tendered his resignation of the post of Secretary being about to leave Calcutta.

The following gentlemen were then unanimously elected as Joint-Secretaries:—

Dr. W. K. Waller,—proposed by Dr. Fayer, seconded by Dr. Chuckerbutty.

Baboo Chunder Mohun Ghose, M.B.,—proposed by Dr. Chuckerbutty, seconded by Dr. Francis.

The following resolution, proposed by the President, was unanimously carried:—

"That this meeting regrets that Dr. Colles and Baboo Dwarka Nath Mokherjee have been under the necessity of resigning their offices, and desires to record a sense of the obligations which they have rendered to this Branch of the Association, and to thank them for the same."

The meeting then closed, with a vote of thanks to the chair.

NORMAN CHEVRS, Esq., Secy.

should. Written by good, bold, clear English, by a master not only of the clinical details, but of the higher scientific departments of our profession, Dr. Anstie's book is one which may be read with equal pleasure by the physician and the layman.

Medical Education and Medical Interests. By ISAAC ASHIE, M.B. Dublin; Famin, 1868.

This is the essay which received the Carmichael prize of £100 from the Council of the Irish College of Surgeons. It was, we believe, ranked second to Dr. Manóghan's. We by no means accept the author's opinions on the numerous points of medical ethics he has undertaken to discuss, nor have we space to enter fully into the matter as to show in what respect we consider Dr. Ashie's views mistaken ones. But we can nevertheless recommend this book as a worthy addition to the particular branch to which it belongs, and as one which contains an abundance of useful and pleasant reading, absent our profession as a body. The following is a list of some of the questions in which the author treats:—Study of Languages and Sciences, Moral Discipline, Age for Commencing Medical Study, Hospital Case-taking, Systematic Lectures, Private Tutor, Professional Examinations, Qualifications of Examiners, Public Function of Corporations, "Physicians v. General Practitioners," The Physician's Fee, &c. On all these heads Dr. Ashie has something of interest to say.

On Digitalis: with some Observations on the Urine. By T. L. BUCKTON, BSc, M.B. London; Churchill, 1858.

This is an E. H. Burgh's graduate thesis of more than ordinary merit. The author has taken up for discussion the important question of the action of digitalis, and while he has brought together from all sorts a mass of information, which the general medical reader is unfamiliar with, he has given us some good results of his own experience. The author's researches have extended both to the physiological and therapeutic effects of the drug. His own hypothesis of the action is as follows:—It causes contraction of the small arteries, and at the same time acts on the regulating apparatus of the heart, both directly and to a much greater extent through the veins, thus causing depression of the heart without loss of tension; it stimulates the vaso-motor apparatus, causing increased force of the cardiac contract ions. This primary stimulus then gives place to a paralytic effect partial and then complete. Dr. Bruntton's intention was to remain on the physics of the circulation as far as exactly what we should wish them to be; his explanation of tension, for instance, is far from having the necessary clearness. It seems to us, too, that in treating of the influence of the macroscopic of respiration on the pulse, he has overlooked the very important investigation laid before the Royal Society of London last year by Dr. Burdett-Coutts. Their sphygmographic tracings would be interesting if one felt sure of their accuracy. One is led to doubt this latter from the fact that the author records so many extraordinary variations in the tracings of his own pulse. If there is anything which those experienced in sphygmography must see, it is that the pulse gives an almost invariable trace if taken several times at the same hour of the day, and at the same interval of meals. Dr. Bruntton's traces have not this quality. Still his book is a useful contribution to scientific therapeutics, and will be studied with benefit.

On Varicose Disease of the Lower Extremities and Its Allied Disorders, &c. By JOHN GAY, F.R.C.S. London; Chitrenell, 1858.

This book contains the Lectures delivered in 1857 before the Medical Society of London. Mr. Gay is a surgeon of considerable skill and his method of operation in femoral rupture has already been very favorably spoken of by Sir William Ferguson. In this work, which is illustrated by a number of interesting lithographs of dissections, he shows the great value of a knowledge of anatomy and physiology to the practical surgeon. The lectures are three in number, and deal with the following heads, set out in the title: Anatomy and Physiology of the Saphenous System in relation to Varicose Veins, Morbid Anatomy, Signs of Obstruction, Curious Cases of Varicose Veins, Etiology of Varicose Disease, Treatment, Stricture, Discoloration, Induration, Ulcer and its Treatment. Under this latter head, which, after all, is of most importance to the practitioner, Mr. Gay treats of the methods employed by the ancients, and then proceeds to the plans now resorted to in the present day. He analyzes with much fairness the different

processes of bandages, elastic stockings, compresses, and ablation, and shows and what circumstances each of these measures is advisable. We rather object to his statement that "varicosity gives rise to *subleucis sanguinis*," such as *leucæmia*, *neuralgia*, &c. We really think that these circulations are much objective ones as any that the sensorium is capable of appreciating. The venous ulcers, he says, is curable only in one way—by incisions at the edges; the internal ulcers he almost regards as incurable. Mr. Gay's book is a good practical contribution to surgical literature.

Recherches Chimiques et Physico-chimiques sur l'Éthylène. (C'est-à-dire) Par T. MORENO Y. MATE. Paris; Louis Lichères, 1868.

The extraordinary properties attributed to the gas of this title to say a few words about the name of the gas. The author, while he objects to the gas being regarded as a food, in some measure corroborates the statements of other physiologists to the effect that this substance has some peculiar power of sustaining the animal operations in the absence of food. He states also that, when taken by very large doses, it is a morbid poison. He thus sums up its properties—(1) In a very large poisonous dose it produces tetanic convulsions resembling those of strychnia. (2) In much smaller doses it produces decided hyperæsthesia, dilatation of the pupils, and loss of movement from want of co-ordination. (3) In intermediate doses it diminishes, and then destroys, sensation, without affecting the movements in any marked degree. The preparation which the author recommends for those who wish to try experiments is a salt of the alkaloid—*acetate of cocaine*.

Clinical Lectures on Diseases of the Liver, Gall-bladder, and Biliary and Urinary Systems. By CHARLES MCMICHAISON, M.D., F.R.S. London; Longman, 1858.

Dr. MCMICHAISON'S long-expected treatise has just been published, and we hasten to give a brief analysis of it before our readers. The lectures were originally delivered to the students of Middlesex Hospital, and four of them have already been published in the *Lancet*. The third of these, entitled as an essay on the treatment of the biliary tumors of the liver, which appeared in the *British Medical Journal* for the 10 number, 1856. The subject-matter of it is, as we all know, a very gross error. The constituents of the Liver, Lectures II, III, IV, V, and VI; Composition of the Liver, Lectures VII, VIII, IX, and X; Fluid in the Peritoneum, Hepatic Pain; Gall-stones; and Enlargement of Gall-bladder. Twenty-five very excellent engravings accompany the text, and several are furnished of ninety-six cases of disease arranged in their proper order. The sphygmometer was excellent might have been expected from so sensible and cautious an author as Dr. MCMICHAISON, and we shall say no more of the general character of the book. There is, however, a special point of practical as well as theoretical interest to which we may direct attention. It will be remembered that Dr. George Hayward, in treating of jaundice, accepts Keil's view, that in jaundice, resulting from closure of the common bile-duct, the urinary urea may be found in the urine. He then argues that the presence or absence of them in the urine is a test to distinguish jaundice from obstruction, and he then gives a slight modification of Pettenkofer's test. Now, Dr. MCMICHAISON'S experience is quite opposed to this conclusion of Dr. G. H. Keil's. He says to 120 that both the chemical and physical tests are open to objection. "We have analyzed," he says, "Dr. MCMICHAISON'S arguments *contra*, but we may give our attention from those which seem to justify his opinion. As we said in his paper, he says: 'You will remember that one of our cases I applied the test to the urine of six patients in my ward at the Middlesex Hospital. In three of the cases, a dark purple fœdment was produced at the line of contact of the solution and the urine. One of the three cases was an example of jaundice from ruptured gall-stone in the other two cases, there was no such condition. The only symptom of jaundice which the patients bore at the time of the test was a slight yellowing of the scleræ, and the urine was not turbid. The urine was not turbid at the time of the test, and must therefore be the effect of the test itself.'"

Illustrations of the Pathology of the Liver. By HENRY HAYES, M.D., F.R.S. London; Longman, 1858.

The illustrations of the pathology of the liver, which are so long as the volume's space of the plates, are of a most

choice fell unanimously on Dr. William Russell, one of the evening lecturers at University College, and a pupil of Bunsen's. It is the discovery of a very ingenious process for gas analysis, and is one of the Secretaries in the Chemical Section of the British Association. His published researches are both numerous and important.

Medical colleges will remain over quiet between this and October, for most of our London physicians are "taking the air and the waters" in various parts of the world.

It is thought that the number of new students will be less this year than last. Time will tell.

I regret to have to mention the death of Dr. W. Mackenzie, of Glasgow. Dr. Mackenzie's many works on the eye need no eulogium from me, as everyone knows and appreciates them. He died at his residence at the ripe age of 74 years.

London, September 25th, 1868.

Few who have had anything to do with hospitals believe that they are the most profitably managed institutions in the world. The assistant physician, who is so often taxed with using expensive medicines, who is provided with kindly aid of the scientific appliances of modern medicine, and who has to prescribe for and examine about 150 patients in two or three hours, knows this better than any one. The public, however, are not so well informed. It looks, however, as though the day of reckoning had come, at least for the London hospitals. I say this because a pamphlet which has just been published, and which merely furnishes the statistics of expense, lays bare the sores of certain "charities," which have not dealt so well with their inmates as they ought to have done. Mr. Josiah G. Wilkinson, Secretary of St. Mary's Hospital, desiring to make some retrenchment in the heavy expenditure of his own hospital, wrote to the Secretaries of the other metropolitan charities for their statistics. He arranged and tabulated these for comparison, and laid the result before the Board of Governors. The board ordered it to be reprinted, and it is now upon my table, and in the hands of most of our editors. It displays the most inexplicable differences between the sums expended for each patient by the different hospitals. Indeed, one hospital cures and feeds its patient at about half the rate that the others do. A few instances selected from Mr. Wilkinson's pamphlet will interest your readers. The following is the total expenditure of each hospital per annum, the number of beds being stated:—Charing-Cross, 420 beds, 46,778; Guy's, 560 beds, 42,923; King's College, 192 beds, 49,617; London, 516 beds, 45,987; Middlesex, 310 beds, 44,723; Bartolomew's, 650 beds, 43,631; St. George's, 345 beds, 410,091; St. Mary's, 157 beds, 49,894; University, 130 beds, 48,610; Westminster, 191 beds, 46,474. These are the figures for the general hospitals, and they exhibit some curious discrepancies. It is, however, when we come to the details that the most startling contrasts are observed; contrasts, too, which are all the more extraordinary when it is remembered that the total number of beds by no means indicates the number really occupied. In the matter of drugs, the expenditure for the different hospitals is pretty nearly the same; but when we come to diet, there is quite another state of things. At St. Mary's, with 141 beds occupied, expends £2,504 on the patients' food; while King's, with almost the same number, costs only £1,680, a variation of nearly 2000 in this one article. Again, the patients at Charing-Cross, with about three-fourths of the number of beds occupied at King's, costs £1,865, being 4180 more than the larger hospital. As an instance of economy in the 1909's stanzas peculiarly prominent, the patients in that hospital being fed at little more than half the cost of those at St. Bart's, St. Mary's, or Middlesex. Again, as to nursing the variations are equally curious. Thus the nursing at King's costs more than at St. George's and about half of that of Guy's, and the former contains more than twice, and the latter more than three times, the number of occupied beds. We might find 25 instances about the same number of occupied beds, as 45, while the expense of nursing does not represent one-fourth of the amount. What does all this discrepancy indicate? I think it seems to be other than in some of the hospitals the patients are nursed, or that in other they are over-fed. Indeed, the figures of the Westminster Hospital are so low, that they have already been commented on by the *British Medical Journal*, which has also invited replies from Drs. Fancian and E. J. The latter gentleman alleges that, though the diet-scale is very moderate, the circumstance is always compensated for by the patients, who put nearly all the patients

on extra diet. This clears up the question of feeding, but I fear there is no satisfactory reply to be made in reference to the nursing. There can be little doubt that nursing at this hospital is much to be desired, a fact which accounts for the apparent economy in the expenditure. Altogether, I think Mr. Wilkinson is to be thanked for his exertions, and his impartiality must be admitted, since he takes his own Hospital Board has just been issued, and, on the whole, very unsatisfactory. It admits that there has been some (?) negligence, but in great measure palliates it. It makes no adequate provision for the future management of the infirmities. There was every reason to believe that the Board would have increased its number of medical assistants; but it has not done so. So far from conferring this anticipated benefit on our profession, it has a taxially thrown into our shoulders of the already over-taxed medical officers. It now requires the medical officers to report on themselves, and gives them no additional pay for this extra, and very absurd, duty.

Old St. George's Hospital men will be glad to learn that the new school and addition to the hospital have been completed. The lecture theatre is entered through a corridor leading from the basement of the hospital and ornamented with busts of Cæsar, Hawkins, Brodie, Baillie, and Hunter. The lecture-room is capable of holding two hundred persons, and as there is no gallery, the students have to enter in front of the lecturer, a matter of some importance to the teacher who wishes to keep his class in order. There is also a smaller theatre for the chemical lecturer, the laboratory adjoins this, and both are connected with a shaft, which rapidly carries away the offensive gases formed in the course of lecture demonstration. The dissecting-room is large and well ventilated, with a demonstration-room at the end with a balcony after the fashion of the old St. Thomas's dissecting-room. The new museum is handsome and elegant in decoration, and there is a comfortable reading-room for the students. The opening address will be delivered by Dr. Acton on the 1st proximo.

A good deal of angry correspondence is going on in the medical journals in reference to the increase in the subscription to the Medical Club. It certainly looks as though the committee had treated the members somewhat ungenerously. When the club was started a couple of years ago by Dr. Lory Marshall—who, by the way, has just been made a justice of the peace—it was stated, in order to induce the profession to join at once, that the subscription for those joining within, up to a certain date, should be, for country members a guinea, and for town members three guineas; and on the faith of this promise several members joined. It has quite recently been proposed to raise the subscription for the country members to three guineas, and for the town members to five guineas. Now this is manifestly unfair. It is idle to say that the old subscriptions are inadequate to the support of the club; a contract has been entered into, and I think it should be maintained. Whatever the ultimate issue, it is much to be regretted that the club has not been able to pay its way. I think there is much need of a club in London, and I believe such an institution, if properly worked, would do much to extend the *extents cordis* of our now much-divided body.

A very strong feeling exists here that some tangible reward should be offered to the Indian medical officers who laboured so well and so faithfully in the Abyssinian war. It is not of course to be expected that promotions can be made; but, as the *Times* says, there are ways in which officers may be rewarded besides promotion.

An important reorganisation of services has just been made. Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals Thomas Longmore, C.B., has been gazetted to be Honorary Surgeon to Her Majesty. Those of your readers—and they are many—who have studied at Netley, can judge how worthily the Professor of Surgery discharging his duties, and how well he deserves the high honour that has been conferred upon him.

Is there such a disease as hydrophobia? This is really a serious question, and it is generally asked by Mr. Holmes Gote in his lectures to the *Times*. He says that, during thirty-five years past, Bartolomew has seen only two cases, and these he believes to have been modified forms of tetanus. In one of these, far from the patient having any horror for water, he was greatly relieved by sucking ice. Mr. Gote seems disposed to deny that the modified cases of hydrophobia are caused by the absorption of a poison. He looks on the affection as a sort of traumatic tetanus. In the face of our present absurd and stringent police regulations for dogs, this extension of opinion is important.



FIG. 1. Anterior part of the brain of a mouse with the olfactory bulb removed: (a) olfactory bulb removed; (b) olfactory bulb removed and olfactory tract cut; (c) olfactory bulb removed and olfactory tract cut, olfactory bulb to right; (d) olfactory bulb removed and olfactory tract cut, olfactory bulb to left; (e) olfactory bulb removed and olfactory tract cut, olfactory bulb to right and olfactory tract cut; (f) olfactory bulb removed and olfactory tract cut, olfactory bulb to left and olfactory tract cut; (g) olfactory bulb removed and olfactory tract cut, olfactory bulb to right and olfactory tract cut.

of the olfactory bulb and olfactory tract were removed. The olfactory bulb was removed by cutting the olfactory tract with a pair of fine forceps.

Preparation of the olfactory bulb and olfactory tract for injection

The olfactory bulb and olfactory tract were removed from the brain of a mouse by cutting the olfactory tract with a pair of fine forceps. The olfactory bulb was removed by cutting the olfactory tract with a pair of fine forceps. The olfactory bulb was removed by cutting the olfactory tract with a pair of fine forceps. The olfactory bulb was removed by cutting the olfactory tract with a pair of fine forceps.

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some of the vessels being very large. The lungs were of a light pink colour, many inches above that of the normal human lung; they were collapsed. The heart appeared large and felt hard, and upon being cut was found distended with very dark clots, which hung out as the incision was made.

Vegetable Organisms in the Blood.—In confirmation of Professor Sabin's views of the connection between vegetable germs and disease, some very instructive and remarkable experimental observations have been quite recently published by another American physician, Dr. Joseph C. Richardson. The following is a translation of what we give in Dr. Richardson's own words:—"At 7 p.m., January 7th, 1868, four hours after dinner, I swallowed a few fluid ounces of water, which had been standing some seventy hours on some fragments of beef, and which, according to the result of experiment 2nd, contained at least 27,000,000,000 living organisms. As this test was intended to be, so far as possible, a clinical one, at 8 o'clock I prepared a slide and cover in the following manner: after washing them thoroughly and drawing them on a clean cotton cloth, I applied a drop of strong hydrochloric acid to the middle of the slide, and laid it on it by the glass cover, taking care that by suitable pressure the acid was evenly distributed beneath the surface. Raising the cover after about a minute, I held it by means of two pins in the frame of a spirit lamp, until all the acid was volatilized, and then placed it carefully under a small bell-glass. The slide itself was similarly treated, and when both were quite cool, a drop of blood (obtained from an incision made through an incipient pimple with tinct. ferr. chlor.) was touched to the slide, which was quickly transferred beneath the bell-glass, applied to the glass cover, and the whole reversed and placed on the microscope stage. The lens being adjusted, I held the bell-glass, and the covers of the microscope, very closely together to my eye, so as to prevent all vibrations; I observed some abundant, but I counted twelve in many numbers, and at one or more times were visible in the same field. At a quarter before nine, another drop of blood from a new incision was examined under similar conditions, but four vegetable bodies were found, and later still they diminished in number."

Carbolate of Quinia.—A peculiar preparation which can hardly be named, with the name of chemical compound, has been long used by Herr Brunzick, and highly spoken of by Herr Weizel, as combining the useful qualities of both quinia and carbolic acid. It is especially recommended in all cases of zymotic diseases, and to have been used with advantage in cases of undischarged cholera, during the time that disease was prevalent in England. It seems that with bases even of a weak character like quinia, carbolic acid loses many of its irritating qualities. This is containing a grain of quinia and 1/10 of a grain of carbolic acid, were given in percolated wine without the slightest inconvenience, and with much advantage. This preparation is made by dissolving sixty parts of carbolic acid with hundred parts of quinia in three hundred parts of highly rectified spirit, and mixing and evaporating to the consistency of a thick cream, and then mixing with it the percolated castor.

The Existence of Arterial Capillaries in Insects.—In a memoir lately presented to the French Academy, M. Jules Kunkel reveals to M. Bouchard's discovery of the peculiar blood-passages in the wall of the tracheae. He then states that while he was engaged on some experiments into the development of dipterous insects, he discovered the existence of a beautiful network of capillary vessels, which, he says, not only ramify among the muscles, but are distributed to the various organs of the body. This he discovered by recognizing by its ray tint. But the difficulty of making this preparation to observe the capillaries are, says M. Kunkel, extremely great, and you must take a living insect open, it will live, and air up a bundle of muscles, transfer it to a solution of the stage of the microscope, and examine it with a microscope of day. A high magnifying power is required, and it is best to employ one of M. Brunzick's immersion-lenses. The formation of the capillaries is curious. Their coats are formed of the outer tunic of the tracheae, or cuticle, fused and in the muscles, is easy, but their outer coats are not fused to them, the capillary vessels

Use of Galvanism in Cholera.—Cholera is one of those horrible obstinate ailments, which, if not very early relieved, are fatal to the vast majority of those who are attacked. For this reason we are always in quest of some new remedy. G. L.

(C.) Med. Ital., Lombardy, in 1846, a young girl, in whom cholera followed a severe influenza, was cured by application of the constant galvanic current. The battery used was the old form of cups of Galvani's time. The positive pole was applied to the palm sometimes of the right and sometimes of the left hand; the negative was placed successively on the nape of the neck, the shoulder, and beneath the breast, but always to the side in which the vomiting symptoms presented themselves. The improvement was decided, and he says the sign of the cure was completed by *one cathode* and no more to the spine. This is the old story. How are we ever to get a rational and precise system of therapeutics whilst so ignorant of the mode of carrying on investigations, as this exists? How is this case ever to tell what brought about the cure—the galvanism, the *one cathode*, or the *ice*?

A new application of Collodion. It is well known to those who have to employ the actual cautery, that the part burnt becomes excessively sore. This is not due to the application of the white-hot point, for this completely destroys the tissue and prevents all pain. But the bulk of the instrument which rests upon the part, which keeps the point at a fixed temperature, burns away the surrounding tissues, and produces a nasty burn. How may this be avoided? Our answer would be to remove the heat, for we have found this in practice most successful. But another method, which is simpler and more, is recommended by M. Voillemier in the *Journal de Chimie Medicale* for August. He says, cut the part well with a layer of collodion and let this dry. There is thus a coagulose cover over all the skin but the part to be destroyed. This is a better non-conductor of heat even than water, it prevents the neighbouring tissues from being burnt, and should not be removed for some days after the operation.

Ophthalmia Inoculation.—What is ophthalmia inoculation? This has been reserved in a recent number of *L'es Monthes*. The writer stated that hydrophobia is unknown in Spain. The reason of this was, that the bite of the snake inoculated the individual bitten with some substance which rendered him proof against the poison of hydrophobia. Indeed, said the presenters, are so well aware of this, that they often count their children the bitten by snakes. This extraordinary tale met with no believers, and it has now proved that general from M. Riancho de la Sagra, a Spanish physiologist of great repute. He entered to the French Academy, which was held in August, he stated that the story was entirely without truth; that hydrophobia was common enough in Spain, for they had taken not infrequently not only mad dogs, but mad wolves.

Opium in the Treatment of Cholera. In a very valuable article in *The Practitioner*, for September, Dr. John Harley, states our best authority on the physiology and action of opium, gives us his experience of the value of this drug in cholera. He records six or seven cases, in which, we note of considerable and some of very intense severity. These were treated by large doses (amounting daily from 50 to 500) of the succus opii, and were all discharged cured. His results are very remarkable, and it is to be hoped that further experiments may show us that we have in common what seems a specific for cholera. It will be well for those who pretend to try the preparation to bear in mind the following conclusions which Dr. John Harley has expressed with regard to henlock: (1) That for a very long time we have been using preparations which are comparatively inert, even when given in the largest doses that can be conveniently given. (2) That the *extract* and *succus* of the present phenomena, are the most when taken in the doses therein prescribed. (3) That in order to influence any of the organs in which it is antagonistic, henlock must be given in such doses as to procure within an hour its proper physiological effects. (4) That the quantity required to produce these effects will be in a strict proportion to the muscular activity of the individual.

How Ovariotomy Progresses. We do not think of the dreadfulness which was raised against ovariotomy when it was first performed, it is not a little singular, that, having tried it in a few particular results, it has given rise to many thousands of cases. The late surgeon has written some of the following cases. The result of his operations is that he has cured during the last six years. These results are certainly successful.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF SNAKE-POISON.

(Continued.)

By J. FAYRER, M.D.,

Professor of Surgery, Medical College of Bengal.

PRESENT:—Dr. Fayrer and Mr. Seeva.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

15th October.—A fish (*Ophiocephalus Marulius*), about ten inches in length, was bitten by a fresh Cobra, at 11-20 a.m., in two places, on the dorsal and ventral surfaces.

11-22.—The fish turned over on its side in the water.

11-23.—Struggling and plunging violently in the water.

11-25.—Turned over on its side.

11-26.—On being roused, plunges violently.

11-19.—Dead.

Bitten at 11-20.

Died at 11-40. Dead in 20 minutes.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

A large snail (*Achatina Fulica*) was bitten at 11-28 by a Cobra; it immediately withdrew itself within its shell.

11-45.—In order to examine its condition, the shell was broken; it still continued to contract.

12.—No contraction; all irritability seems extinct. Dead.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.

Two snails of equal size—shells previously broken; one was bitten by a Cobra at 12-28. It immediately shrank and contracted itself. The other snail was not bitten, and was kept for comparison.

12-40.—Irritability of the bitten snail much diminished.

The bitten snail seems to lose its vitality much sooner than the uninjured one; but the precise time when irritability ceased was not noted.

These were the only invertebrate animals I could procure on this occasion. The experiments, though not very satisfactory, leave no doubt that the mollusc was affected by the poison.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.

A full-grown Cobra was bitten at 11-40 a.m. in two places near the tail by a Dabolia Russell.

11-48.—No effect.

12-50.—No effect.

10th October, 8 p.m.—The snake was perhaps not so lively, but there was no marked effect, and it lived.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

A full-grown Cobra was bitten in two places, on the ventral surface and the middle of the body, by a Dabolia, at 11-38.

12-50.—No effect.

16th October, 8 p.m.—No effect; the snake lived.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

A half-grown chicken was bitten by a fresh Cobra in the thigh at 12-2.

12-3-15. It crouched; head drooping, beak resting on the ground.

12-4-30.—Paralysed; head lying on the ground.

12-5.—Convulsed.

12-5-10.—Dead, in 3 minutes and 10 seconds.

EXPERIMENT No. 7.

A second chicken was bitten by the same Cobra at 12-9-30 in the thigh.

At 12-10.—Leg partially paralysed.

12-13.—Lying down, beak resting on the ground.

12-13-30.—Paralysed, beak resting its point on the ground.

12-14.—Convulsed; dead in 5 minutes and 30 seconds.

EXPERIMENT No. 8.

A third chicken was bitten by the same Cobra in the thigh at 12-17-30.

At 12-18-30.—Fell over; rested the point of its beak on the ground.

12-19.—Convulsed.

12-21.—Dead, in 4 minutes and 30 seconds.

This chicken was rather smaller than the two preceding ones.

These three experiments shew that the snake had lost but little of its power in three efforts. The Cobra used in these experiments was not full-grown, but it was very active and vicious.

EXPERIMENT No. 9.

The above small Cobra was bitten at 12-35 in two places, on the middle of its body and on the ventral surface, by a large and fresh Cobra.

16th October, 8 p.m.—Not affected; it lived.

EXPERIMENT No. 10.

19th October, 11-40 a.m.—A large Diamin (*Ptyas Mucosa*) was bitten in two places by a Dabolia.

11-47.—Is partially paralysed; the mouth is wide open; appears unable to move; respiration continues.

11-47.—Moving about slowly.

11-52.—Appears to be recovering.

12.—More active.

20th October, 6 a.m.—Appears sluggish.

10 a.m.—On being roused, moves slowly; but is weak and stiff.

Recovered subsequently.

October 28th, 12-47-1.—Bitten again by another Dabolia.

1 p. m. No effect.

Became sluggish, and died at 10-10 p.m., 27th October.

PRESENT:—Dr. Fayrer and Mr. Seeva.

26th October.—The following experiments were made with the view of again carefully examining the blood before and after the snake-bite.

The blood was very carefully examined on three occasions—

1st, before the animal was bitten.

2nd, whilst it was under the influence of the poison.

3rd, after death.

In no case was anything found to support Professor Hallford's theory, or to confirm his observations. There was no appearance of any new corpuscle, nor was there any change of importance in the condition of either the red or white globules of the blood.

My impressions were in favour of the theory advocated by Professor Hallford, and if any bias existed, it was certainly for rather than against the explanation he gives of the pathological changes in the blood. Nothing, however, that I have seen after many observations supports the view in question, and I am constrained to believe that the change in the blood is of a much more subtle character than can be detected by the microscope. Moreover, in rapid death, as for example where it occurs in from 50 to 100 seconds, it is impossible that such developmental changes could have taken place. The cause of death is evidently an impression made on the nerve centres through the medium of the circulation; but it is, I think, evident also that it is one of a dynamical nature, and not immediately dependent on any structural changes that may, if any do, occur in the blood, and can be seen with the microscope. When death is protracted,

Coast of Coromandel. Their bite is dangerous, but the fang is so short that the wound inflicted is superficial. They are shy and attempt to escape, but defend themselves fiercely when attacked, says Gunther; they lie coiled up, and, when irritated, dart in a peculiar manner sideways, uncoiling themselves as though with a spring. This is the largest species of the genus *Bungarus*; it attains to a length of five feet or more. It has a wide range—Java, the Malayan Peninsula, Burmah, China, Bengal, and the Coromandel Coast. There are several species:

1. *Bungarus Fasciatus* (synonym).
Pseudoboa Fasciata
Bungarus Annularis (Bengalee Sankui).
2. *Bungarus Cereuleus* (synonym).
Pseudoboa Candidus
*Boa Krai**
 " *Lineata*
Bungarus Lividus
 " *Candidus*
 " *Acutus*
 " *Lucivus*
3. *Bungarus Ceylonicus*
 1. " *Semifasciatus*

and other species of the same genus; but they are not found in the peninsula of India, I believe.

EXPERIMENT No. 18.

A *Bungarus Fasciatus* was severely bitten three times, about 8 inches from the head, by a powerful and fresh *Cobra*, at 1:55 p.m.

No apparent effect was produced either at the time, soon after, or later. The *Bungarus* was alive and well two days later. It died a day or two after, but its thorax and lungs were found filled with blood. The *Cobra* fang had probably penetrated the lung.

EXPERIMENT No. 19.

A *Dabeia* was severely bitten by a fresh *Cobra* in three or four places at 2:10 p.m.

No present or subsequent effect was produced. The snake remained quite well.

EXPERIMENT No. 20.

Another *Dabeia* was severely bitten by a fresh *Cobra* about a foot from the tail at 2:22 p.m. No effect produced. The snake remained perfectly well.

EXPERIMENT No. 21.

Two fresh and vigorous *Cobras* were made to bite each other in several places at 2:35 to 2:37 p.m. No evil result followed; both remained quite well.

The result of these experiments has been to demonstrate that the invertebrata and hematoeryal vertebrata are, like the hemothermal vertebrata, subject to the deadly influence of snake-poison. The mollusc, fish, and innocuous colubrine snakes rapidly succumb when bitten by either the viper or the elapid.

The weight of evidence, however, tends to show that the poisonous snakes have little, if any, power to injure each other, for in none of the several series of experiments was the bite of a venomous snake fatal to any other venomous snake. The *Bungarus* that died after being bitten by a *Cobra*, probably died from internal hæmorrhage, and not from the poison.

In repeated careful microscopical examinations of the blood of animals before they were bitten, during the action of the

poison, and after death, I failed to detect any structural changes, such as are described by Professor Hallett.

I may here note, in anticipation of future experiments on the efficacy of the so-called antidotes, that the application of a ligature to the thigh of a fowl bitten by a *Cobra* manifestly retarded the entry of the poison into the circulation, and warded off for a time its fatal effects.

I hope ere long to commence a series of experiments for the purpose of testing the value of various remedies, antidotes, prophylactics, &c., proposed from a variety of sources for snake-poisoning. This will be the natural sequel to the experiments that have been hitherto made with a view of investigating the effect of the poison on the living body and the pathological changes produced.

ON CHOLERA.

BY C. MACNAMARA,

Surgeon to the Calcutta Ophthalmic Hospital.

(Continued from Vol. III., pag. 249.)

In the early part of 1840, the Government of India dispatched a combined European and Native expedition to China, these troops had hardly landed on the island of Chusan before cholera broke out among them. There were only twenty cases, at a stroke, out of a force of some 1,500 men, nevertheless, as the troops had been absolutely free from the disease before starting from India, and on the passage to China, we may fairly conclude that they contracted cholera on arriving in that country.

I have before referred to the existence of cholera in China in 1820. Mr. Hue informs us that the disease was unknown to the Chinese prior to that year, they believe that it first appeared on the shores of the Yellow Sea as a mist which gradually rose from the water, "winding its course along the hills and valleys, and, wherever it passed, men found themselves suddenly attacked with a frightful disease, which was incontrovertibly the cholera." It ravaged first the province of Chantung, then turned northward to Peking, striking in its march the most populous towns, at length crossed the Great Wall. It is possible," continues Mr. Hue, "that it followed the route of the caravans as far as the Russian station of Kheakto, and afterwards, passing through Siberia, invaded Russia."

It is evident, therefore, that epidemic cholera was by no means a new phenomenon in China; and from the following history I think it probable that an outburst of the disease occurred there in 1841-42, which we may trace into Burmah, and even venture to assume followed the route indicated by Mr. Hue, or perhaps a more southern one, into Central Asia and Persia in 1841-45, then uniting with a vast wave of cholera from India, and spreading over Europe and America, as it had done in 1842-33. We must, however, proceed to examine the data upon which this idea is formed.

In 1841 Dr. J. French reported to the Medical Board that cholera in an aggravated form, had broken out among the British troops at Ningpo. "In August the disease was even of an epidemic form at Chinlan. Of some men seized with it, one died, six died." Dr. Bryson makes almost precisely the same remarks to the health of the fleet in these seas. The cholera "seems to have prevailed in its most malignant form at Chinlan and Ningpo. Out of a party of marines serving on shore with the fleet, ten were attacked and six died." During the year 1842, 193 cases of cholera and 45 deaths occurred in our fleet. In 1843, there were 131 cases and 35 deaths from this disease. Dr. Bryson observes: "On a careful review of all the several reports from the squadron, China, it appears that

* This is the *Krai* of Blyden. I have not yet succeeded in obtaining a living specimen. It is found in Bengal, Southern India, and in Assam, but not in Ceylon.

* The *Cobra* of Empire, by M. Hue, Vol. II., p. 74.

Vol. III., of the *Navy*, Part II., List India Staff, p. 31. Printed by order of the House of Commons, 1847.

SUMMARY OF FIFTY POST-MORTEM EXAMINATIONS OF INHABITANTS OF THE JESSORE DISTRICT, PERFORMED IN THE JAIL HOSPITAL.

By KENNETH McLEOD, A.M., M.D., L.R.C.S.E.,

Civil Assistant-Surgeon, Jessore.

(Continued from Vol. III, page 206.)

II.—AGE, SEX, CASTE, EMPLOYMENT, PERIOD OF IMPRISONMENT, AND CAUSE OF DEATH.

These several circumstances are set forth in Table No. II, the number prefixed to each instance being the same in series as in Table No. I. As the induction is so limited, I have not attempted any analysis or generalization, merely placing the facts on record, in order that they may serve as data of com-

parison with any other similar series which may be contributed, in future, by myself or others. The statement of age is merely approximative, as few grown-up natives of the lower class have any idea of what their age actually is.

TABLE No. II.

| No. | Sex. | Age. | Caste. | Employment. | PERIOD OF IMPRISONMENT. | | | DISEASES CAUSING DEATH. | |
|-----|-------|------|-----------|-------------|-------------------------|---------|-------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| | | | | | Years. | Months. | Days. | Primary. | Secondary. |
| 1 | Male. | 65 | Mussulman | Cultivator | 1 | ... | ... | Chronic dysentery | Intussusception. |
| 2 | " | 55 | Ditto | Ditto | 2 | ... | 20 | Ditto | Asthenia. |
| 3 | " | 50 | Ditto | Ditto | 2 | 5 | 29 | Ditto | Ditto. |
| 4 | " | 72 | Ditto | Ditto | 1 | ... | ... | Bright's disease | Diarrhea. |
| 5 | " | 52 | Brahman | Priest | 2 | 10 | 8 | Tetanus | Asphyxia. |
| 6 | " | 59 | Mussulman | Cultivator | ... | ... | 3 | Acute dysentery | Asthenia. |
| 7 | " | 49 | Ditto | Ditto | 6 | 7 | 3 | Laryngitis | Œdema glottidis. |
| 8 | " | 45 | Hindoo | Ditto | ... | ... | 1 | Rupture of spleen | Pleuritis. |
| 9 | " | 53 | Mussulman | Ditto | ... | ... | 8 | Phthisis | Pleuritis. |
| 10 | " | 45 | Chamar | Ditto | ... | ... | 2 | Pneumonia | ... |
| 11 | " | 25 | Hindoo | Ditto | 6 | 4 | 6 | Chronic dysentery | Pneumonia. |
| 12 | " | 55 | Mussulman | Ditto | ... | ... | 2 | Ditto | Ditto. |
| 13 | " | 55 | Ditto | Ditto | ... | ... | 10 | Dysentery | Congestion of brain & lungs. |
| 14 | " | 40 | Ditto | Ditto | ... | ... | 1 | Pneumonia | ... |
| 15 | " | 37 | Ditto | Ditto | 1 | ... | ... | Spleen enlargement | Fever and debility. |
| 16 | " | 49 | Suttri | Service | ... | ... | 8 | Dysentery, acute | Emaciation and œdema. |
| 17 | " | 38 | Mussulman | Cultivator | 1 | 3 | ... | Feb. int. quot. | Congestion of brain & lungs. |
| 18 | " | 52 | Kyast | Writer | 4 | 10 | 8 | Phthisis | ... |
| 19 | " | 55 | Hindoo | Cultivator | ... | ... | 9 | Chronic bronchitis | Emphysema. |
| 20 | " | 33 | Mussulman | Chappasse | ... | ... | 3 | Cholera | ... |
| 21 | " | 24 | Kyamar | Service | ... | ... | 3 | Abscess of liver | Pneumonia. |
| 22 | " | 49 | Hindoo | Ditto | 11 | 4 | ... | Spleen enlargement | Ditto. |
| 23 | " | 41 | Ditto | Cultivator | ... | ... | 6 | Fever, remittent | Congestion of brain. |
| 24 | " | 45 | Chamar | Ditto | 2 | 11 | 6 | Dysentery | ... |
| 25 | " | 27 | Mussulman | Ditto | ... | ... | 10 | Spleen enlargement and dysentery | Pneumonia. |
| 26 | " | 65 | Ditto | Ditto | ... | ... | 9 | Dysentery, chronic | ... |
| 27 | " | 35 | Ditto | Ditto | ... | ... | 1 | Spleen enlargement | Pneumonia. |
| 28 | " | 28 | Ditto | Ditto | ... | ... | 10 | Ditto | Pleuritis. |
| 29 | " | 70 | Hindoo | Ditto | ... | ... | 5 | Pneumonia | ... |
| 30 | " | 57 | Mussulman | Ditto | ... | ... | 3 | Feb. int. quot. | Cerebral congestion and exhaustion. |
| 31 | " | 22 | Hindoo | Writer | ... | ... | 5 | Phthisis pulmonalis | Pneumonia. |
| 32 | " | 20 | Mussulman | Cultivator | ... | ... | 2 | Spleen enlargement | Asthenia. |
| 33 | " | 45 | Ditto | Ditto | ... | ... | 3 | Ditto | Ditto. |
| 34 | " | 45 | Hindoo | Writer | ... | ... | 5 | Lepra | Tubercular peritonitis. |
| 35 | " | 49 | Chamar | Mochi | ... | ... | 7 | Dysentery | ... |
| 36 | " | 45 | Mussulman | Cultivator | 1 | 3 | 19 | Cholera | ... |
| 37 | " | 25 | Kyast | Service | ... | ... | 3 | Spleen enlargement | Pneumonia. |
| 38 | " | 29 | Mussulman | Cultivator | ... | ... | 5 | Acute dysentery | Ditto. |
| 39 | " | 35 | Ditto | Ditto | ... | ... | 1 | Dysentery | Ditto. |
| 40 | " | 75 | Ditto | Ditto | ... | ... | 1 | Pneumonia | ... |
| 41 | " | 23 | Ditto | Ditto | ... | ... | 8 | Spleen enlargement | Anasarca and asthenia. |
| 42 | " | 66 | Brahman | Priest | ... | ... | 1 | Feb. int. quot. | Exhaustion. |
| 43 | " | 17 | Mussulman | Cultivator | ... | ... | 1 | Fever, enlarged spleen | Dysentery. |
| 44 | " | 13 | Ditto | Ditto | ... | ... | 7 | Fever, remittent. | ... |
| 45 | " | 59 | Ditto | Ditto | ... | ... | 5 | Ditto | ... |
| 46 | " | 27 | Chamar | Ditto | ... | ... | 4 | Chronic dysentery | Fever, remittent. |
| 47 | " | 32 | Brahman | Service | ... | ... | 7 | Secondary syphilis | Cleavage of trachea. |
| 48 | " | 32 | Hindoo | Cultivator | 2 | 11 | 1 | Spleen enlargement | Pneumonia. |
| 49 | " | 75 | Mussulman | Ditto | ... | ... | 1 | Phthisis | ... |
| 50 | " | 37 | Hindoo | Ditto | ... | ... | 4 | Pleuritis | ... |

III.—PATHOLOGICAL CONDITION OF THE ORGANS.

1. The bodily condition of the subjects examined is noted as follows:—

Nine bodies (a) (18 per cent.) were noted "well nourished."

The average body weight of these was 153.4 lb.

Thirteen bodies (b) (26 per cent.) were noted "emaciated."

The average body weight of these was 338.13 lb.

Twelve bodies (a) (24 per cent.) were noted "much emaciated."

The average body weight of these was 408.2 lb.

Sixteen bodies (b) (32 per cent.) were noted "extremely emaciated." The average body weight of these was 398. Generally, the weight is directly proportional to the state of nutrition of the body, as might have been expected.

(a) Nos. 5, 7, 9, 24, 27, 29, 34, 44, 46.

(b) Nos. 14, 21, 24, 29, 31, 35, 38, 39, 42, 44, 47, 48, 50.

(a) Nos. 2, 4, 15, 16, 17, 22, 25, 33, 36, 37, 40, 41.

(b) Nos. 1, 3, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 18, 19, 21, 24, 29, 32, 43, 49.

NOTES ON THE MALARIOUS DISEASES OF PEGU.

By K. N. MACDONALD, L.R.C.P. LOND.; L.R.C.S., EDIN.;
Civil Surgeon, Prome.

Nothing can be more conducive to a proper understanding of the pathology of malarious diseases and their *modus operandi* upon the human system, nor more instructive for purposes of generalization, than a careful study, based upon clinical observations, of the conditions which they exhibit under a variety of circumstances, as existing among different races, in particular localities, and under certain conditions of climate.

With a view, therefore, of recording the results of my own observations in this direction, and of exciting further discussion on the subject of such a high importance, I purpose making a series of observations, so far as I have been able to judge from the existing facts, on some of the leading features and peculiarities which these malarious fevers present among the inhabitants of this country, and contrasting them with the malarious diseases that are to be met with in most parts of India. The principal—in fact, I may say, the only malarious—diseases to be met with in this province are intermittent and remittent fevers, of malarial and dysentery. Hypertrophy of the spleen is, comparatively speaking, extremely rare, and goitre is almost unknown to the locality.

I. Intermittent and Remittent Fevers.—Taking the physical aspect of the province of Pegu into consideration, two-thirds of which is nearly completely covered over with dense jungle, rising high and picturesque towards the north, and to the westward, and extending into plains and flats, gently undulating, strips of fertile lands and swamps towards the southern extremity of the province, should diseases of zymotic origin be prevalent, it is worthy of note that they should not manifest any more important results, than the simple periodicity of the former in intertropical regions.

Next to the fact of its prevalence, that has not been mentioned in any of our books, is the perpetual malarial fevers, it is to be observed, that intermitten malarious fevers, and their remittent varieties, are the most fertile and highly cultivated portions of the country. Both remittent and intermittent fevers are very common among it, but, so far as any observations extending over a series of years of India in a neighborhood so extensive as the Burmese, especially in cases where the climate is so variable, it has been possible to ascertain, or from their being very weak varieties of people, or from their being young. Both as it is, such is the fact, as will presently be seen, that the malarious fevers are chiefly attended to give no more than a temporary relief to the sufferer of the country. In regard to the Burmese, I must confine my remarks almost exclusively to the latter.

There is no doubt that remarkable differences between the malarious diseases of Pegu and those of India is the most characteristic of the present argument as a result of simple facts. It is to be observed, that I have only seen two well-marked cases of the malarious disease in Burmese who had never left the country, and who were apparently completely cured by the ordinary means of medical treatment.

I am, however, fully convinced, from a comparative immunity from such a result, that the Burmese has hereditary acquired immunity to it, and is consequently not so common a complication in Burmese as in other parts of the province.

It seems to me that in India this peculiar form of disease is more common, and is independent of previous attacks of malarial disease, and often occurs in individuals of every age and sex, who are not known to have left the country. It is not infrequently fatal in the most fertile of Bengal, where the malarious fevers are to be met with in all classes of India, and a much greater mortality is generally to be met with than in any

part could detect nothing, or, at all events, would certainly fail in giving any indications for judging of the salubrity or otherwise of any particular locality.

In my public and private practice at this station, extending over a period of eighteen months, during which time I have had little under 500 cases of fevers to treat, only thirteen were entered under the head of “*typhoid*,” and two-thirds of these occurred among natives of India, some of whom I know to have had several attacks of fever prior to leaving India. This is a very limited number, considering that, besides dispensary out-door practice, the Prome jail has got a daily average number of 280 prisoners, many of whom come from different parts of the country.

Though the results of dispensary and jail practice cannot be taken as certain criteria of the extent to which a population may be affected by any particular disease, still sufficient data can be collected from them to show whether an endemic disease is very prevalent, or very fatal, or otherwise. From my experience in this district, therefore, I can aver that the intermittent and remittent fevers of Pegu, though perhaps nearly as prevalent, are not so fatal as the malarious fevers of India, and are rarely followed by spleen and hepatic complications.

The quotidian type of intermittent fever is the most common, but it invariably becomes more or less irregular, if not treated in the earlier stages. The tertian type is also frequently met with, especially in the hot weather; and when either occurs in the cold season, it is often accompanied by catarrhal affections of the chest, or diarrhoea.

The mortality among the Burmese from these varieties is very small indeed, but they are frequently led indirectly to serious consequences, solely by inducing a local state of system, predisposing them to attacks of diarrhoea and dysentery, which are fatal at times. As, however, my latter diagnosis was also endemic, and the offspring of numerous influences, it is not difficult to say that it is not so easy to say whether a previous attack of fever had not fatally predisposed the system to these morbid results.

The remittent type of fever is by far the most fatal kind of the malarious fever among the Burmese, especially in the case of children and aged people who readily succumb to it, as is found in other portions of an endemic district. Bilious diarrhoea and fever is also to be met with occasionally, but I have not yet seen a case terminate fatally from it.

Pathogenesis.—Since there does not appear to be any perceptible difference between the malarious fever which causes these different types of fever, the following remarks will apply equally to all.

Whatever may be the real cause of the malarial influence, it is to be observed that some other cause, besides local miasmata, must be the matter in a state of activity at work in developing the malarial type of fever, or otherwise, as is shown by the fact, that, in cases where the malarious fever is not attended to by the ordinary means of medical treatment, or the spleen enlarged, the remittent form is more frequent than the intermittent. The malarious fever, however, must be solved in this way. But, in regard to the malarious fever, a stronger case of miasmata in the malarious districts of India, and being as usual to be met with in the most fertile being great vegetation, has less frequent attacks, and is less fatal, than in the malarious districts of India, where the ground is not so much covered with miasmata, and the malarious fever is not so much attended to. It is to be observed that in India, where the malarious fever is not so easily explained.

It thus does not explain the difference, it must be observed, that the miasmata of a different nature, were it to be the cause of the malarious fever, it would not be so easily explained.

The same is the great reason why it may be found to exist in the native of this country, for instance, it always met with in a very acute if not epidemic, and is attributed to drinking the water of a river, though it is not so.

Now of this disease regarding its origin, why it should have the same principles that it extends to the natives of this country. A sandy or gravelly surface, as it is, is a great stratum of clay, at all times originates, and this is the only origin, the primary kind of soil that generates malarious diseases in this country. Prome is a famous place for fever, dysentery, and dysentery, in consequence of its being regularly situated between, like as if—three fires, having a large strip of paddy lands to the east, another of a large forest to the west of it, and a large swampy passing through the centre of the station, the whole being included in the valley of the Irrawaddy.

Now here are three different sources of malarial, and the result of their combination is a multiplicity of malarious diseases, especially attributable to the above causes, because its inhabitants suffer to a much greater extent from these diseases than those of the villages in its immediate vicinity.

In the treatment of intermittent and remittent fevers, I have always followed a very simple course, and I have invariably found it successful. An emetic or purgative at the commencement, according to the stage of the fever, after which I give five-grain doses of quinine three times a day, and rarely exceed ten grains. This, with attention to the diet, and removal from the unhealthy locality, is sufficient to cure almost any case that is not otherwise complicated.

The liquor arsenicalis I have found serviceable in many cases, but I cannot say that, in my experience, I have met with the success I anticipated from it.

II. Dysentery.—This disease is rather prevalent among the Burmese at all seasons of the year. It appears to prevail principally north of the delta of the Irrawaddy, where the country becomes more or less hilly, and is of a purely malarious nature. It is essentially an endemic disease in the Prome district, and is generally attributed to the water used for drinking, but I do not think that this can invariably be the case, because a great proportion of the population obtain their drinking water from the Irrawaddy, which analysis is found to be as sweet and pure as that of most rivers found at least six months out of the year, viz. from December to May; but during the rains, which generally set in towards the end of May, it becomes of course impurely, and unfit to be used for drinking purposes. Though dysentery may, perhaps, be more prevalent at this season of the year than it is in the hot weather, owing to sudden changes of temperature, its real season commences at the close of the rains, and lasts till February, in consequence of the malarial being more prevalent in these months than at any other season of the year, besides owing to the low temperature of the nights, and the great heat of the days; the thermometer sometimes rising by degrees to a summer, and as high as the heat of the day, with the constant amount of dense fogs in the morning, and a gradually increasing heat at such circumstances, and the various other local and existing causes of local epidemics.

I attribute the prevalence of this station entirely to malarial which originates from a swampy land passing through the station, and the water being imbibed naturally by the waters of the Irrawaddy.

This is corroborated by the facts that that portion of the population who reside in the banks of the swamp is more subject to the disease, and it is observed that those who live in more elevated places, and that all Europeans who come to reside in the neighbourhood, and who never drink but filtered water, are invariably more or less affected by it.

The duration of the after-act is necessarily liable to its duration, in some instances being chronic, and very difficult to cure without a long period.

Beyond the ordinary principles of treatment, I generally administer emetics of ipecacuanha, which in many cases proving early beneficial, when the ordinary astragals fail. In the case of Europeans, besides the above, I never omit recommending the wearing of a flannel belt round the waist, the efficacy of which I have ascribed from personal experience.

III. Dysentery.—is a universal and often fatal malady in this province. When it falls into the chronic state, it generally ends in anæmia, a complication which is rarely curable. The same result is not infrequently follows chronic dysentery.

The acute disease is comparatively easily cured, but the chronic variety is a very intractable disorder. It is less amenable to treatment in the Burmese than in the natives of India, owing to the scarce kind of diet they are in the habit of using, and their proclivity for a horrible preparation of fish in a state of decomposition, called "urapue," which they use under all circumstances of health and disease.

It is very prevalent during and after the rains, probably from the same causes which had already been mentioned under the head of dysentery.

The miasm which induces it appears to be analogous to, if not the same as, that which causes dysentery, for they are often found to arise from the same, or a circumstance dependent upon the parts affected. The amount of the poison absorbed into the system, and the intensity of its application.

In its symptoms and progress it does not appear to differ materially from the same disease as met with in India.

When it exists in an acute form, the frequent dejections often cease altogether, and the bowels become regular as they generally are in a state of health; still, the disease progresses, and ultimately proves fatal.

In these cases I have seldom met with any particular lesions after death, beyond a remarkable tenderness of the mucous membranes of the small and large intestines, and thickening of the mucous coat of the colon.

In the treatment of acute cases, I believe five-grain doses of ipecacuanha, three times a day, to be more efficacious than the best of any other writers, because I meet with so few cases that are not against its emetic properties, even in ten-grain doses.

It is not enough to tell a patient that his recovery depends upon his taking this medicine; the medical attendant must see it administered in his presence, especially if his patient displays any symptoms of reluctance to a repetition of the mucous effects of the drug.

I invariably assess the dose in such cases, and combine it with a fourth or half grain of opium instead.

Mercury and opium are also valuable remedies, when administered in the early stages of the disease; but my own conviction is that in most cases of acute dysentery in these latitudes can be cured by little more than removal from the unhealthy locality, with rest, careful regulation of the diet, and attention to clothing, and prudent use of pills, powders, and draughts.

Conclusion.—In the foregoing remarks, I should gladly have avoided myself of statistical information from our public registers respecting the exact mortality existing among the Burmese from the several diseases treated of in this paper; but since our system of registration is as yet in its infancy, it would be too premature to rely upon such records as being thoroughly trustworthy and accurate for scientific purposes.

ON THE BICHLORIDE OF METHYLENE AS AN ANÆSTHETIC.

By J. FAYRER, M.D.

PRESENT:—Dr. Green (Inspector-General), Dr. Chevers, Dr. Fayrer, Dr. Partridge, Dr. Johnson, Baboo Mohendro Nath Guptooy, I.I.S., and the usual dressers.

CASE I.

August 24th, 1868.—Judo-nath, Hindoo, aged 28 years, has been in hospital since 1st June, admitted in a very low state of health, with fever, anæmia, slightly enlarged spleen, feet and anæmous legs. He improved under quinine and iron, and was sufficiently well on this date to have his serotal tumour removed. It was about the size of an adult head, and on each side was a large hydrocele. His weight before the operation was 8st 2lbs.

He was brought under the influence of the bichloride of methylene at 8-30, and during the operation, which lasted about 25 minutes, about one ounce was used. He came under the influence of it readily, and the action seemed very like that of chloroform. His pulse was accelerated, rose above 120, and, towards the completion of the operation, became rather intermittent.

There was no excitement, and when he recovered he did so by degrees, and not suddenly. In fact, the action of the anæsthetic seemed scarcely to differ from that of chloroform. The following day, 25th, the pulse was 130; temp. 103°. Face rather flushed, with headache.*

CASE II.

Agoo, Chinese, aged 21 years, admitted August 5th with febrile testis of the right side.

The operation for reduction was performed on the 21th August under the influence of the bichloride of methylene; about 5ss. were administered during the operation, which is a rather tedious one, and anæsthesia was apparently complete. He came under the influence of the anæsthetic readily, and recovered from its effects gradually. Pulse rose under its influence. He was sick on the table on recovering. In every respect the action of the methylene appeared to resemble that of chloroform.

On the following morning his pulse was full and quick, 110; temperature in axilla 103°. Face flushed; headache; pupils contracted. He vomited several times throughout the day of the operation.

MEMO. BY DR. N. CHEVERS.

The effect of the bichloride of methylene on the heart's action was nearly the same in both cases. At first the result of the inhalation was to render the pulse strong, but not rapid, evidence of divided cardiac excitement. Under the full influence of the drug the heart's rhythm was distinctly altered. In a certain case the pulse never lost its fullness, but the beat became fainter, unequal, intermittent.

This led me, more than once, to stop the inhalation. Latterly the pulse was more so at the commencement, becoming, in the serotal tumour case, somewhat hemorrhagic. It is very apparent that this agent excites the heart's action considerably, and, when in full action, affects the rhythm in a manner which would be liable to tell very seriously upon a dilated, fatty, or otherwise weak or diseased heart. I am not encouraged by these two cases to think that it is a safe chloroform, but only record these as a first impression.

N. C.

PRESENT: Dr. Chevers, Dr. Fayrer, Dr. Chuckerbutty, and Dr. Johnson.

CASE III.

On the 28th August the bichloride of methylene was administered by Dr. Johnson to Mr. —, with the view of inducing

* The pulse was always strong, but quickened and intermittent. It was administered very carefully by Dr. Johnson, Dr. Chevers taking notice of the state of the heart's action and respiration.

There was no sickness in this case.

anæsthesia during the removal of part of the great toe nail for onychia.

At 9-28 a.m. the first inhalation was commenced in the recumbent posture; one drachm having been poured into a folded pocket handkerchief, was held near the nostrils, and thus gently inhaled. The pulse before commencing was 80; it immediately began to rise, and after a few respirations it was 104. He said the sensation was very like that of inhaling chloroform; there was just as much throbbing and ringing in the ears and pulsation in the chest, and, if anything, the vapour was more pungent than that of chloroform.

At 9-30 another half-drachm was poured into the handkerchief. Pulse 108 in the minute.

9-31.—It was gradually taking effect.

9-32.—Pulse quite frequent, 94 in the minute.

He was quite conscious, and described his various sensations as they occurred.

9-33.—Another half-drachm given. Slight cough, caused by the pungency of the vapour.

9-35.—Said it was more irritating than chloroform. Throbbing in the head; pulsation in the heart faintly distinct. Began to talk in an excited manner. Pulse full and regular, 84 in the minute. There were occasional slight muscular jerks in the arms. Said he felt "almost off." Talked excitedly about the throbbing in his head and chest. Tongue slightly everted.

9-37.—Quite incoherent, and much more excited than when he took chloroform on a former occasion for a similar operation.

Pulse again excited, but quite firm and regular, 100 in the minute; was still apparently sensible to pain, shrinking if the toe was touched.

9-38.—Pulse down to 84 in the minute. Another half-drachm given; talking quite incoherently; asked for more, and said he had had only two drachms. Raised the arms and legs in a sort of cataleptic manner; pulse 96.

9-40.—Cried out; was still sensible to pain; shrank when the toe was touched.

9-41.—Another half-drachm given.

9-42.—He was quiet, and seemed unconscious of pain; the eyeballs bare touching. The toe nail was then divided longitudinally with a strong pair of sharp-pointed scissors, and the diseased half removed by evulsion. He appeared to feel this, and cried out.

The wound was dressed with the carbolic oil dressing, and he appeared to feel this also.

9-44.—The operation and dressing over; consciousness returning, and with it nausea and vomiting; said he felt nothing whatever of the operation or dressing, though he certainly appeared to do so.

Face had a more congested appearance after return of consciousness than when he took chloroform, on which occasion also there was no sickness.

9-47.—Had quite recovered, but talked in rather an excited manner; mistook that he felt no pain. There was no headache, and the nausea had passed away.

9-48.—Pulse 80 in the minute. It was perfectly regular and full throughout.

He said that he would as willingly take this anæsthetic as chloroform. Both equally annihilated pain; and there was very little difference in their operation.

He thought that the vapour of the methylene was rather more irritating than that of chloroform; it also caused sickness during recovery, which the chloroform did not. Recovery seemed to him as well as to those about him, rather quicker than from chloroform, and during its administration he once or twice appeared to regain consciousness more rapidly than when

The Indian Medical Gazette.

SPECIAL NOTICE.

As we are desirous of correcting our "Address-List" of Subscribers for the New Year, it is particularly requested that in any case where present addresses are insufficient or inaccurate, a new and correct address may be sent to us during this month.

HARE STREET, CALCUTTA. }
December, 1868. }

WYMAN BROS.,
Publishers.

TO OUR SUBSCRIBERS.

LATE AND IRREGULAR DELIVERY.

INNUMERABLE complaints have been received of the late and irregular delivery of the *Indian Medical Gazette*; and it is frequently stated that the Journal does not reach its destination at all!

The Publishers beg to assure Subscribers that the delay rests entirely with the Post Office. The Publishers have been informed that newspapers are frequently allowed to lie three or two days before despatch.

In all cases where miscarriage of copies has taken place the Publishers have hitherto, on being advised, invariably sent duplicates, at loss and inconvenience to themselves, (though they are by no means obliged to do so,) rather than that Subscribers should suffer. A representation is being made to the postal authorities, and it is hoped this may have the effect of securing greater regularity in future.

If every case of late delivery or miscarriage be promptly brought to the Publishers' notice, they will be the better enabled to find a remedy against the annoyance now so frequently experienced both by the Subscribers and the Publishers themselves.

HARE STREET, }
December, 1868. }

WYMAN BROS.,
Publishers.

THE INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE for 1869.

SUBSCRIBERS not intimating their wish to cease subscribing, will be entered on the List of Subscribers for 1869.

HARE STREET, }
December, 1868. }

WYMAN BROS.,
Publishers.

BINDING OF BACK VOLS.

We shall be happy, on receiving the loose Nos. of the past or previous years, to return BOUND VOLUMES, instead of at a charge of Rs. 2-4, to include forwarding cost.

HARE STREET, }
December, 1868. }

WYMAN BROS.,
Publishers.

"You have chosen the path, not of politics, but of science. Among those who have preceded you in it, and in our own particular department, we find some of the brightest ornaments of British history, and I will not do you the injustice of supposing that there is any one among you who would not prefer the reputation of Harvey or the Hunters to that of honest twentieth-century courtiers and politicians of the periods in which they lived."—SIR BENJAMIN BRODIE

TYPOGRAPHICAL ERRORS.

WE must apologize to our valued correspondents, as also to our readers, for the numerous typographical errors which occasionally appear in this journal. The tricks of printers' devils in India seem even more lively than those of their confrères in England. The feats which they execute in their calligraphic dances amongst the type has a remarkably irritating effect upon the letters, which are in consequence so strangely displaced, that the writer's meaning becomes simply unintelligible. We write in fear lest the bracing effect of the coming cold season may give an additional impetus to these imps of the press; but we are assured that the master of the ceremonies intends to keep them well in check. With this assurance we must endeavour to be content, and hope for better results in future.

CHOLERA HOSPITALS.

MORE than half a century has elapsed since the profession was first brought face to face with the great pestilence of modern times, and it still remains appalled by its progressive energy, yet utterly unable, *professionally*, to resist it. Volumes, whose numbers may be estimated by thousands, have issued from the press, in numerous languages, during this period,—all treating of the disease. But they have practically taught us NOTHING; and it has been left for a military hero to instruct mankind in the best method of dealing with the enemy, viz., how most effectually to run away from it!

During fifty years of active enquiry no professional remedy has been discovered upon which positive reliance may be placed; nay, the startling fact remains that cholera has fairly eluded us and gone far ahead. Forty years ago its victims were one in five of those attacked, and now these are multiplied three-fold. Whereas, then, twenty succumbed of every hundred, now nearly 70 per cent. gasp out their souls before this—Death's most active agent. During the past forty years the relative mortality from cholera in India has been steadily increasing. When a European soldier enters a hospital cholera-stricken *now*, the chances are at least 3 to 1 against his ever coming out again alive. Forty years ago, as we learn from Dr. Bryden's tables, the death-rate from cholera in the European army was 22.89; in 1867 it was 66.07! And this astonishing difference is not the result of a sudden rise, the cause of which is evident, but of a gradual and systematic ascent, the history of which requires investigation. With the Native army in 1829 the death-rate was 19.56; in 1867 it was 50.82, arrived at by the same process. Nor have the prisoners in our jails escaped. The cholera death-rate with them in 1867 was 12.88. Dr. Corbyn tells us, in his book on cholera, that, when he wrote—now forty years ago—the mortality in the practice (almost exclusively native) of Mr. Young was only 8.68 per cent.! This statement is confirmed by Dr. Strong, who, when in medical charge of the 24-Pergunnas, drew up a set of tables extending over 30 years, in which the death-rate,

of the examination. But examination of the venereal patients should be conducted in the Lock Hospital, and not in the houses of the prostitutes. For every prostitute in the above classes, it would be necessary to send her to a hospital, or to a shelter with one or two police officers. This is a difficult and costly matter, and would be comparatively wasteful and tedious, as the cost of it will be very heavy. No respect to the natives will undertake such work; and it is to be expected that Native Doctors will do it, there are no Native Doctors in any way yet to make instrumental examinations. The result of a very such agency will hence be quite disastrous. Therefore, we must think of the moral delinquency, by criminal complicity, in which such people will be expected to engage in such a business. No, that will not do; the examination must take place in the Lock Hospital itself.

Now, assuming the correctness of the figures given by the Commissioner of Police, if we deduct the 600 patients from the 40000 prostitutes, there will remain 5,000 to be examined during the week; nor to be able to prevent venereal disease, we must nip them in the bud, and that cannot be done unless every prostitute is examined at least once a week. In many of the European cities, each prostitute is examined twice a week. Now, dividing 5,000 by the six working-days in the week, there will be 900 persons to be examined per diem. This would certainly be an enormous evil—to collect these 900 females in any one place; and yet not so great an evil as examining them in their own houses. The whole work could be done in two hours by twelve Sub-Assistant Surgeons, subordinate to the twelve medical officers of the hospital. The advantage of this plan would be, that after the examination the prostitutes could communicate with their friends in the hospital without any further trouble. On the other hand, many of them would have to travel a considerable distance to reach the hospital, besides the temporary overcrowding.

However, for the public convenience, it would be better to have six Lock Hospitals, situated in different quarters of the city, instead of one. This plan would make the hospitals easily accessible, and greatly reduce the overcrowding. The expense would be just the same, as for every hundred patients there must be a certain allowance of clothes and other requisites in either case; the efficiency would be infinitely greater, and a spirit of emulation would be introduced, which cannot fail to be of great advantage to the public.

The cost would be as follows:

12 Medical Officers, at Rs. 200 each Rs. 2,400

12 Sub-Assistant Surgeons, at Rs. 100 each 1,200

Total monthly expenditure Rs. 3,600

12

Total annual expenditure Rs. 43,200

On the other hand, the saving of police expenditure would be very great, as no policeman would be required to attend medical visitors to prostitutes' houses. These are the arrangements which strictly belong to the Lock Hospital, a moiety of the expenses of which the Justices have agreed to pay; the Justices have not agreed to pay any part of the police expenses. The supervision and control of the medical arrangements seem to be with the Commissioner of Police; but, in our opinion, he

is wholly and utterly incompetent for that duty. The Commissioner of Police may have the control and responsibility of the police arrangements, but the medical arrangements are beyond his sphere, and should be confided to professional men, according to the usual practice of Government, responsible to the head of the Medical Department.

So far for the prevention of venereal diseases among the civil and military populations. There is another question which concerns the comfort and security of the prostitutes themselves, which must be taken up sooner or later. All the foregoing measures will necessarily involve a great deal of hardship and loss on that class of females. As they have no friends, their absence from home will frequently result in the loss of their little property, and they will have nothing to support themselves with for a time after their discharge from hospital. To guard against these evils, prostitutes in all European towns are under direct Government inspection. The best system is that adopted in Prussia. There all prostitutes are compelled to live in licensed brothels, and the masters of these brothels are a sort of police agents. No solicitations are allowed in the streets, nor even from open windows. The masters of the brothels are responsible for the order and good hygienic condition of their dwellings, as well as for the proper care, feeding, and security of the prostitutes. The only indication of their houses is a green paint on their doors, and their visitors are obliged to enter and depart without noise or disturbance. When any of the inmates is detained in hospital, the master is responsible to the police for the care of her property, and he is bound to feed her, too, on her discharge therefrom, till she can earn something for herself.

This is a very rational system, and more conducive to public morality and diminution of crime than prudish abstinence from all interference. Some such system must be introduced here before the work is completed. Prostitutes may be outcasts, still they are citizens; and it is just according to the treatment they receive that they constitute either a dangerous or a peaceable class. Neglected, their homes become dens of iniquity; properly cared for, they often prove useful members of the community. In the city of Hamburgh they contribute no less a sum than 60,000 dollars annually to the Municipality. In Calcutta there is no reason why they should not pay the same amount, if not more, towards the Municipal revenue, and that would then amply suffice to meet all the expenditure incurred on their behalf.

THE MEDICAL CHARGE OF NATIVE REGIMENTS.

We beg to draw attention to a paragraph in our English letter, in which it is stated that the new arrangements as to furlough in the Indian Medical Service have given rise to great dissatisfaction at home. It is understood there, amongst medical students, that the medical officer in charge of a native regiment forfeits all claim to his appointment if he takes furlough to Europe. As all other appointments are held to be "stable," to which the incumbent can return, this is thought to be an invidious distinction, detrimental in every way to the medical officer.

We venture to draw the attention of the authorities to the fact. The Indian Medical Service is no longer the attractive

service that it was when our present Governor-General first landed in India. The executive ranks are better paid now than then, and so far there is improvement; but the *status* of the Indian medical officer is gone. Ichabod! his glory has departed, and there is now but one stimulant to enter the service—the same pitiless power which drives men into the ranks of our English army—viz., poverty. It is a delicate subject to dilate upon—difficult even to *handle*—without giving offence, which it is far from our wish to do. We will therefore say no more, but earnestly entreat our rulers to look into the question. As the pay of a medical officer in medical charge of a native regiment is a consolidated sum, it would seem that the intention of those who framed the rules was to recognize such a charge as a “staff” appointment. In fact, we are not sure that this is not the view taken by the Pay Department in this country, and that there is some prospect of legislation on the point. May we venture to urge that, if so, it be speedily dealt with and disposed of? Those who are not familiar with medical opinion at home, little know how far a concession of this kind would tend to induce contentment, and to remove one of the barriers—and that a very important one—which now prevents the best men from entering our ranks, and becoming members of the Indian Medical Service.

SCURVY IN FORT WILLIAM.

OUTBREAKS of scurvy are rare, now-a-days, in India. On looking through Dr. Bryden's statistical tables for the last ten years, we find that the disease has become—as the result of our better acquaintance with its pathology, and of appropriate prophylaxis in the shape of suitable diet and vegetables, in addition to improved hygiene generally—almost extinct throughout the length and breadth of the country. A few cases of scurvy are admitted annually into the city hospitals, supplied, almost invariably, by ill-found Liverpool ships; but, beyond this, the existence of the disease in India is almost unknown.

When, therefore, the announcement reached us that it had attacked a fine Sikh regiment in the Fort—more than fifty being admitted into hospital in a few weeks, of whom five or six had died, independent of some twenty or more who had been sent to their homes on medical certificates—it seemed almost incredible; the more, too, because the men, we understand, have not been much unwell, and because they have certainly died of what in the Punjab is considered, and with reason, almost specific as a prophylactic against scurvy—viz., *outons*.

We are happy to hear that the regiment is now improving in health, which is attributed to the free exhibition of hams-joints throughout the entire camp. The sick in hospital have also derived great benefit from being removed into tents.

But what has been the cause of this unusual dyscrasia of the blood? One reason assigned is the difficulty of procuring milk—of antiscorbic reputation, and a favourite item in a Sikh's diet—which, how soever, too expensive a luxury for him in Calcutta, as is also butchery's meat, to which he likewise is very partial. This may be so in the chain of causes, of which there have been, doubtless, several in operation; probably excessive work, confined barracks, and prolonged residence in an uncongenial climate have been the chief of the evil influences.

Essential Weak. The average number of nights in bed has for some time been less than was during the war.

Casual Barracks.—We would draw the attention of the Sanitary Commissioner to the accommodation provided for the native regiment which is required to reside in the Fort. The bomb-proof barracks in which the men live are simply dug-outs, with but little ventilation, reminding the visitor of the *Blo L'Ho'* of a past century. We believe that they have been repeatedly condemned. They resemble the range of rooms on the basement floor of the Medical College Hospital, which are only used for stores, and, temporarily, for lunatics, and drunkards brought by the police. For ordinary human habitation they are quite unsuited. These native barracks in the Fort are, moreover, according to the hygienic views of the day, far too crowded.

Prological residence in an uncongenial climate.—The regiment has now been more than four years in an unsuitable climate, if we include Benares.* We must remember that the Sikh is not personally cleanly. He would therefore naturally suffer from unfavourable influences more than the Oodh sepoy, who bathes and keeps the “cutaneous excretory” in full operation, daily.

The lesson to be learnt from this outbreak, we venture to urge, is that the Bengal climate is singularly unsuited to the Sikh constitution; and if, added to this, he cannot afford suitable food, and lives in close quarters, being at the same time very much over-worked, the chances are strongly in favor of his blood becoming impoverished, even to the melancholy extent which we have recently witnessed in Fort William.

As these sheets are passing through the press, we observe that tenders are being invited for the construction of a Native Infantry Hospital. Will it not be wise to do the same for *barracks*, also?

A PORT SURGEON FOR CALCUTTA.

WHY is our Health Officer for the harbour of Calcutta? Why, when other ports have their Port Surgeon, is the capital of India still without this important functionary? Are we to wait until a grave catastrophe drags into the light of noonday some of the *pernæ* which are a disgrace to the river? Meanwhile, the various duties which a Port Surgeon is urgently required to perform remain neglected!—an official sanitary inspection of the shipping, a careful enquiry into the condition of the crews, and the investigation and analysis of food and water supplies being amongst the chief. A Sanitary Commissioner for the river, invested with plenary powers, and allowed summarily with cases requiring immediate action, would, if he did his duty, be the means of preventing much of the sickness (and consequent mortality) which now prevails from time to time amongst the shipping. Who is *not* responsible for the welfare of the ships' crews? The river practitioners have no official status. They may recommend sanitary measures to the owners and captains of vessels, but who can *enforce* upon them being carried out? An *unofficial* surgeon may urge that one of the ship's hands is about to be attacked by cholera—may, who may be in the first stage of the disease—should be sent to one of the hospitals in the town; but what if the captain replies: “The man may be dead before night, but does anything happen?”—Is there any enquiry?—is anybody hurt?

We are not writing without ground for what we write. Such things *have* happened, and they *will* happen, again and again, until the arm of the Law—in the shape of a Port Surgeon—is extended over the Hooghly. Human life is too precious to be

* The city was in perfect health when I left Benares. *Ind. A. M. G.*

NATURAL AND PHYSICAL SCIENCE IN INDIA.

On Thursday, the 19th ultimo, the Hon'ble Justice Phear delivered a lecture, at the usual monthly meeting of the Bethune Society, in the theatre of the Medical College, on the "Periodic Rains and Winds" of the Calcutta seasons. The lecturer disavowed any intention to instruct his audience, but he wished, he said, rather to serve as a pioneer to those who were willing to cultivate the paths of science in earnest, and to shew what treasures were in store for all acolytes, however humble, in this department of knowledge. So far, however, as it went, the lecture conveyed information and was gracefully delivered; but (we say this in no spirit of hypercriticism) it lacked lively illustration. No allusion, for example, was made to those great convulsions of nature which occasionally visit this country and carry such frightful desolation in their wake—viz., cyclones. The causes of heat and cold in Europe and the tropics were *coarsely* discussed and explained, together with the theory of the trade winds, and the reasons why one wind conveys moisture and fertility into countries, whilst another leads to barrenness and famine.

But the great point which attracted the attention of all—of the audience as well as of those who addressed it—was the paramount necessity which exists for adding to our university curriculum a course of study by which the young men of the day should acquire a knowledge of natural science; and the chairman greatly gratified the meeting by stating, at the close of the evening's proceedings, that the council of the Asiatic Society had moved the Government of India to cause the valuable collection of natural history in the Indian Museum to be made available for university education. This is, in fact, the monopoly of the age. At some of the schools in Germany natural science is taught; it has been introduced into the curriculum of study at more than one English university; and at one of our most rising public institutions in England—Marlborough (the modern school)—the boys are instructed in botany. Nothing can exceed the value of such knowledge, especially when taught in early life. Not only is a love of the country engendered, but the analytical powers of the mind are developed, and a resource, of the purest kind, obtained. Why should such knowledge not be taught in India—aye, made compulsory? Mr. Woodrow, in explaining the reason, reminded us of the subaltern who, unable to fire an important salute, gave as his chief reason that there was *no powder*. Mr. Woodrow stated that the university had lost sight of the subject, but no teachers were to be found. Now, we venture to say that if sufficient inducements are held out, there will be no lack of teachers. All medical men who come to India know more or less of science. Let but a proper salary be offered, and it will be abundantly cultivated—for the benefit not only of the pupils, who may be then *compelled* to take it up as a branch of study, but of the country at large. Or, let professors of natural science be imported and added to the educational staff. A little expenditure of money will soon remove the objection raised by Mr. Woodrow.

Mr. Phear is a genuine friend to the natives of this country, and he will have added another to the many laurels he has gained from them if his lecture—which is the subject of this article—shall in any way lead to the cultivation of natural science amongst his Aryan brethren. The mantle of Prince Albert has descended upon the shoulders of Justice Phear.

Short Notices of Recent Books.

On the Parasitic Affections of Diseases of the Skin. By DR. M'CALL ANDERSON, Lecturer on the Practice of Medicine in Anderson's University, 2nd Edition. London: Churchill, 1868.

So much attention has recently been given by such men as Lémaitre in France, and Salisbury in America, to the study of the relation between fungi and disease, that Dr. Anderson has done wisely in bringing out an improved and advanced edition of his treatise. In the present issue the text has been nearly entirely re-written, and the number of illustrations has been considerably increased. The first part of the work is devoted to a vegetable, and the second to animal parasites of the skin. The work is altogether divided into 16 chapters, of these, the first is devoted to a general sketch of the subject and a reference to the more recent scientific researches in skin affections; the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th deal with tinea favosa; the 5th with tinea trichophytia, or ringworm; the 6th with tinea circinata; the 7th with tinea sycosis; the 8th with tinea tonsurata; the 9th concludes the subject of tinea trichophytia, begun in the 5th; the 10th treats of tinea versicolor; the 11th of alopecia areata; the 12th of the distinctions between the foregoing species; the 13th gives a classification of the animal parasitic affections; the 14th describes scabies, the description being contained in the 15th; and, finally, the 16th includes an account of the bug, flea, chigee, guinea-worm, and the acarus folliculorum. Among the many interesting matters discussed by the author, there is one which is at the present moment especially worthy of notice, that is, the question whether *alopexia acuta*—or *trinea decalvans*, as it is more commonly described—is, or is not, a parasitic disease. Dr. Anderson gives a short analysis of the opinions of the most recent observers, and points out that this affection is decidedly contagious, and that children affected with it should be separated from their fellows. He then expresses his belief that the disease is not connected with a fungus. He states that he has himself made a great number of microscopic examinations of the hair and scalp taken from cases of *alopexia acuta*, and with every expectation of finding a parasite, for the disease presents all the other characters of a parasitic affection, and yet in not a single instance was he able to detect a trace of tubes or spores. He has observed, however, that the scales were atrophic; that the little stems of hair frequently met with on, and in the vicinity of, the bald patches, often presented dilatations, as alluded to by Bazin, but without any local cause to account for them; and he has also noticed that at their broken extremities the fibres projected in a ragged manner, like the broken end of a piece of wood. While he thus publishes his own negative observations, the author admits that the disease presents all the external features of a vegetable parasitic disease. He is nevertheless disposed to look upon it—as Wilson does—as a species of neurosis. But apart from this special branch of the question is the much larger one raised by Wilson, as to whether so-called skin diseases of parasitic origin have really anything to do with parasites at all. Wilson alleges that all the growths which have been called fungi are merely anatomically metamorphosed animal structures, and he has written a very clever article in support of this in the *British and Foreign Medical-Chemical Review*.

On the other hand, Dr. Tilbury Fox holds the opposite view. Dr. Anderson very fully discusses these questions also, and he inclines to the belief not only that these diseases, *alopexia acuta* excepted—are due to a vegetable parasite, but that the *trichophyton*, the *alopexia schœnleinii*, and the *alopexium favosum* are all three distinct species. For the arguments adduced, we must refer our readers to the book itself, and we must conclude our notice by thanking Dr. Anderson for a treatise as practical as it is scientific, and whose exquisite illustrations and marginal notes are luxuries seldom met with in medical works.

A Treatise on Physiology and Hygiene. For Schools, Families, and Colleges. By J. C. DAVENON, M.D., Professor of Physiology in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York. London: Sampson, Low, and Son, 1868.

Dr. Davenon is well known in America as a successful author, and as author of a large treatise on physiology, which has commanded at least in its earlier editions, a very large circulation. The book before us is such as a work on hygiene and physiology; and as it comes well "got up," we were at first disposed to give it a cordial welcome to the field of method

of the disease, and the treatment. It is a very interesting and valuable paper, and one which should be read by every physician. It is published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, and is well worth the attention of every student of medicine.

Case of the "Red" Eye.—*By F. M. D. J. D. D. D. S. M. D.* This is a very interesting and valuable paper, and one which should be read by every physician. It is published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, and is well worth the attention of every student of medicine.

Sulphate of Zinc in Dyspepsia.—*By F. M. D. J. D. D. S. M. D.* This is a very interesting and valuable paper, and one which should be read by every physician. It is published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, and is well worth the attention of every student of medicine.

The Pathology of Red Lichenoid Eruption.—*Some observations on the pathology of the eruption, by Herr N. S. M. D.* This is a very interesting and valuable paper, and one which should be read by every physician. It is published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, and is well worth the attention of every student of medicine.

Compressed Air as a Therapeutic Agent.—*M. D. Dr. Berlin.* This is a very interesting and valuable paper, and one which should be read by every physician. It is published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, and is well worth the attention of every student of medicine.

The Value of System and Routine in the Study of Medicine.—*By F. M. D. J. D. D. S. M. D.* This is a very interesting and valuable paper, and one which should be read by every physician. It is published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, and is well worth the attention of every student of medicine.

Physiological Action of Arsenic.—*By F. M. D. J. D. D. S. M. D.* This is a very interesting and valuable paper, and one which should be read by every physician. It is published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, and is well worth the attention of every student of medicine.

Variations in Human Myology.—*By F. M. D. J. D. D. S. M. D.* This is a very interesting and valuable paper, and one which should be read by every physician. It is published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, and is well worth the attention of every student of medicine.

A Novel and Useful Camera Lucida for the Microscope.—*By F. M. D. J. D. D. S. M. D.* This is a very interesting and valuable paper, and one which should be read by every physician. It is published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, and is well worth the attention of every student of medicine.

The Clinical History and Pathology of Herpes Zoster.—*By F. M. D. J. D. D. S. M. D.* This is a very interesting and valuable paper, and one which should be read by every physician. It is published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, and is well worth the attention of every student of medicine.

An Extraordinary Human Monster.—*By F. M. D. J. D. D. S. M. D.* This is a very interesting and valuable paper, and one which should be read by every physician. It is published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, and is well worth the attention of every student of medicine.

THE

Indian Medical Gazette,

A MONTHLY RECORD

OF

MEDICINE, SURGERY, OBSTETRICS, JURISPRUDENCE,

AND THE

COLLATERAL SCIENCES;

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GENERAL MEDICAL INTELLIGENCE, INDIAN AND EUROPEAN.



VOLUME IV.



Calcutta:

PUBLISHED BY WYMAN & CO., 1, HARE STREET.

1869.

CALCUTTA

CALCUTTA CENTRAL PRESS COMPANY, LIMITED,

5, COLLEGE ROAD STREET.

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OF THE

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Indian Medical Gazette,

A MONTHLY RECORD OF

Medicine, Surgery, Obstetrics, Jurisprudence, and the Collateral Sciences;

And of General Medical Intelligence, Indian and European.

Volume IV.
No. 1.

CALCUTTA, FRIDAY, JANUARY 1, 1869.

{ Town, Yearly, Rs. 12
{ Mofussil 15

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE ACTION OF SNAKE-POISON AND ITS ANTIDOTE,

CONDUCTED AT THE GWALIOR RESIDENCY,

IN THE PRESENCE OF

COLONEL C. L. SNOWDEN, *Officiating Political Agent:*

AND

DR. J. MACBETH, *Superintending Staff Surgeon of Morar.*

TO JOSEPH FAYRER, ESQ., M.D., M.R.C.P., LON., &c., &c.

DEAR MR. FAYRER.—I have been much interested in reading from time to time, the published accounts of your own and Dr. Shortt's experiments on the action of snake-poison.

There is a man here, a native, who possesses what he believes to be a specific antidote. I was led to institute experiments for its being tested by accidentally witnessing its efficacy in the case of a woman who had been bitten by a venomous snake.

The following record of facts and experiments which, by the kind and skilful co-operation of Dr. Macbeth, Staff Superintending Surgeon of Morar, I am able to lay before you, will place you, and any other professional gentlemen whom you may think proper to associate with yourself in the enquiry, in a position to judge whether a specific antidote to snake-poison has been found. It is naturally an object of universal importance. The native has communicated his secret to me, and desires to proclaim it. But, before doing so, all I wish is that the antidote, after being subjected to every test that can be devised, and to which I am prepared to submit it, shall be admitted by competent professional authority to be really a specific antidote for snake-poison, in order that I may present it as a boon to the world.

The case of the woman above referred to, as having brought the man and his antidote under my notice, occurred on the 1st August last, and may be described as follows—

A report being made to me that a woman, living in a village adjoining the Residency, had been bitten by a snake and was dying, I sent to the Residency Surgeon, and walked over myself at once, attended by a servant, with brandy, in the hope of being able to afford assistance. On arriving at the scene of the accident, I found the woman seated on the ground outside the door of her hut, under a sort of unprovided porch formed of branches and leaves, which the villagers had erected at the moment to afford the woman air without exposure to the sun. She was suffering from a succession of swooning fits, having

already had eight previous to my arrival, in the interval of about two hours since she was bitten. The marks of the bite were distinctly visible on her ankle.

While waiting for the surgeon, one of the swooning fits recurred. The method resorted to by two men who were treating her was what is known among natives by the term *Jhuran phookna*, or to exorcise. I had never witnessed it before. It was a strange and painful spectacle. As soon as indications of the approaching swoon appeared, and the woman fell forward from her sitting posture insensible, one of the two men seized her head across the forehead and temples with one hand, the other hand supporting her head behind, and then commenced shouting some *mantras*, or charmed verses, into her ear, at the very top of his voice; the other man, seated on the opposite side, taking up the last note of each cadence and prolonging it with an indelible howl, with his mouth close to her ear. After this had been continued for some minutes without any sign of returning consciousness, the man who was supporting the woman by the head commenced shaking her violently, and slapping her and rating her vociferously, in apparent anger at her obstinacy. After some time this had the desired effect, as slowly, with convulsive gasps and other symptoms of distress, she came to herself.

In the interval a man had arrived on the scene, who at once assumed—and was tacitly admitted by the bystanders to do so—the treatment of the case. He quietly put aside the charms, reassured the woman and her relatives with an air of perfect confidence as to the safety of her life, and pounding something on a stone, he administered it to her. We then left, directing that a report of the progress of the woman's case should be made from time to time. In about two hours another swooning fit was reported—the previous ones having recurred at intervals of about a quarter of an hour. Subsequent reports announced her steady progress and complete recovery. That night she was kept forcibly awake by the instructions of the man who had administered the antidote as a precaution, on account of the long time she had been under the influence of the snake-poison before he was called in.

This case led me to make enquiries about the person who had treated it so successfully, and I sent for him. On questioning him as to the nature of his antidote, he was very reserved at first, but on my offering to take him into my own service, he grew more communicative. He subsequently entered my service, and revealed to me the secret of his antidote, giving me some of the material. So confident was he in its efficacy, that he offered to allow himself to be bitten by any snake; but this was a test that hardly required the fatal example of Mr. Drummond's case at Melbourne to place out of the question.

The last time the eye of the snake was seen, by a cow, was on the 15th inst. 1851, at a distance of 100 paces. Dr. Meade, who I was awaiting to see at that time in the village, and before the bites of the snake, which are recorded in the accompanying case.

At the last time that I saw the snake, on the 15th inst. of 1851, I should not have believed, even if I saw the snake, but for the presence of public business, that, by the existence of the snake of night, I have never seen the snake, or that it would bite. The day, however, is proved of a kind, owing to the strengthening of the eye, in favour of the snake, in the evening of another human life. The case is as follows:

On the 24th inst., a resident of Old Gwalior, a carpenter, came to the hospital, in much apparent distress, to say that he was bit on the foot by a snake, and had become insensible from the effects. Hearing he said that there was a person in my employ, who could administer relief, he had come to seek it. I sent back my servant with him. He administered relief to the woman, who has, as he reported on his return in the evening, had to be found.

The following morning I sent to inquire how the woman was, and ascertained that it quite recovered, her husband, the carpenter, and her child should appear at my office. They duly came the same day. The mark of the bite, were distinctly visible on the woman's finger, but she had quite recovered from the effects of the poison. I led the man's deposition taken by my other assistants, and appended a relation of it, which will be found at the end of the record of experiments.

The importance of the subject may be gathered from the fact recorded in the 1st. Order Administration Report, that 1127 persons died from snake-bites during the past year, and again, in the Central Province Administration Report, that 1874 had died from the same cause during the three preceding years. These figures, referring to isolated districts of India, may afford some approximate idea of the mortality arising from this cause throughout India and all other sup-temperate countries of the East.

The benefits to humanity, then, if the efficacy of the antidote be established, could hardly be overestimated. Yours very truly,
G. WALKER, 25th October, 1858. C. L. SHOWER.

Case of a Bull-grown Cuck.

1. A bull-grown cuck was given to the *Delia*, who administered his antidote. The bull-grown having been plucked from one side and part of the body cut, the bird was nearly lifeless when the antidote was given, by a very cobra, over the top of the head. The cuck showed no symptoms of distress of any kind, and after an hour, was able to fly, and ran about as usually accustomed. Defiant of any time, she quietly exhibited the symptoms of the cure.

2. A bull-grown cuck was given to the *Delia*, administered by the *Delia*, who administered his antidote. The attempt to do so, the bird was cut on the side, and the body cut, over four feet long, and the bird was nearly lifeless. It was then that the antidote was given, by a very cobra, over the top of the head. The cuck showed no symptoms of distress of any kind, and after an hour, was able to fly, and ran about as usually accustomed. Defiant of any time, she quietly exhibited the symptoms of the cure.

3. A bull-grown cuck was given to the *Delia*, who administered his antidote. The bird was cut on the side, and the body cut, over four feet long, and the bird was nearly lifeless when the antidote was given, by a very cobra, over the top of the head. The cuck showed no symptoms of distress of any kind, and after an hour, was able to fly, and ran about as usually accustomed. Defiant of any time, she quietly exhibited the symptoms of the cure.

4. An ill-grown, full-grown, in good condition and apparent health, was bitten at 8-18-50 a.m. by a cobra over four feet long, the snake placing its jaws upon the place. Strong symptoms of unconsciousness after 3 minutes, with very hurried and spasmodic breathing, pupil of eye suddenly swollen. In about 10 minutes constriction of the heart much enlarged, and very hurried. Pupil of eye still more, evidently under a foreign influence, very slowly after this the breathing became more hurried, and the animal very restless. Frothy saliva also began to flow freely. *Delia* asserted the dog would go mad. Shortly afterwards, on putting anything within reach of his mouth, he snapp'd spasmodically and held hold of a rope, but not convulsively than with any object. First effects seemed to be excitement and distress, followed by considerable lathargy, after which its muscular efforts appeared to be nervously spasmodic, excited by some foreign influence, and evidently not voluntary. The hinder extremities first appeared to lose power, action of the heart hurried, weak, and intermittent, about this period the pupil of the eye became fixed, lower jaw powerless, tongue falling out, and of a bluish black color, and breathing distress'd, hurried, and spasmodic, with only partial expansion of the chest. Died in about one or two slight spasmodic gasps, at 9-29; that is, in 40 minutes and 10 seconds after being bitten. Just before death it showed a dislike to the presence of water.

Case of a Bull-grown Cuck.

1. A bull-grown cuck was given to the *Delia*, who administered his antidote. The bird was cut on the side, and the body cut, over four feet long, and the bird was nearly lifeless when the antidote was given, by a very cobra, over the top of the head. The cuck showed no symptoms of distress of any kind, and after an hour, was able to fly, and ran about as usually accustomed. Defiant of any time, she quietly exhibited the symptoms of the cure.

2. A bull-grown cuck was given to the *Delia*, who administered his antidote. The attempt to do so, the bird was cut on the side, and the body cut, over four feet long, and the bird was nearly lifeless when the antidote was given, by a very cobra, over the top of the head. The cuck showed no symptoms of distress of any kind, and after an hour, was able to fly, and ran about as usually accustomed. Defiant of any time, she quietly exhibited the symptoms of the cure.

observed rolling out, livid in appearance. The circulation in this case became more gradually affected than in the previous experiments; the heart's action continued for 6 minutes, gradually becoming feeble, after all pulsation in the arteries had ceased. Died at 8-15 a.m.

2. Second dog, without antidote, bitten at 7-54-58; died at 8-23-30—that is, in 28 minutes 28 seconds,—exhibiting more or less the symptoms recorded in the foregoing case.

3. Third dog, with antidote previously administered, bitten at 8-13 a.m. Remained quite unaffected, and, being kept tied up for three days, did not exhibit at any time anything wrong.

4. Fourth dog, with antidote, bitten at 8-39 a.m. Remained quite unaffected, as in the foregoing case.

5. Previous to this experiment, the *kelaree* asked whether the fresh snake should bite a prepared or an unprepared animal. We selected the former in this instance, having already seen two dogs die, Nos. 1 and 2.

A prepared full-grown pariah was then bitten, the first time at 8-57 a.m., and a second time at 8-57-30. Both times the jaws were firmly closed on the limb. The *kelaree* says that it was bitten a third time before the snake was disengaged from the dog, but we saw only the two bites above recorded. The dog remained perfectly unaffected after two hours, when the *kelaree* was told to take all three dogs away to his house, report their state in the evening, and, if alive, to bring them up to the Residency for inspection the next morning.

The *kelaree* reported in the evening that the dog last bitten, —twice, as we saw, but three times as he affirms—had vomited at 3 p.m., and exhibited other symptoms of distress; and that he had in consequence administered to this dog more of his antidote, and that it was doing well.

The following morning, that is, in 24 hours after being bitten, exhibited great weakness and distress, and decided symptoms of being under the influence of poison. We thought it would not recover, but the *kelaree* appeared confident it would. Antidote was again administered; grew better and stronger towards the evening, and the following morning—that is, in 48 hours after being bitten—had quite recovered. It was kept tied up a third day, when all three dogs, in perfect state of health, were let loose.

Third day, 12th September, 1868.

Experiment with one and the same cobra biting two full-grown pariah dogs in succession, at an interval of a quarter of an hour; the first being prepared with the antidote, the second without. This experiment was tried to afford an *à fortiori* test of the efficacy of the antidote.

1. Prepared dog bitten at 7-12 a.m., the cobra closing his jaws twice upon the part. Remained quite unaffected, apparently, for four hours, after which began to exhibit symptoms of distress, with increasing weakness. The following morning too weak to stand; tongue beginning to exhibit signs of paralysis, and becoming dark colored. Antidote was again administered; towards evening strength returned; dog *at food*. Second morning—that is, in 48 hours—quite recovered; was kept tied up for a week; never at any time exhibited any return of symptoms.

2. The other dog, in natural state, that is unprepared, was bitten by the same cobra at 7-57 a.m. in two places,—on the back, and in the line of the spine. At 8½—that is, in 33 minutes—it began to show symptoms of being under the influence of poison. All the symptoms noted in previous experiments developed themselves, such as affection of the pupils, convulsive twitchings of the jaws and limbs, paralysis of the tongue, with gradually increasing swelling and lividity, sluggish circula-

tion, and feeble heart's action. In this instance there was but little struggling or violent convulsions in comparison with the other cases noted. Died at 9-5; that is, in 1 hour and 8 minutes.

Deposition of Davee, Carpenter, residing in Ghaspoura, of Gwalior. Taken 3rd October, 1868.

This woman, by name Jusoda, is my wife. Yesterday she was bitten by a snake on the fourth finger of the right hand, about 8 a.m. Blood flowed from two wounds. We adopted the usual remedy of *gharna*, or exorcism, and, by making a great noise, tried to prevent her from going to sleep, but without success. She soon became speechless and insensible. Having heard that the Political Agent had a person in his employ who could cure snake-bites, I came to the Residency to seek aid. The Political Agent sent his servant back with me. He gave my wife some medicine in *dhye* (curded milk), which revived her, and she recovered, and the anger of the deity was appeased.

(True translation.)

(Sd.) PIRTHE NATH, PESHDI.

Translator of the Gwalior Agency.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF SNAKE-POISON.

By J. FAYRER, M.D.

Professor of Surgery, Medical College of Bengal.

(Continued from Vol. III., page 267.)

PRESENT: Dr. FAYRER and Mr. SEEVA.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

12th December, 1868.—A small Cobra, about sixteen inches long, was bitten in two or three places, about one-third of its length from the tail, by a very large, powerful, and vigorous Cobra of the spectacled variety. The fangs penetrated deeply, and there could be no doubt that the venom was freely injected. When bitten the young snake threw itself into a series of momentary curves, but on being released it appeared unaffected.

It was closely watched for some time, but showed no sign of being affected. It was as active and vicious as before, assuming an aggressive attitude, with its little hood erect, and striking vigorously at anything that approached it.

It was bitten at 11-45 a.m., and I saw it again at 4 p.m.; it was then lively, but looked rather stiff, and disinclined to be so active as it had been, probably owing to the pain and commencing inflammation in the bites.

On the 13th, at 5 p.m., there was no apparent change in the snake; it was as lively as ever.

14th, 2 p.m.—Mr. Seeva reports that, beyond a slight apparent soreness in the muscles of the bitten part, there is no change. The snake remains quite well.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

A small Cobra, one probably of the same brood as the one bitten in the previous experiment, and of the same size, very active, vicious, and vigorous, was bitten at 12-15, 12th December, 1868, by a Daboia that had not bitten for many days, and whose poison glands and ducts were apparently full of poison.

The fangs of the Daboia were made to penetrate deeply in a part of the snake posterior to the viscera—that is, not far from the tail; and a quantity of the poison was shed on the snake, and probably into the wound.

The young Cobra, beyond the local effects of the bite, appeared unaffected; on being released, it departed itself just like the one bitten by the Cobra in experiment No. 1, and was active, ill tempered, and aggressive as ever.

Regiment, there were 400 cases and 238 deaths from cholera between the 11th and 23d of June; in the three European Regiments at Kurrachee in 1855, there were 800 cases occurred within the space of a few days.

In 1812 the appearance of cholera at Musched towards the close of 1812, and it burst forth there again with renewed violence in June of the following year, quickly extending to Tiberan and Tabreez, and overspreading the province of Gilan; before the close of the year, it reached as far north as the town of Derbent, on the Caspian Sea.

In September, 1816, cholera had appeared at Bagdad; it advanced up the Tigris and Euphrates by Darbekir, Orfa, Birahpik to Damascus and Aleppo, and did not, as has been affirmed by some, cross the desert directly from Bagdad to Damascus.* No direct appar to have travelled with the Persian pilgrims from Kuleba across the desert to Mecca; doubtless, as Verriollet asserts, cholera did break out at Mecca in November; but, as we have seen, it existed at Jeddah during the month of May, when in all probability the seeds of the disease were sown, to be brought into active operation again by the assemblage of the pilgrims during the later months of the year, some 15,000 of them then falling victims to this pestilence in and about the city of Mecca.

"The further progress of the scourge seems to have been stopped by the approach of winter (1816-17); but early in the following spring it broke out with fresh violence,† and was re-epidemic over the entire area invaded by it during the previous year.

In April, 1817, the disease appeared again at Ischtant and spread to Tenz-Khons-Si-wy, from whence it was said to have been transmitted to Kzhar, in June, by a detachment of cavalry soldiers. From Kzhar it spread along the steppes as far as the Volga, reaching Astrachan on the 30th of July. It next broke out at Billis on the first of the month, and spread northwards to the coast of the Black Sea, *viz* Gori to Potem and Trilzand. Following the great military road from Tils, the disease spread over the Caucasus mountains, reaching a height of 6,000 ft. et, and appeared at Stavropol. During August it broke out among the shipping at Tagoung, to the north of the Sea of Azov, at the same time appearing at Saratov (August 20th) and in the town of Ir. Orenburg. In September it reached Simbirsk and Nakh-Novgorod to the north, and to the west Moscow, where the disease was not severely felt during the year, confining its attacks chiefly to one particular district, near the river. Here, however, it assumed a severe character, for nearly one-half of the cases that first occurred terminated fatally‡.

Cholera broke out at Constantinople on the 24th of October, 1817,§ but from this time the epidemic began to decline over the area it had invaded. During the winter of 1817-18, some cases, however, being reported as far west as Alexandria, Kherson, and Odessa; in India not above 50 miles from the Austrian frontier, and others near Riga. Sporadic cases were noticed in France and Britain.

In the spring of 1818 we find cholera breaking out with renewed vigour, and by August it had advanced from the east as far as China, Java, Siam, Arabia, Poland, and Sweden.

It having broken out at Mecca and Medina in April, 1818, it appears to have returned pilgrims in Egypt in the middle of July, during the year, 7,000 of them at the Tanhat, and committing several ravages over the whole country. In Mecca and Medina the mortality from cholera was very great. The whole of Russia, Poland, Finland, and Sweden were

invaded in 1818, before August, although the first report of the latter country made most strenuous and costly efforts to its defence by means of quarantine. A general outbreak of it there was re- but faint exertions made on the part of the governments of Europe to restrict the advance of cholera by the enforcement of quarantine laws, during the epidemic of 1818-19. It appears from a statistical paper submitted to the Russian Minister of the Interior by Dr. Rosolberger, that from 1817 to 1819 the deaths from cholera in Russia exceeded the number of one million, and the number of towns attacked was 171, the communications between infected and healthy places being open. On the other hand, in the first invasion from 1829-35, when the progress of cholera was interrupted by sanitary cordons, the number of deaths did not exceed 100,000, and there were only 3,600 towns attacked. From this fact the Chiemra (Constantinople) Conference argue, the epidemic on both occasions being equally violent; the restrictive measures employed in the first epidemic were, without doubt, useful. The value of this deduction evidently rests on the statement that the two epidemics were equally violent, a fact which Dr. Gavin Milroy evidently doubts; and he gives us reliable data for concluding "that the diffusive energy of the epidemic of 1818-19 was considerably greater than that of its predecessor, invading a larger area of the world's surface (and with more deadly consequences than in 1831-32)." It so, evidently the force of Dr. Rosolberger's arguments regarding the advantage of sanitary cordons is much weakened, if not destroyed.

The disease had broken out at Berlin as early as July, and in September at Hamburg and in Holland. The southern portion of the Austrian dominions appear to have suffered to some slight extent, and there was a partial outbreak of cholera near the port of Vigo in Spain. Italy was not affected at this time. Greece and Malta remained free from the disease, having been under strict quarantine in July. A few cases of cholera occurred in France, towards the end of the year.

On account of the insulated position of England and America, the circumstances of the advent of the disease into these countries could be more satisfactorily investigated than in most continental states. Dr. Parke was selected to enquire into the history of the first cases that occurred in London. From his account we learn, that the first instance of the disease in the metropolis was that of a seaman named Harrod, who arrived on the 18th or 19th of September, in a steamer from Havre; the first death of cholera at Hoxleydown (London), on the 22d of the month; the next case was in the instance of a man who slept in the same room with Harrod. There can be no doubt as to the fact of cholera having existed on board the steamer in which Harrod sailed, for the second engineer died in a cholera on the passage, and we know the disease had been prevalent at Havre from some time before the vessel started. During the first week of October, 26 cases were reported in London, all but four being fatal; of those 18 occurred on the River Thames, on the north banks, the remainder being scattered over other parts of the city.

In Edinburgh cholera first appeared on the 14th of October, 1818, on the Wednesday before this, three pilots from Newhaven went to the Isle of May to look out for vessels; one of the men went on board a ship from Orkney, bound to Leith. The other two remained in their boat on the inside of the vessel, and returned to Leith, a distance of four or five, and twenty men, both of the men were seized with diarrhoea on their passage. On arriving at Leith, they went on board the ship, one of them died on the following Sunday of cholera. During the next few days several cases occurred among relations and intimate neighbours of the pilot who died, and these were

* Cholera Catalogue of Calcutta, Calcutta, 1868, p. 189.

† Report of the General Board of Health on Cholera, 1818-19, p. 5.

‡ Ibid., p. 6.

§ *Lancet*, Vol. I, 1817, p. 161.

Cholera Catalogue of Calcutta, Calcutta, 1868, p. 74.

* Dr. Gavin Milroy on Cholera, *Medico-Chirurgical Review*, 1835, p. 110.

in October. The epidemic was very general throughout France, and the history of its spread into several departments has been carefully described; for instance, Hamel, a rural commune, was absolutely free from cholera until the 4th of April, 1849, when a soldier named Guilbert arrived from Paris, where cholera was raging. After remaining ill in his father's house from diarrhoea for four days, he was removed to the hospital at Amiens; on the same day the soldier's brother, Andre Guilbert, who had constantly visited the sick man, was seized with cholera and died. Three days afterwards Andre's wife took the disease and died. Guilbert's father was attacked on the 11th of April and died on the 14th; his brother and several other members of the family, together with a little girl who was in the habit of frequenting the house, were all seized with cholera within a few days.*

Cholera was diffused more or less completely over the whole of England during the summer of 1849; the greatest mortality that occurred in any one place was at Hall, where, out of a population of some 10,000 inhabitants, 287 died from this disease. Dr. W. Farr observes, "if a foreign army had landed on the coast of England, seized all the seaports, sent detachments over the surrounding districts, ravaged the population through the summer, and having destroyed more than a thousand lives a day, for several days in succession, and in the year it held possession of the country, slain 53,293 men, women, and children, the task of registering the dead would be inexplicably painful; and the pain is not greatly diminished by the circumstances that in the calamity to be described the minister of destruction was a pestilence that spread over the face of the island, and found in so many cities quick poisonous matters ready at hand to destroy the inhabitants.†"

The disease in England, as in other places, was apparently very capricious in its habits, leaving the inhabitants of many localities unaffected, and in the same enjoyment of health; but Dr. Farr makes an exception brought out with remarkable clearness, the relation which existed between the elevation of the soil and the mortality from cholera; thus at 100 feet above the Trinity high-water mark, the observed average mortality was 17, at 70 feet it was 27, at 30 feet 55, and at high water level 177, conclusively showing that human beings living on a low, and consequently, as a general rule, a humid soil, were those most subjected to the influence of cholera.‡ This rule, it must be remembered, holds good only so far as, that where the mortality was high the elevation of the soil was low; it by no means follows that all low lying places were affected with cholera, and that the high levels escaped. Lyons, for instance, has been always free from cholera, although a part of the city is built on a low alluvial soil, situated on the confines of two rivers, with a poor and dense population; nevertheless, it was unafflicted by cholera in the epidemics of 1832 and 1835; the disease appeared in a single building only in 1849; a few cases occurred there in the epidemic of 1853, and none in 1855.

With regard to the spread of the disease in England, 119 places, of which 69 were distinct towns or villages, 15 parishes or districts, and 34 public establishments, and the remaining 1 a private house standing isolated in the country, it was ascertained that, in no less than 75 instances, the disease appeared subsequently to the arrival of infected persons, or the introduction of other possible vehicles of infection.§ In some few towns, as at St. Austrey and Oxford, and where the first cases occurred in public institutions, it was impossible to trace the introduction of cholera to human intercourse. The disease did not appear simultaneously in all parts ultimately affected, but

began in one spot, or in a small number of spots, and increased by attacking a larger number of localities. In large cities it is true it appeared in nearly all quarters or divisions within a few days, but still in each quarter it affected one spot first and others in succession.*

I have already described the outbreak of cholera in Staten's Island in December, 1848; the disease did not make its appearance in the city of New York until the following May, when it first attacked some of the poorest and most degraded human beings on the face of the earth. Dr. Binch, of New York, states, on his first visit to these people in Orange Street, he found five of them crowded into a cellar, some ten or 12 feet square, with nothing over them but a few rugs, and nothing under them but the mud floor; they were all fixed in various stages of cholera. It appears that other cases had previously occurred in this cellar, for those poor creatures had been seized with cholera after celebrating a wake in commemoration of a departed friend, who had just died of the disease. From Orange Street cholera spread over New York, and from thence to the various large towns on the American sea-board of the Atlantic, and, in fact, over the greater part of the United States. In several instances the commencement of the epidemic was traceable to persons arriving from previously affected localities, but in New York and in other cities it was found impossible to trace the first instances of the disease to such a source † Throughout Canada cholera prevailed extensively between the months of July and September, 1850. It does not appear to have extended from the east as in 1852, but rather from the United States. A few cases only occurred at Gross Isle, the quarantine station on the St. Lawrence, below Quebec; whereas in the first epidemic this station suffered very severely.‡

During the year 1850, cholera of a virulent type again broke out in Egypt, and along the whole of the African sea-board of the Mediterranean. It did not, however, in any instance, spread beyond three days' journey into the desert § Slight outbursts of the disease at the same time occurred over the greater part of Europe and America; in fact, cholera was reproduced over the area invaded by it during the previous years. Beyond this, localities hitherto free from its influence were now attacked, as for instance Malta and Gozo. Cephalonia, one of the Ionian group, was affected in July, "the population being reduced to famine by means of the rigorous quarantine, which excluded them from all intercourse with Greece, and with their brethren," nevertheless, Greece was preserved from cholera throughout this epidemic, as she had been in the former visitations of the disease to Europe in 1832 and 1837.

During the year 1850 cholera spread over Mexico and California. In October, Cuba and Jamaica were under its influence; this was the first time the latter island had been visited by cholera; and it committed the most distressing havoc among the people. Mr. J. Watson, Surgeon to the Naval Hospital, Port Royal, and whose account of the disease in 1853 in Portugal I have referred to, reports that "for months past American steamers had been in the custom of touching at Port Royal and Kingston on their voyage between New York and England. About a week before cholera appeared in Port Royal, two young men arrived from Chagres, their father having died shortly before they left America, of cholera." This was the only instance of a suspicious person arriving in the town when Mr. Watson could discover, and as neither of the men or the inmates of their house, were affected with the disease, he concluded, it was not communicated to the inhabitants of Jamaica from a previously affected place.

* Constantinople Cholera Conference, Calcutta, 1849, p. 88.

† Report on the Mortality of Cholera in England, 1848-49, by Dr. W. Farr.

‡ *Ibid.*, p. 94.

§ Drs. Riley and Gull's Report on Cholera, p. 157.

* Drs. Riley and Gull's Report on Cholera, p. 74.

† Report of the General Board of Health, 1848-49, London, 1850.

‡ *Medical Jurisprudence Review*, p. 16.

§ *Proceedings of the Constantinople Conference*, p. 99, Calcutta, 1849.

London, 1850, p. 69.

The London College of Physicians, in their report on the epidemic of 1818-19, published in 1854, replied with authority to several of the questions put forward by Dr. Farr. The college gave it as their decided opinion that, on the whole, they consider Dr. Snow's theory untenable, observing "that it is not probable that in the case of cholera the influence of water will ever be shown to consist in its serving as a vehicle for the poison generated in the bodies of those who had suffered from the disease."

The College were also of opinion, "the theory that the cause of the disease is a general state of the atmosphere," a general "atmospheric influence," or "epidemic constitution," has been found untenable; they believe "that human intercourse has, at least, a share in the propagation of the disease; and that, under some circumstances, it is the most important, if not sole means of effecting its diffusion; attaching itself to the surface of bodies, to the walls of rooms, and to furniture: it will also be collected by the cloths of persons living in infected dwellings, will be carried by them from place to place, and, wherever it meets with conditions favourable to its increase and action, will produce fresh outbreaks of the epidemic."§ The College, however, observe—"it by no means follows that cholera is always propagated in this way; it may spread independently of communication between the sick and the healthy; the agent then most likely to have conveyed the poison from one spot to another is the wind." Having discarded Drs. Snow and Budd's theory as to the origin of the disease, they formed the hypothesis that it was necessary for the spread of cholera that the poison should be received into a congenial nidus, in which it might multiply and exercise its terrible power upon human beings susceptible to, and brought within, its influence. By means of this theory the extraordinary exemption of certain localities from the disease was explained, the poison itself not having been carried by human beings, or the wind, into these exempted places, or if introduced, and no deleterious effect following, it was argued the poison could not have been delivered into a nidus fitted for its growth. It was evidently impossible to gainsay the truth of negative propositions of this description; but they very certainly did not furnish a satisfactory solution to Dr. Farr's questions, although elaborated with extraordinary skill, learning, and ingenuity. Men naturally began to enquire for some more tangible evidence of the existence of this subtle poison, and wished for more explicit information as to the nature of the nidus necessary for its growth and propagation.

We must, however, return from the land of speculation in which, it appears, most writers on cholera love to dwell, and study the somewhat dry details connected with the progress of the disease from one part of the earth to another. It is only by bringing into regular order the scattered records we possess on the subject, that we can hope to arrive at definite conclusions as to the etiology of the disease. I am confident, however, that, with a history of the kind before us, we shall, by means of a carefully considered process of inductive reasoning, be enabled to form positive conclusions as to the laws which govern the spread of cholera among mankind; and if so, it will not be too much to expect that we may be in a position to point out the means for its suppression, though not for its cure, when once it has attacked a human being.

(To be continued.)

* Drs. Haly and Gull's Report, p. 213.
 † *Ibid.*, p. 214.
 ‡ *Ibid.*, p. 215.
 § *Ibid.*, p. 221.

SUMMARY OF FIFTY POST-MORTEM EXAMINATIONS OF INHABITANTS OF THE JESSORE DISTRICT, PERFORMED IN THE JAIL HOSPITAL.

By KENNETH McLEOD, A.M., M.D., L.R.C.S.E.,

Civil Assistant-Surgeon, Jessore.

(Continued from Vol. III., page 272.)

9. The morbid changes in the lungs may be exhibited as follows:—

- In no case could either lung be said to be healthy.
- (a) Hypostatic congestion was the only morbid change in 5 right (a) and 9 left lungs (b). Total 14.
- (b) Eight right lungs (c) and 13 left (d) were congested throughout. Total 21.
- (c) Congestion and œdema co-existed in the case of 14 right (e) and 10 left lungs (f). Total 24.
- (d) Engorgement, partial or total, was the condition noted in 11 right (g) and 14 left lungs (h). Total 25.
- (e) Hepatization existed in 16 right (i) and 9 left lungs (j). Total 25.

In the case of the right lung, the whole organ was hepatized in 6 cases (j), the upper lobe in 5 (k), the middle lobe in 1 (l), and the lower lobe in 4 cases (m).

In the case of the left lung, the upper lobe was hepatized in 4 (n), and the lower in 5 cases (o).

- (f) Emphysema existed in 3 right lungs (p) and 5 left lungs (q). Total 8.
- (g) Tubercle existed in 4 right (r) and 3 left lungs (s). Total 7, and tuberculous cavities in the same number.
- (h) One right lung (t) and 1 left lung (u) were collapsed and curried.
- (i) One right lung (v) and 1 left lung (w) were the subject of syphilitic degeneration.
- (j) Excess of pigment was noted in 2 right and 2 left (x) lungs.
- (k) The bronchæ were inflamed in 1 case (y) and ulcerated in another on both sides (z).
- (l) A cretaceous nodule existed in the right lung in 1 case (aa).

- (a) Nos. 14, 23, 26, 35, 42.
- (b) Nos. 2, 14, 23, 26, 29, 35, 42, 44, 45.
- (c) Nos. 1, 5, 7, 8, 19, 21, 24, 31.
- (d) Nos. 1, 5, 7, 8, 9, 19, 21, 24, 25, 28, 34, 31.
- (e) Nos. 4, 10, 15, 16, 17, 24, 30, 32, 33, 34, 38, 43, 48, 50.
- (f) Nos. 4, 15, 16, 17, 32, 33, 34, 36, 43, 48.
- (g) Nos. 3, 6, 12, 25, 27, 28, 29, 36, 37, 39, 41, 45, 46.
- (h) Nos. 3, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 22, 27, 37, 38, 39, 41, 41, 46.
- (i) Nos. 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 25, 28, 29, 37, 39, 41, 41, 44, 46.
- (j) Nos. 3, 14, 11, 12, 22, 27, 38, 39, 41.
- (k) Nos. 9, 11, 13, 14, 29, 44.
- (l) Nos. 6, 25, 39, 41, 46.
- (m) No. 41.
- (n) Nos. 10, 28, 37, 12.
- (o) Nos. 3, 12, 22, 39.
- (p) Nos. 10, 11, 27, 38, 41.
- (q) Nos. 19, 22, 45.
- (r) Nos. 19, 43, 44, 45, 46.
- (s) Nos. 2, 9, 18, 49.
- (t) Nos. 9, 15, 49.
- (u) No. 21.
- (v) No. 59.
- (w) No. 47.
- (x) Nos. 2, 24.
- (y) No. 19.
- (z) No. 47.
- (aa) No. 3.

- (b) The walls were noted fatty in 5 cases (a) (10 per cent.)
- (c) Hypertrophied in 2 cases (b) (4 per cent.)
- (d) The lining membrane of the heart was stained in 1 case (c).

In all other cases the walls were healthy.

As regards the valves—

- (e) There was thickening of the mitral or aortic valves in 3 cases (d) (6 per cent.)

No other abnormality was noted.

The amount of morbid change disclosed in these 50 examinations is very trifling, and quite consorts with the clinical experience of the rarity of cardiac and vascular disease in the natives of lower Bengal.

- (f) Atheroma of the aorta was noted in 8 cases (e) (16 per cent.)—in all very incipient. Of these 8 cases, 4 had also the white patch on the right ventricle. The atheroma noted consisted of simple elevations, and neither ulcers nor craccaceous particles, or plates or bony formations, were noted.

As regards the contents of the heart—

- (g) Fibrinous or decolorized clots were observed in 43 cases (86 per cent.), the cavities contained sanguinous clots only in 2 cases (4 per cent.), fluid blood in 4 cases (8 per cent.), and were empty in 1.

The distribution of fibrinous clots in the cavities of the heart will be seen from the following statement:—

They existed in all the cavities of the heart in 31 cases (f); in eight (g) of these they were noted as extending into the large arteries and their branches. In a typical case the largest clot is found in the right auricle, the next in size in the left auricle, next right ventricle, and the smallest in the left ventricle. In some cases they were associated with sanguinous clots which existed where the vessels joined or left the cavities; in other words, where the stream was most active. In such cases both clots were parts of the same mass. They existed in the right ventricle and auricle and left auricle in 2 cases (h); in the right auricle and ventricle only in 5 cases (i); in the right and left auricle in two cases (j); in the right auricle only in 1 case (k); in the left auricle only in 1 case (l); and in the right ventricle only in 1 case (m). The distribution of the clots in the cavities corresponds with their comparative size when all the cavities are occupied. To discuss the formation of these clots would be foreign to the scope and design of this record; but, as a fact of experience, I have found that their formation is invariably associated with asthenia, and that the more gradual the fatal exhaustion, the more firm and organized these clots are. The largest and hardest I have ever seen—more like a concretion than a coagulum—was in a case of general paralysis of the insane, in which the process of death was remarkably slow.

As the heart was always weightless empty, and its condition varied from health in so few instances, the statement of its weight already given requires no modification.

12. The *peritoneum* was—

- (a) Inflamed in 3 instances (a).
- (b) Contained serum in 6 instances (b).
- (c) Was adherent to liver or spleen in 2 instances (c).
- (d) Tuberculated in 1 case (d), and healthy in every other case.

The tuberculated condition was in a fatal case of lepra. The tubercles were both pale and pigmented. In this case, besides the contractions and ulcerations of connective tissues, there was atheroma of the aorta and fatty degeneration of heart, liver, and kidneys.

13. The *stomach* was—

- (a) Congested in 1 case (e).
- (b) Ulcerated in 1 case (f).
- (c) Covered with a false membrane in 1 case (g) (*Indo- Medical Gazette*, Vol. III., p. 130).
- (d) Inflamed in 1 case (h). It was healthy in every other instance.

14. The *small intestine* was—

- (a) Healthy in 24 cases (48 per cent.)
- (b) Congested in 10 cases (i) (20 per cent.)
- (c) Inflamed in 1 case (j).
- (d) Mucous membrane thinned and wasted in 4 cases (k).
- (e) Peyer's glands enlarged in 3 cases (l), one of cholera and two tubercular; and
- (f) Wasted in one case (m).

15. The *mucous membrane* was—

- (a) Pigmented in 6 cases (n).
- (b) Sodden in 1 case of cholera (No. 31).

The amount of disease disclosed was thus neither serious nor severe.

16. The *large intestine* was—

- (a) Healthy in 27 cases (54 per cent.)
- (b) Congested in 11 cases (o) (22 per cent.)
- (c) Ulcerated in 13 cases (p) (26 per cent.)
- (d) Pigmented in 10 cases (q) (20 per cent.)
- (e) Contracted and thickened in 8 cases (r) (16 per cent.)

The amount and kind of disease was greater than in the small intestine. In cases of dysentery I have observed that the morbid changes are, as a rule, more severe and pronounced towards the rectum.

17. The *liver* was noted—

- (a) Healthy in 13 cases (s) (26 per cent.)
- (b) Congested in 7 cases (t) (14 per cent.)

- (a) Nos. 5, 36, 50.
- (b) Nos. 3, 4, 9, 21, 24, 59.
- (c) Nos. 2, 8, 13.
- (d) No. 26.
- (e) No. 3.
- (f) No. 1.
- (g) No. 18.
- (h) No. 5.
- (i) Nos. 12, 16, 18, 19, 23, 24, 26, 43, 44, 48.
- (j) No. 8.
- (k) Nos. 1, 2, 4, 24.
- (l) Nos. 31, 47, 49.
- (m) No. 10.
- (n) Nos. 1, 3, 6, 9, 17, 20.
- (o) Nos. 1, 3, 4, 11, 18, 19, 35, 38, 39, 44, 49.
- (p) Nos. 3, 4, 6, 16, 21, 25, 35, 38, 39, 41, 43, 45, 49.
- (q) Nos. 1, 2, 3, 6, 11, 12, 13, 26, 35, 48.
- (r) Nos. 3, 6, 12, 13, 26, 31, 43, 48.
- (s) Nos. 5, 6, 7, 11, 23, 25, 27, 39, 41, 43, 45, 47.
- (t) Nos. 3, 11, 36, 38, 39, 44, 48.

- (a) Nos. 12, 16, 24, 33, 43.
- (b) Nos. 13, 18.
- (c) No. 48.
- (d) Nos. 15, 19, 45.
- (e) Nos. 1, 4, 6, 12, 13, 18, 34, 44.
- (f) Nos. 6, 19, 11, 12, 13, 17, 18, 18, 21, 23, 24, 25, 27, 28, 29, 39, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 41, 41, 42, 43, 45, 46, 47, 49, 59.
- (g) Nos. 6, 14, 15, 18, 27, 31, 35.
- (h) Nos. 1, 16.
- (i) Nos. 3, 16, 20, 26, 44.
- (j) No. 22, 37.
- (k) No. 14.
- (l) No. 39.
- (m) No. 9.

- (C) Healthy (25 cases) (52 per cent.)
 (D) Congested (20 cases) (40 per cent.)
 (E) Hypertrophied (8 cases) (16 per cent.)
 (F) Atrophied (5 cases) (10 per cent.)
 (G) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (H) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (I) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (J) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (K) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (L) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (M) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (N) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (O) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (P) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (Q) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (R) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (S) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (T) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (U) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (V) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (W) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (X) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (Y) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)
 (Z) Abscesses (2 cases) (4 per cent.)

The various organs directly or indirectly involved in the fatty degeneration have been described in their ordinary vascular or functional change. The progress of fatty degeneration in the liver were exceedingly various, from a state differing from what may be considered healthy up to very general and well marked tissue change. In several instances the fat degeneration was chiefly confined to the lobules with congestion, constituting the "fatty liver" condition.

The weight of the liver, as influenced by its condition, is shown as follows:

- (a) The healthy livers average 18.6 lb. (15.1 oz.)
 (b) The congested livers average 17.75 lb. (18.26 oz.)
 (c) The fatty livers 18.126 lb. (12.96 oz.)
 (d) The hypertrophied are 18.10.5 lb. (5.16 oz.)

18.6 lb. (15.1 oz.) is a fairly healthy liver to represent the weight of a healthy liver, at 1 to 1.37 the proportion to body weight.

18. The pathological states of the *spleen* are recorded as follows:

- (a) The organ noted "healthy" in 2 cases (5).

Those which were examined by the Sub-Assistant Surgeon, and treatment very "healthy" would probably be the correct term. I have not seen a perfectly healthy spleen since I came to India.

- (b) The organ was enlarged in 33 cases (66 per cent.)
 (c) The organ 21 cases (42 per cent.)
 (d) The organ 14 cases (28 per cent.)
 (e) One case enlarged in 15 cases (30 per cent.)
 (f) Atrophied in 10 cases (20 per cent.)
 (g) Splenic abscess in 1 case (2 per cent.)
 (h) Splenic abscess in 1 case (2 per cent.)
 (i) Organ pigmented in 2 cases (4 per cent.)

It is not easy from the variety of disease of this organ and the great variation of size, to determine the correct weight of the spleen. The normal variation of bulk and weight of

- (a) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (b) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (c) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (d) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (e) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (f) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (g) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (h) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (i) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
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 (t) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (u) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (v) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (w) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (x) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (y) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (z) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)

the spleen must arise from the nature of the organ, being considerably suited for practical purposes, the statements already made do not need modification.

(B) The Kidney.

- (a) Healthy (18 cases) (36 per cent.)
 (b) Congested (8 cases) (16 per cent.)
 (c) Degenerated in 25 cases (50 per cent.)

The degeneration was in most cases fatty, in numerous instances it was made of the tissue, and its pathological condition was suggested from a more inspection of the tissues.

- (d) The organ was atrophied in 10 cases (20 per cent.)
 (e) Atrophied generation existed in 7 cases (14 per cent.)
 (f) Hypertrophied in 2 cases (4 per cent.)
 (g) Abscess in 1 case (2 per cent.)
 (h) Pigment deposit in 1 case (2 per cent.)
 (i) Tubercle in 1 case (2 per cent.)

The average weight of the healthy kidneys is 1.8 lb. (3.7 oz.) for the right, and 1.9 (3.9 oz.) for the left. This gives a proportion to body weight of 1 to 30.2 and 1 to 31.7.

The foregoing summary will render clear the various pathological results to which the several organs are liable, and the extent to which they obtain. To discuss the grouping of these processes in individual cases, would be beyond the scope of this record, and would hardly be profitable with so small an induction. The appended table (No III) gives, however, in short, the principal morbid conditions of each organ in each case, and the numbers given in the foot-notes will serve as an index to the detail.

(To be continued.)

THE CARBOLIC ACID TREATMENT OF WOUNDS.

By G. D. McLEOD,

Chief Surgeon, *Huddell*.

HAVING for some time adopted this mode of treatment of wounds, I beg to lay the results of my experience before the profession, as showing the great value of this antiseptic agent in the dressing of wounds and ulcers. The first important case in which I used carbolic acid was in an amputation below the knee-point on account of old-standing disease. Fatty degeneration of bone—Sims's double flap operation was performed. Immediately after the operation, Professor Lister's solution of 1 part carbolic acid to 4 parts boiled linseed oil was applied over the whole surface of the wound; after the flaps had been brought together, strips of lint dipped in the oil were laid on; and the stump was dressed to be kept wet with a watery solution of the acid of the strength of 1 to 10. On the third day the dressings were opened and re-adjusted. When again opened, on the sixth day after the operation, except in two small spots, primary union was seen to have taken place along the line of flaps, by which a little pus exuded from within the flaps, the remainder of the dressings were removed with a covering of sheet cotton, and after the lining of the dressings, the wound supported by the drainage. The dressings subsequently were only wet with carbolic acid, and the patient was discharged on the 17 days. Subsequent to a number of very successful operations, I have used carbolic acid nearly every day, and have never had a case of erysipelas. I have, however, observed many instances of the disease, for which amputation was resorted to, makes the business very

- (a) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (b) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (c) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (d) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (e) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (f) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (g) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
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 (v) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (w) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (x) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (y) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)
 (z) Normal (13 cases) (26 per cent.)

liable to take on a sloughy action; and, under ordinary treatment, I have no doubt that the patient would have remained in hospital for 8 or 10 weeks, instead of 17 days only. A patient, on whom I operated in 1861 for the same disease, was under treatment for upwards of two months.

Since the above case, carbolic acid has been used in all operations, and in all wounds and ulcers in in-door patients. Its trial in two cases of removal of the female breast for scirrhous has tended still further to show its antiseptic properties. In both instances the patients were several weeks under treatment, one is still so, though nearly well; but their progress, though slow, was steady; and suppuration, notwithstanding the large surface exposed, was very small indeed. Its efficacy, in a case of operation on a little girl aged nine years, suffering from caries of the elbow-joint, is worthy of remark. The disease was of two years' standing. In this case the joint was laid open from behind, and the diseased bone removed; strong carbolic acid was then freely applied to the exposed bones, and then the edges of the flaps of skin were brought together as usual. In this instance, though the patient was a delicate child, the deep soft parts healed by primary union, and from the beginning the amount of suppuration was small. The operation was performed on the 2nd September; she is still under treatment, but will be discharged in another week.

It may be mentioned that the application of the strong acid to an exposed raw surface acts very beneficially, and this procedure is now nearly always adopted after operation. The entire absence of all putrid animal odour with carbolic acid is no small advantage to patients and attendants, a fact which can fully be appreciated by all who have had any experience of a crowded surgical ward in an Indian hospital. In capital operations, I believe that pure, or at all events colourless, acid ought to be used. I have had some experience with an impure article, and have found that the latter does not act antiseptically as well as the pure acid; more suppuration takes place, and progress is not so satisfactory and rapid as with a better agent. Imported acid can now be obtained in Calcutta at a moderate cost, and where the charge for inland carriage is not excessive, its efficacy will, on the whole, be found superior to any other.

One suggestion I would beg to make. Is not carbolic acid worthy of trial internally in cholera? Probably it has already been used; if so, the results obtained by it, whether favorable or otherwise, are called for.

HUBERT, 10th November, 1868.

PREVAILING DISEASES IN THE ANGAMI NAGA HILLS.

By HEM CHANDER BHUTTACHARJEE,
Sub-Assistant Surgeon.

THE valley of the Berhampooter is encircled with mountains or hills of various heights on all sides, except on the west, where it opens into the plains of Bengal. The southern extremity of this valley is bounded by a continuous range of hills, which have been antiently divided into the Garrow hills, the Cossyah and Jynta hills, and the Naga hills; these designations signify that this continuous range is inhabited by distinct hills tribes, known as the Garrow, the Cossyahs, Jyntas, and the Nagas. The Naga tribe is divided into four sub-tribes: the Angami, the Loche, the Kutuba, and the Rengma Nagas. The last, on account of natural causes, have deserted their original habitations, and now inhabit a distinct set of hills, some two days' journey from their Angami brethren, occupying only a limited tract of country. The Angami Nagas live in straw-hut houses on the summits of hills, varying in height from 500 feet to 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, resting themselves with rice, vegetables, meat, and fish, and their domestic

prepared rice beer, though they are not averse to English wines when they find them. They still hold little intercourse with the rest of the world, save when they come down for trading purposes in the plains.

The prevailing diseases amongst these men are—

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| 1. Intermittent fever. | 6. Intestinal worms. |
| 2. Remittent fever. | 7. A peculiar kind of ulcer, called in Assamese <i>domnoora</i> . |
| 3. Diarrhoea. | 8. Affections of the eye. |
| 4. Dysentery. | |
| 5. Scabies. | |

1 and 2. Although it might be expected, (if we believe that malaria loves the surface of the ground, and does not ascend high hills or places of elevation,) that these people should be tolerably free from the attacks of malaria, yet it is not so, and one cause of their frequently getting the above diseases is that the sides of their hills are covered with dense jungle, and here malaria of the deadliest type originates from decomposing vegetation. To the influence of this deleterious agent they are constantly exposed, whether they go to their farms or descend to fetch water from springs below, because their footpath lies through these jungles, and they have no high roads or other means of descending or going to other villages. The types of these fevers are seldom violent; and nothing like the dreadful epidemics which rage in the plains of Bengal has ever been heard of in the Naga hills. When attacked with any disease, whether it be fever or any one of those which follow in my list, they, having no medical treatment or native medicines of their own, take usually a fowl and sacrifice to their gods, in case the disease proves to be severe. It is an established maxim with these people, that starvation and abstinence from food during disease does more harm than good; consequently they take their usual diet, as much as their appetite permits them, during illness. No people follow so strictly the rule of "vis medicatrix natura" than these; and if any value is to be attached to the doctrine that mind has a good deal of influence on the state of the body as regards health and disease, nowhere is it more fully demonstrated than in the case of these people. For, when depending on nature does them no good during a disease, they always sacrifice pigs and fowls to their gods, with the faith that the evil spirit which has given birth to the disease will be driven out by the gods, and so they will be cured; and in several cases they are actually cured by this means. English medicines and doctors they value in case the doctor or his medicines never fail, whether the affection be simple or severe. This is not only the case with these people alone, but also with the Meekits, Coekies, and Chacharis. All these, like the Nagas, having no medicines of their own, trust to their gods and nature in cases of disease.

3 and 4. It is no wonder that the greater part of the mortality which results in a Naga village is from these diseases. If we accept as true that impure water and air, and decomposed food, can give rise to diarrhoea and dysentery, then it is to be granted that providence is especially kind to these men. For, I believe, it is not as yet known to the public that there are few animals in nature which a Naga does not eat with relish, and it is said by them that decomposed fish and meat taste better than fish ones. A Naga does not care whether the water he drinks is pure or impure, and the food he takes is fish or decomposed, and, if we examine the interior of his dwelling, he surpasses the native of the plains in respect of uncleanliness, because in the same room he sleeps with pigs and fowls, and never casts a throw off the excreta but when the quantity is large and occupies space. If we analyse the usual contents of his diet, we would find that more than half of it is decomposed. Rice and vegetables, though simply dried and taken like other vegetables, are deprived of their good qualities, when, after the same time, he drinks pints of decomposed beer, not only drinking it, but also through the rest of the day. The rice he eats is usually also a decomposed article, because he has to cook

MELANOPATHIA.

By C. R. FRANCIS, M.B.

THE following account of a case of melanopathia has been kindly placed at my disposal by one of the medical officers attached to the Calcutta General Hospital, for record in these pages.

The condition is interesting to practitioners in India, as being the antithesis of what is sometimes met with here, and (though incorrectly spoken of as *white leprosy*.* In the one case—*leucopathia*—there is an entire absence, on certain portions of the skin, of pigment; in the other—*melanopathia*, or, as it is sometimes called, *melasma*—the pigment is in excess.

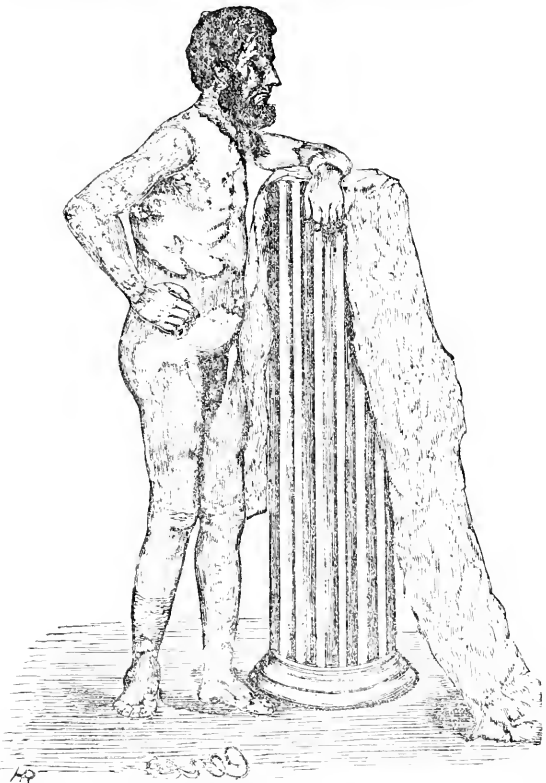
In the case before us it is note worthy that the colored patches are inclined to be symmetrical, shewing the constitutional nature of the disorder. The islets of pigment are represented by corresponding islets on the other.

John Wisshing, aged 43, a Russian Finn, seaman of the ship *Red Gambetta*, was admitted into the General Hospital, Calcutta, on the 15th June, 1868, suffering from scurvy, contracted three weeks previous to admission, on the voyage from Liverpool.

Dr. J. C. Mackenzie, the Assistant-Surgeon in charge of the case, on examining the man, was surprised to find deposits of buff-colored pigment in irregular patches on his face, neck, trunk, and extremities; the deposits appeared to be in the rete mucosum, the epidermis being apparently quite unaltered.

The patient states that he observed the discoloration about eight years ago, when he first visited the tropics. Its commencement was gradual, first appearing in the region of the umbilicus, and then spreading over the parts now involved. He has always been in perfect health, and is at present a stout, strong man.

* The Mosaic leprosy, Dr. Gavin Milroy (quoted by Dr S. C. Mackenzie) thinks, was an eruption, symmetrical, tubercular, or composed of smooth shining, or of holed, depressed, or their centres. The eruption was reddish white, or white; and is spoken of occasionally, as in the case of Gehazi, as white as snow. It is not, however, known with accuracy what cutaneous affection was indicated by the term *leprosy*.—Ed., I. M. G.



To Correspondents.

FROM NOTICE.—“I am an assistant surgeon, under five years’ service. I had charge of a 2nd class civil station as *locum tenens* No. 2, and in this way. A was in England on sick certificate; B (*locum tenens* No. 1) left for another appointment; and C (myself, *locum tenens* No. 2) took over charge after the expiration of six months from the date of the departure of the incumbent (A) for England. Query.—As A had, at that date, *forfeited all his staff*, was I entitled to the whole of it in addition to my unemployed pay of rank? B. drew full pay of the appointment after he had been officiating six months. But C was restricted by the Audit Department to Rs. 286-10 plus “the forfeited half difference”—(as it was expressed) because (C) had not officiated over six months. Officers of the Indian Medical Service are, by No. 370 G. G. O., dated 15th April, 1867, *on the same footing as military staff officers*. In such cases, what is that footing?”

The work being done, does Government save the absentee’s *second half staff*, which, at the end of six months, (under the rules in force at the date in question) used to revert to the appointment, by removing B. and substituting C.?”

57. The principle upon which Government acts in paying “officiating” months that no extra expense must be incurred. At the end of the six months, during which period half the salary of the appointment is paid to the permanent incumbent, and half to the *locum tenens*, the extra sum reverts to the appointment. If the War Department rules otherwise, the officer should appeal to Government.—Ed., I. M. G.

A MADRAS medical officer, writing from Bangalore, enquires—

“What rates of pay and allowances are passed in the Bengal Presidency to a surgeon major (Indian service), over 25 years’ service, in charge of his own regiment, and of an extra one, no portion of staff salary for the latter being due to an absentee? Our correspondent adds that, in the Madras Presidency, the answer would be Rs. 1,000+100, and thus the surgeon major gets Rs. 6-11 only for his extra charge. His impression, however, is that the spirit of the Government orders of 23rd December, 1861, and No. 370 of 1867, is to the effect that the full regimental pay, Rs. 1,000+2-100, for the extra charge, should be allowed to him as a member of the old Indian Medical Service; but the Controller of Military Accounts in this Presidency thinks otherwise. An anomaly results from the Controller’s views, inasmuch as a junior surgeon even of the old service gains a much larger proportion of the allowance for an extra charge than a senior surgeon major does, and rather larger than a junior surgeon major.”

57. In Bengal the allowances are as follow:—

| | |
|---|---------|
| For a surgeon major above 25 years’ service | Rs. A. |
| For the extra charge | 1,000 2 |
| | 100 0 |
| Total | 1,100 2 |

Our correspondent should refer the matter, —Ed., I. M. G.

The Indian Medical Gazette.

BINDING OF BACK VOLS.

We shall be happy to receive the No. of the past or previous years, to be sent BOUND VOLUMES, instead, at a charge of Rs. 2 4, for cost of forwarding cost.

HARD STREET,)
JANUARY, 1869.) WYMAN & Co.,
P. Bickell.

NOTICE.

The Publishers of the *Indian Medical Gazette* are happy to be enabled to announce, with the new year, the increasing popularity of the journal, which is now regarded at home as the leading professional journal in India. Its circulation to be highly estimated by the profession in this country. The Editor's object is to make the journal cosmopolitan, and to fill its pages with practical information which shall be interesting, not to Bengal alone, but to each of the three Presidencies in India.

The profession is public and hardly be assured that, so long as the editorial functions are performed by Dr. Francis, this object will be consistently fulfilled.

The Publishers beg further to announce that they have received proposals to contribute throughout the present year from several eminent members of the profession. They hope, therefore, that they may calculate upon increased patronage from all parts of the medical science.

HARD STREET,)
JANUARY, 1869.) WYMAN & Co.,
Publishers.

ANY one who has been employed in the service of science, among the various departments of the Government, will be glad to see the names of his colleagues and himself in the pages of a journal which will be read by his countrymen. He will find that the names of the persons in which he has been employed are printed in the periodicals in which

JOSEPH FAYRER DECORATED

As these sheets were passing through the press, we became aware of the fact that Joseph Fayrer, whose name has now become a household word throughout the country, is to be decorated with a Star of India. We shall have something to say on this subject in our next number, meanwhile we cannot resist the opportunity of the *Indian Medical Gazette* to add a few lines of complimentary congratulations, and in doing so we express the sentiments of the entire Indian Medical Establishment. Dr. Fayrer is the first to receive the Queen of his country's decorations, and we are glad to see that he has distinguished himself in a most conspicuous manner in the service of his country in a Government of England's employ.

SUB-ASSISTANT SURGEONS.

We believe that Sub-Assistant Surgeons are confident that some of the suggestions made by the Medical Council to the Government, which are intended to increase the number of the Sub-Assistant Surgeons in the *Indian Medical Gazette*, has not been adopted. It is quite correct that Apothecaries and Sub-Assistant Surgeons are now being admitted into the

service of the Government. They each draw the pay of that service, being at least the lowest salary of Rs. 350 monthly, and being with the maximum attainable in this department of Rs. 700 a month. "A Friend" states that, although previous service as a Government *Sub-Assistant Surgeon* is allowed to count towards the periodic increments of pay in the case of Applicants transferred afterwards to the medical charge of a civil station in the Government's service, similar service is not allowed to count for Sub-Assistant Surgeons in the *Journal* as quoted as the authority for the statement.

Our "Friend" has misunderstood what we wrote. The Applicant's previous service qualifying for the periodic increments of pay must have been *something more than subordinate service*, he must have held *medical charge of the department*; and, doubtless, if a Sub-Assistant Surgeon could show similar service, he would be entitled to the same privilege. "A Friend" has taken no notice of a great omission recently made to Sub-Assistant Surgeons in the fact of their previous service as Sub-Assistant Surgeons being allowed to count towards the *position of the civil station service*. This is a decided boon. It must be remembered that all that a Sub-Assistant Surgeon could look forward to, so long as he remained in that grade, was one-third of his salary at the end of 16 or 17 years, or one-half at the end of twenty-five years, the maximum being Rs. 100 a month. Now, as an unattached medical officer, he may become entitled to one of Rs. 150 a month at the end of fifteen years, and he may realize Rs. 350 at the end of twenty-five, his previous service as Sub-Assistant Surgeon qualifying for this advantage.

It has, indeed, been decided by the Government that, although the Sub-Assistant Surgeon's previous period of service may count for pension, it cannot for increments of pay. This may be considered a hardship. It may be argued that if the service is considered of sufficient value to qualify for pension, why not also for pay? It is well known, in high places, that the Sub-Assistant Surgeon receives a destitute education, and that it is useless when in charge of a dispensary is often indispensable. We quote a line with which "Bull's Eye" says on this point in his letter, which will be in our next issue. There is no doubt that the post of a Sub-Assistant Surgeon in medical charge of a civil station involves the performance of duties equal to, or greater than those of a medical officer in charge of a regiment. The time may come, therefore, when distinguished service in this capacity will be considered as qualifying for periodic increments of pay as well as for pension; meanwhile, we would say to those who murmur and are impatient in the language somewhat paraphrased of a well-known poet.

Be patient, the present hour,
Be patient for the past,
A voice is sent, the cry is given,
We'll be paid you in the last.

SANITARY COMMISSIONERS.

In the supplement to the *Gazette of India*, dated the 17th October, 1868, it is stated that, "in determining the nature of the duties to be assigned by the new Sanitary Commissioners, it must be remembered that these appointments were created solely for the purpose of improving the sanitary condition of

the people." It was further observed that, "considering the magnitude and difficulty of the task to be undertaken, the supervision of the public health will, the Governor-General in Council thinks, take up all the time and tax all the energy and ability of the Sanitary Commissioners;" that, therefore, "these officers should not be called on to undertake any work which is not intimately associated with the special objects for which they were appointed; that they should not have transferred to them any duty now performed by others, unless that duty is unmistakably one which more properly belongs to them; and that their work should be so arranged as to prevent, as far as practicable, all possibility of collision between them and other officials."

We cordially concur in the wisdom which dictated these remarks, and earnestly trust that the Sanitary Commissioners will bear them in mind in the execution of their essentially important duties. The task which is thus presented to them is truly gigantic. It is none other than the improvement of the sanitary condition of the people of India—roughly estimated at from 150,000,000 to 200,000,000. It comprises the general introduction amongst the people of the art of conserving and preserving health, or of securing "the most perfect action of body and mind, during as long a period as is consistent with the laws of life—of rendering growth more perfect, decay less rapid, life more vigorous, death more remote." (Parkes). It imperatively demands the waging of an incessant but judiciously conducted warfare against all habits, customs, and usages which equally oppose civilization and the healthy operation of physiological laws, and the substitution of cleanliness for filth, good food for bad, well arranged and nutritious for defective and comparatively in nutritious dietaries, good houses for bad ones, a pure for an impure water supply, &c.; in short, of physical and sanitary for pathological and insanitary conditions. It would, therefore, be difficult to estimate, even approximately, the importance of the duties attaching to the post of Sanitary Commissioner, the successful carrying out of which will contribute materially to the augmentation of the national wealth by effecting an improvement in the national health.

We note from the resolution of the Governor-General in Council an attempt on the part of some of the minor Governments to saddle the Sanitary Commissioners with other duties than those for which they were appointed. Thus the Punjab Government wished to combine in one officer the offices of Sanitary Commissioner and of the Inspector-General of Dispensaries; whilst that of the North-Western Provinces requested authority to give the Sanitary Commissioner the control of the civil medical establishments, and to convert him into an Under-Secretary to Government. A similar doubling-up system was proposed for Oude.

We are glad to observe that these propositions have been negatived by the Government of India. "As no other appointment which the Sanitary Commissioner could hold would so completely occupy his time and divert his attention from his own proper work as the medical supervision of a whole province, the Governor-General in Council does not consider that it will be advisable to add this to the Sanitary Commissioner's duties." If the Sanitary Commissioners are to be health officers with plenary powers in their own special department, acting directly under

their respective Governments, they must be restricted to the devising of measures for the hygienic and sanitary amelioration of the general population in their jurisdiction, or for the gradual development of the great principles of *preventive or state medicine*. In order to increase their efficiency, they should be supplied with all necessary information by the municipal corporations, and by other authorities capable of affording such information within their provinces. We have no doubt that all will only be too glad to supply this information. But the first thing to be done, under existing circumstances, is that the Sanitary Commissioners should make themselves personally acquainted with the sanitary wants of villages, towns, and cities.

To attain the desired knowledge of what is wanted to better the health of the people, the Sanitary Commissioners will have to be continually on the move. To hamper these officers with other duties entirely foreign to the objects contemplated in their appointment to the important and useful offices they hold, would simply result in the production of inefficiency and the postponement of the adoption of the necessary measures for "improving the sanitary condition of the people."

We undertake to declare that in no country in the world are entombments, garrisons, jails, hospitals, and dispensaries better cared for, in a sanitary point of view, than in India. Where defects exist, these have been systematically brought to notice by executive and administrative medical officers. And though much improvement may in many of these institutions be still necessary, yet it may be fearlessly stated that the present officers responsible for their sanitary condition are acutely sensible of them, and perfectly competent to deal with them according to the light of the times. Wherever imperfection is found, its perpetuation is universally dependent upon want of funds, and in no way attributable to destitution in sanitary knowledge on the part of the ordinary executive and administrative staff. No one would for a moment suppose that, were the ways and means provided with sufficient liberality to Norman Chevers, he would fail in making the sanitary condition of the great imperial institution under his charge all that could be desired. Who would dare to assert that if Frederick Monat were put in possession of the needful amount of money, he would be many years before he secured a *maximum* of sanitation, and thereby a *minimum* of mortality in the prisons under his control? What is applicable to these two eminent sanitarians may be assumed as being equally applicable to the position and capacity of the local executive officers studded throughout the length and breadth of the land. Where then, it may be asked, is the necessity or expediency of marking the sanitary superintendence of any of the institutions already well-cared for a part of the duty of the Sanitary Commissioners? The utility of such a measure has been clearly recognized by the Governor-General in the third paragraph of the resolution under review.

There is, however, one feature in this resolution which, we fear, cannot but give pain to the medical department generally. To imply that this department is unequal to the task now devolving upon Sanitary Commissioners, is, in truth, to deny to it the high historic renown which it has acquired for itself as an *apogee* of the Indian Army. Let the Deputy Inspector-General, and the Inspector-General of the Medical Department, also, be carefully chosen, not by seniority, but by *selection*.

respectability have continued to come out and fill the vacated ranks. From this period it would have been prudent and sound policy to have pursued a system which had been found by experience in the king's service to be expedient, namely, that of progressively improving the situation of the medical servants of the state.*

(To be continued.)

INDIGENOUS DRUGS.

We understand that a great impetus is about to be given to the development of the native medicines of India. It is not, perhaps, generally known that a large proportion of those already in use in our European and native hospitals in Bengal are the products of this country. They are procured from the bazars, and afterwards prepared for use in the laboratories of the depot in Calcutta, the provincial depôts being supplied from this source. It has been shown that these indigenous substitutes for their European congeners are quite equal in efficacy to, whilst they are much cheaper than, those costly importations.

It is expected that more attention, therefore, will be given to this subject by the provincial storekeepers. The drugs which exist in Calcutta and its neighbourhood are to be found generally all over India, and there is no reason why they should not be collected and prepared locally, as they are at the presidency town. We have not space to enter fully into the matter now, but we would urge that *medical storekeepers* should be selected *men*,—that they should evince a special fitness for the development of the native materia medica. All cannot be Waring's; but, with the assistance of his *Pharmacopœia*, recently published, those who are appointed to these important posts may follow in his steps and become of great use to the country. The men who are selected for the charge of medical depôts should have *something*, at least, of the spirit of a Waring, the great pioneer (with Royle and Forbes-Watson) of India's progress in the development of the products of her soil.

SUBORDINATE MEDICAL EDUCATION IN INDIA.

It is universally acknowledged that the greatest boon to the natives of India, which has accompanied the English rule in their country, is the medical education of her sons, and the diffusion of European medical skill amongst her people. *Undoubtedly*, much has been done in this direction; but have we done all we could? We make bold to assert that we have not; and that, not from any want of energy in the cause, (on the contrary, we point to our metropolitan hospitals and dispensaries and say to sceptics, "si monumentum queris circumspice,") but from ignorance of the most effective method of attaining our object.

We do not propose, in the present article, to deal with the education of hospital apprentices. This we reserve to a future opportunity. Our object to-day is rather to analyse the system, now in vogue, by which we hope to bring the meagreable test-tubes of Western medical science to the homesteads of our poorest native subjects, and to establish one or more skilled village doctors in every village in India.

* This account between inverted commas is taken from the *Indian Journal of Medical Science*, edited by T. Crispin, Esq.—1836.

Let us first ask ourselves what course we have already pursued, and what have been the results, and then we shall be in a position to discuss any more desirable method that may suggest itself, if there be found, as we venture to think there will be, room for improvement. Thirty-four years ago, a *people's* Governor-General crowned his remarkable administration by the foundation of the Medical College of Bengal. His object was to create a class of highly-educated native medical men, who were to become the medium of communication of English surgery and medicine to the masses. And, so far as the educational part of the scheme is concerned, the object has been attained to a degree beyond the most sanguine expectation. The ablest medical officers in the service have, from time to time, been appointed to the various professional chairs, and to the hospital. The standard of the education to be received has been so much raised by the University of Calcutta, that the students are found competent, after leaving college and proceeding to England, to maintain their position against the best educated students of Europe. They go home in medical charge of cooies to the West India Islands, Demerara, &c., from whence they are shipped free by the Emigration Agents to Liverpool or London. They then pass a short time in either Edinburgh or London, and return to their native country fortified with European diplomas and degrees, and ready either to engage in private practice, or to assume medical charge of a civil station in the unenvied department. Some compete for an appointment on the Indian medical establishment, and come out as assistant surgeons. Others, less ambitious, are content to remain in their own country; but it is remarkable that a large number first make an effort to succeed in private practice, failing which they declare for Government service. Some few, at stations where they are appointed to dispensaries, contrive to make themselves popular, where they become naturalized, as it were, in the locality, and are a real blessing to the people. A sub-assistant surgeon's surgical reputation will sometimes bring villagers more than a hundred miles for the purpose of consulting him. But such men are "rare aves in terris;" the majority cluster together in Bengal, and about the large towns, as much as they can, very many engaging in private practice on their own account, quite independent of the Government, for the sake of personal profit on a large scale. Some sub-assistant surgeons in Government employ, we grieve to say, do as little as they possibly can, and shirk their legitimate duties to the verge of safety. References are made now and then, to the head of the medical department, about a certain sub-assistant surgeon declining to see a poor suffering individual because he has not been summoned quite *en règle*, or because he has not met with what he considers his due share of civility. Some of these men thus stulticate tribes, whilst a fellow creature is suffering pain. Not only is such conduct inhuman, but, in the present day especially, when the cause of sub-assistant surgeons is being advocated by their influential friends, it is impolitic, as bringing discredit upon a body of really intelligent, well-educated, and, in many instances, gentlemanly and high-minded public servants.

The sub-assistant surgeon can never be the village doctor. As a medium for educating the latter, he is invaluable; but there his utility, as regards the masses, ceases. Except in the rare instances we have mentioned, the sub-assistant surgeon

to be a class of such a class. It is necessary, therefore, to take into consideration the importance of this question, not only for the benefit of the general practitioner, but also for the benefit of the native community of men who can appreciate the value of medical skill and pay for it. It is to be hoped that the time will come when this class will be mixed with yet higher objects of instruction, and its members will form themselves into colleges and classes for the purpose of discussing various medical questions, such as the state of medicine generally in India, &c.

This class might become an individual body in native Indian society, as the Indian prototype of the Medical Council in England. We are looking somewhat into futurity, but we cannot help urging sub-assistant surgeons and native general practitioners to be up and doing something for themselves. The Government is only too desirous that the college officers should scatter themselves over the face of the land, and settle down as independent practitioners, and these gentlemen should remember that India looks to them as her future medical councillors.

Before concluding this part of the subject, we would raise our voice against any attempt to make teaching a secondary consideration. If it were so, there is a great dearth of European medical officers on the medical establishments; and hence it need not be a matter of surprise that legislators should endeavor to get all they can out of a few individuals. For example, we have reason to believe that it is in contemplation to establish a college either at Agra or Allahabad, and to call upon the resident medical officers to give the necessary lectures. A certain amount of "dubbing up" is perhaps absolutely necessary in a medical town, in the present debilitated state of the medical services; although we would earnestly advocate the principle of sending professionalists wherever possible. When, however, this is impossible, we would urge that the professional staff should be made the primary occupants, that is, that the station medical officers should be appointed to their station duties with strict reference to their skill in certain specialties which they would be able to teach. For example, the civil and steel surgeon should be competent to take the class of surgery, to name, and miswary between them, including, perhaps, by general beholding and dental surgery would naturally, if the outset, be included, though here, too, we should advocate separate professors even for these subjects. The medical stockkeeper, if there were one, as there would be at Allahabad, were selected as the stationer might give lectures on materia medica and its kindred study. Let us *He should be selected for practical purposes.* The medical staff should be selected on a basis of his practical experience with the above-mentioned, so that an important thing given to the great advantage of the numerous students he would be expected to give, the products of the country, and he should be entrusted the student in practical pharmacy. Considering that the less a man is of the deeper is away from his depot the better, it is desirable that he should teach on his own premises.

So far, we have shown how a certain extent of "dubbing up" may be admissible, but here we stop. The Principal of the college should be *selected*, and he should be *ex officio* one of the physicians or surgeons to the hospital, without a hospital

attached, would be necessary with a view to giving him a certain number of pupils and pupils. He should not be disturbed from his practice *præter praxi*, where it would be necessary for him to do. Chemistry is a special professor, was, at any rate, still to be on the college premises. He, of course, should not practise. If possible, he should be a good teacher. A good analytical chemist, cooperating with the medical stockkeeper, might be of mutual use in carrying the residues of India. He might lecture on *medico-legal* and *medico-legal*, and he should be the chemical examiner to Government.

We have now four important chairs left—*anatomy*, *physiology*, *comparative anatomy* and *zoology* not pursued. To the hospital would be attached a European house surgeon, and a European house physician. Both these gentlemen would be resident, and, in the infancy of the institution, they and the Principal might divide these subjects amongst them. To the hospital would naturally be attached a museum, the curatorship of which might be undertaken by one of the two first-named. There would thus be four—or at any rate three—resident medical officers.

We next come to the important question of the hospital. It be thoroughly established, should contain beds for European, as well as native, patients. The European element is, comparatively, absent at Agra, whilst it abounds at Allahabad. It, in itself, is a strong argument in favor of establishing the new college at Allahabad, which is, moreover, the capital of the North-West Provinces. Further, it is centrally situated, and readily accessible by land and water. Agra is invested with a list of associations, with which Allahabad is not, the name of Thomson having given to the hospital at the former station a significance which a building of the same description at the latter would not possess. But to establish a college and hospital at Agra on this amount alone, would be to forfeit a valuable and noteworthy of the material dispensable of the beyond Allahabad, who would himself, were native, utterly condemn the proceeding. Let the Thomson hospital be maintained by all means. The more schools and dispensaries scattered throughout the length and breadth of the country the better; the building at Agra may still be maintained as a *dispensary*, but let it not be a *hospital*, with its large hospital for all classes, irrespective of race or creed, with its staff of European and native teachers, its laboratories and museum, be located at the second capital of the Bengal Presidency. We have spoken in this article only of the higher kind of education to be given at this college,—of the education of sub-assistant surgeons. In our next we propose to discuss the education of hospital assistants, hence the neglected native doctors,—of the class which is intended to represent the country practitioner in England. The rest of the whole will be then considered also.

(To be continued.)

Domestic Occurrence.

DEATH.

MURKOFF—At Dera Unad Khan, on November 25th, at 3:30 a.m., of a child, WATKINS AGE, only child of Assistant-Surgeon FREDERICK MURKOFF, aged 10 months.

Reviews.

* *Report on the Stamping out of Small-Pox Epidemics occurring within a certain district of Calcutta.* &c. *Report on the Outbreak of Small-Pox at Secliberrah.* * *Report on the Stamping out of Small-Pox in Calcutta.* By T. EDMONSTONE CHARLES, M.D. M.K.C.P., LOND. 1868.

In the first of these able reports Dr. Charles clearly shows the value of *movable vaccine establishments*. Small-pox bursts forth, and spreads over a tract of country—say a village—in an epidemic form, but the establishment is moved up, and rapidly stamps it out; *i.e.*, it vaccinates everybody, and surrounds the infected tract by a cordon of protected individuals, beyond which the disease cannot penetrate. It dies—it is stamped out. The vaccine establishment in Calcutta works upon this principle, but vaccination at the Presidency will always be imperfect in its results, *until it is made compulsory*. The victim of small-pox is *dangerous*, and he has no right to allow himself to become so. He may be forbidden to inoculate himself for small-pox, but if he be not compelled to protect himself by the vaccine prophylactic—of whose efficacy *here* there can be no doubt—the measure is only a *half one*. The portals for the entry of small-pox into a large eastern city are numerous and wide, and its inhabitants ought not to be allowed to offer themselves as targets to be shot at by it.

Why do we hesitate? Compulsory vaccination has stamped small-pox out in Denmark: why should it not be made to effect the same desirable object in Calcutta? Until such a law be passed, this hideous disease will strike down its victims, in epidemic years—in spite of improved sanitation and vaccine establishments,—by hundreds and tens of hundreds. In 1865, in the months of February and March, nearly 5,000 persons died of small-pox in Calcutta. It is Dr. Charles says, the killed and wounded at the battles of St. Vincent, Camperdown, the Nile, Trafalgar, Algiers, and Navarino were added together, the sum total would approach the number stricken down by small-pox in those two months. During the last four years of the Peninsular War, nearly 9,000 British soldiers were either killed in action, or died afterwards from their wounds. Add to the deaths from small-pox in 1865 those which took place in 1850, and we have a distasteful of more than 9,000!

Men go into battle *expecting* to be wounded or killed. When Lord Cardigan charged with the light brigade at Balaclava—the play of the "white stockings" on his chestnut's near fore-leg, as horse and rider advanced along that fatal valley, indicating to close observers that the post of danger was maintained throughout,—he never, for an instant, imagined that sight but death would be his fate at the termination of the ride; but it was to be the death of a soldier, *required* (wisely or otherwise it is not now the question) by his country,—very different to deaths which are *not* required, and which are preventable.

Dr. Charles says that he fully sees the necessity for a law rendering vaccination compulsory, but that he is not prepared to press for it, till all *other* means of having the people protected have been fairly pushed. What other means? We sincerely trust that the Government of India will never give its sanction to any scheme of inoculation for small-pox; and yet, a recent Gazette intimates as much. Mr. Strachey thinks favorably of Dr. Charles's scheme in this direction. Those who favor it little know—we venture to say—what mischief will result in consequence. We write in no capacious spirit; but we must, as a public journalist and experienced vaccinator, most emphatically raise our voice against a system which would encourage inoculation for small-pox under Government regulation, however restrictive. The intention is undoubtedly good. Millions wait to be protected. Vaccination, unless propagated on an enormous scale, and at an incalculable cost, cannot do this. "Hence," say Dr. Charles and his followers, "let us adopt some measure which shall protect the people at once, in those places where good vaccination cannot be depended upon. We can't yet give you a really good substitute for your own excellent prophylactic, therefore, for the present, we will let you fall back upon that!"

Once let the natives of India see that their own system is thus thought of by their rulers, and an impetus will be given to their humbugging operations, which hereafter it will be found most difficult to control. It has been proved that a perfect

virus may be made available, either from England or the Isles. Dr. Pearson's successful cases are 90 per cent.; and the protection of all India therefore is simply a question of time. Let vaccinators, who should be sons of native physicians or of inoculators, if not inoculators themselves, be retained *at the old camp*, and *live* among the people, who will thus become habituated to the prophylactic, and vaccination will make its way, and, *in time*, become one of the institutions of the country. If encouragement, on the other hand, be given to inoculation for small-pox, the advances which have been made in securing a footing for its antagonist since the days of Shoolbud will not only be checked, but we verily believe that its progress will be thrown back, as a prophylactic measure, *in the eyes of the people*, at least a century.

A Manual of the Diseases of the Eye. By C. MACNAMARA, Surgeon to the Calcutta Ophthalmic Hospital; Professor of Ophthalmic Medicine and Surgery in the Calcutta Medical College. With Coloured Plates, Imp. 8vo, cloth, 12s. 6d.

Celum non animam mutat, qui trans mare curant.

HOWEVER readily the above proverb may have been allowed to apply, by our untravelling friends at home, to the European character, they have been chary of extending it to the European intellect. It is too generally thought that the mental faculties of Europeans in India will not bear comparison with those of their brethren in Europe. The medical profession has not escaped the unmerited stigma. It will be remembered that a writer in the *Pall Mall Gazette* stated—a little more than two years ago—that "the Indian doctors are not good physicians, and have contributed wonderfully little to the materia medica; but they are good surgeons, and they really understand tropical hygiene."

We took occasion to notice this effusion in our issue of June, 1866, and to point out the fallacy of the writer.

We venture to say that there are no other surgeons (our correspondent probably would not go so far) to be found in the world than some of the eminent men who adorn the Indian medical establishment, whilst our ranks have furnished a physician competent to sit side by side with delegates from European nations for the discussion of subjects of world-wide importance.

Since we wrote, a FAYRER, a GOODRICH, and a Waring have stood forth as champions of the reputation of the old Indian Medical Service; and now last, but far from least, a Macnamara gives to the profession so useful and attractive a manual on ophthalmic surgery that it has been pronounced, by competent authorities at home, to be by far the best work of the kind published. To say that it supplies a gap in the series of the Messrs. Churchill, is to give it small praise. It is no mere compilation, but a work displaying considerable originality of thought, whilst it is full of practical matter drawn principally from the author's own experience. It is, moreover, beautifully illustrated by colored delineations of the different diseases of the organ of vision, as seen by the naked eye and through the ophthalmoscope. These are reproductions of Liebhich's exquisite drawings.

Dr. Macnamara's manual is, in fact, the book on diseases of the eye, and it possesses the additional advantage of being applicable to the study of disease as well in Native as in European eyes. No medical man's library can henceforth be considered complete without it.

Notices to Correspondents.

Communications have been received from

- DR. N. C. MACNAMARA,
- BELL'S EVE,
- DR. CUSTON FRANCIS,
- A PAULI APOSTROPHY,
- A CIVIL MEDICAL OFFICER,
- ONLY CHILD DET.

The following contribution is postponed:—
"A paper on Cholera," by Dr. DELABACK

* The italics are ours.—ED., I. M. G.

thrown out because of his expressed desire to see the Irish Church disestablished. When this view of his became known, formidable opposition was originated by his more Conservative brethren, who forthwith issued a signed document to the effect that they could not support Sir Dominick's candidature. Hence the failure—*hinc ille laborans*.

Under the circumstance of this loss, it is difficult to know what will be done upon the question now so much mooted in professional circles—the question of direct representation in the General Medical Council. I doubt not most persons will agree with me in thinking that the present "Council" is a most anomalous and unfairly constituted body, which in no adequate or proper manner represents the interest of the medical body. Direct representation, then, appears the only remedy. But what chance is there of obtaining this from a House of Commons, where medicine is so feebly, and to so small an extent, represented. Mr. Vanderbyl is certainly a useful member, but we need not expect much in the way of advancement from either the eloquence or the persuasive arguments of Dr. Brady.

The two great medico-scientific questions in the *topics* of medical journalism are blood-letting and tobacco-smoking. The subject of blood-letting has been reopened by Dr. B. W. Richardson in a long article in the *Practitioner* for this month, in which the author all but gives the rank of panacea to blood-letting. Dr. Richardson's arguments on the purely scientific point of the relation between vesection and the supposed reductio of inflammation are by no means satisfactory. His arguments from practical experience will have more influence; but even these are founded rather on the vague statistics of the ancients than from any exact record from modern practice. For myself, I cannot concur in Dr. Richardson's opinions; but, as his article is written in his usual brilliant and forcible style, I doubt not he will find many disciples among the rural practitioners. He advises blood-letting in typhus, spasmodic pain, the acute pain of membranes, sunstroke, non-dropsical oedema, congestion of brain from weak vessels, emulsion, crises of embarrassed heart, convulsions, and, finally, hæmorrhage. The tobacco question has been opened by Mr. G. Henry Lewes—Goethe's biographer, and Marshall Hall's opponent on the reflex-action theory in an article in *St. Paul's Magazine*. Mr. Lewes, on the *medicobalistic* principle, shows, in a cleverly written, spirited and logical essay, that tobacco is neither a universal poison, nor a perfectly innocuous substance. The late Sir Benjamin Brodie, in his papers on tobacco, stated that when a drop of the concentrated empyreumatic oil was placed on the tongue of a cat, it threw her into convulsions. Hence, he somewhat illogically reasoned, smoking must be extremely injurious in all cases. He forgot an important axiom which is now very generally admitted by the theoreticists, that increased dose of a drug does not merely imply increased action of the same kind as produced by small dose, but actual alteration of effect. M. Peltikan, of St. Petersburg, demonstrates this in the case of oxalic acid; and Austin's researchs have equally proved it for alcohol. We may therefore even on *a priori* grounds, admit the same for tobacco, and deny its generally poisonous nature. In point of fact, if tobacco is asserted to be universally destructive of health, its enormous consumption with an increasing life-rate is a certain *reductio ad absurdum* of the proposition. The *Lancet* of Saturday has a very able leader on the subject, from the pen of our most accomplished and earnest student of the physiological action of drugs. It is worth reading.

St. Thomas's Hospital (the new building) is making vast strides towards completion already from the immense and bewildering forest of us are the first story being to be shadowed forth, and is no less than seven hundred pairs of hands are busily engaged in the work, we may soon hope to see the most important and best-placed of all the London charities actively discharging its hospitality.

When speaking of parliamentary matters, I forgot to mention, as a "set-off" against our losses in Dr. Sandwith's and Sir Dr. Cairnes's death, that the University of London returned Mr. Lowe. This is a step in advance. It is really to Mr. E. Lowe that we are indebted for the medical disorganization of the Privy Council, a section of state medicine. In the only one we have, which already, under the expert and distinguished guidance of Mr. Simon, has borne such good fruit to society's service. Mr. Lowe has a deeper interest in the future of medicine. I remember, in his address to the students of St. Mary's Hospital in May last, how well he spoke of the necessity of working to discover our failings, which would be the first and only step for the establishment of govern-

mental commissions for the investigation of social disease." "Look," he said, "at the report on cattle-plague; have we seen an exhaustive memoir on my single human individual? This return, therefore, looks hopeful.

On Saturday last Mr. Cayley's term of office as Lord Rector of the University of Edinburgh had expired; the usual election took place, and terminated in favor of Mr. Moncrieff, the Dean of the Faculty of Advocates. The contest was at first between Mr. Lowe, Mr. Ruskin, and Mr. Moncrieff. Mr. Lowe retired after about a quarter of an hour, and the struggle was kept up between the other two, the final result in number of votes being for Mr. Moncrieff 607, and for Mr. Ruskin 125.

Dublin has lost one of its brightest medical luminaries by the death of Dr. Hardy. But a couple of weeks since Dr. Hardy was elected a Fellow of the King and Queen's College of Physicians; and now, in the very prime of life, he has been removed from among us. He held a very high rank in Dublin as an obstetrician, having been President of the Obstetrical Society, ex-Assistant Master of the Rotunda, and Physician-Accoucheur to Stevens's Hospital. I have to record another gap in our ranks, which has a number of very old associations. I refer to the death of Dr. Thomas Hillier, late Physician to the Skin Department of University College Hospital, and medical officer for St. Patrick's. Dr. Hillier was equally respected and beloved by all who knew him. He was a most conscientious and earnest physician, and a very able and advanced scientific man. His death was caused by nervous shocks, which followed a severe accident a fortnight previously, by which his brother lost his life. His life has been sketched in the *Lancet* by a loving hand, by one who knew him as student and physician, and who has given a very sad and touching picture of the painful circumstances by which he was taken from us.

A new scientific weekly journal, called *Scientific Opinion*, has just been started by the Messrs. Weyman, of Great Queen Street. It is intended to effect for men of science what purely opinion does for the general world of literature. The first three numbers have been issued, and they show what a want exists for this class of journal. The matter consists of selected papers from the various English and foreign scientific periodicals; original correspondence; reviews of books; a synopsis list of all the French, English, and German scientific treatises published during the week; reports of all the English societies and foreign academies; and, finally, a page of very interesting notes and queries.

Progress of the Medical and Collateral Sciences.

Action of Salts of Iron on the Blood.—In the *Journal of Anatomy and Physiology* for November, there is an extremely interesting paper, by Dr. James Blake, of California, on this subject. Some of the distinctions drawn by the author between the protosalts and the persalts are of the highest interest. For example, he tells us that the protosalts evidently tend to diminish the irritability of the heart, while the persalts seem to have little or no effect of this kind. The action of the protosalts on the nervous system shows itself in slower respiration—a peculiar state of quietness in which the animals do not wish to move. Again, the protosalts give rise to changes in the blood, which prevent its coagulation after death, while the persalts do not at all interfere with its coagulation, but indeed, as Dr. Blake thinks, render the clot firmer. The quantities required to produce death in dogs are different for the oxosalts of salts, for which 60 or 70 grams of the protosalt can be held in the blood without serious consequences; 5 or 6 of the persalts will destroy life. These experiments of Dr. Blake show us how much inquiry yet remains to be made in the department of therapeutics.

Prevention of Convulsions.—In a recent number of the *Journal of Physiology*, Dr. Brown Sequard gives seven cases, in which irritation of the sensory nerves was found to give rise to spasms and convulsions. The irritation of the sensory nerves was effected by violent friction of the nerves. He concludes that this is an instance of the same kind of nerve that we have seen in the stoppage of the heart's action by irritation of the nerves. It is of interest that the arrest of an epileptic seizure by irritating cutaneous nerves is due to a like principle.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF CERTAIN REPUTED ANTIDOTES FOR SNAKE-POISONING.

By J. FAYRER, M.D.,

Professor of Surgery, Medical College of Bengal.

PRESENT:—Dr. Francis, Dr. Ross, Dr. FAYRER, Dr. J. Ewart, Dr. D. B. Sanyal, Col. Showers, Mr. W. F. Blanford, and Mr. Seeva.

16th January, 1859.—The following experiment was made in the presence of the above gentlemen, with the view of testing an untried antidote, viz. Col. Showers's in his letter, and in the series of experiments published at Calcutta in September, 1858, and reprinted in the January (1859) number of the *Indian Medical Gazette*.

Colonel Showers's letter very kindly brought the man, who administered the antidote, before me, and expressed his wish that its effects should be tested. Accordingly, with the assistance of the above-mentioned gentlemen, proceeded to make the following experiments. The *kelasee* had been allowed to make any preparation of the dose necessary on the day preceding, and in the morning of the day on which the experiment was performed.

It is right to mention, he says, on the day of the experiments, that the antidote he has now with him is not the most potent one he knows, but that, owing to the absence of rain, he had not been able to procure it, as the drought had prevented the growth of the plant from which it is derived. He expressed his belief that the drug he had with him would prove sufficient to counteract the influence of snake-poison. Accordingly, a pariah dog was made over to him, and he administered to it a small piece of whitish-looking root, pounded and put in a piece of meat; this the dog, which was a full-grown pariah, ate readily. The *kelasee* next selected, from a basket of fresh Cobras, a full-grown one of the spotted variety, which was made to close its jaws three times in the dog's hind leg, just at the fold of the skin of the thigh, and in the thigh. The dog showed signs of pain when bitten, but had not evinced the least fear of the snake when it was brought near him; it was probably the first he had seen. The experiment was performed in the usual place, and as follows:—

EXPERIMENT NO. 1.

The antidote was given to the dog in a piece of meat at 11-55 a.m. of the 16th January. At 11-59 the dog was bitten by a full-grown spotted Cobra, of the variety known by the natives of Bengal as the *Chakrabab*. The snake was made, by a snake-man occasionally employed by me, to close its jaws three times at the fold of skin in the right thigh and in the thigh itself. We ascertained that the Cobra had only one effective poison fang, the other being broken, but with this he drew blood slightly.

Now.—Dog licks the puncture; bitten leg weak; partially paralyzed.

12-1. *post*.—Dog lies down; shows indisposition to walk about.

12-3.—No pain apparently felt; is drowsy; refuses to be raised, and then walks about, but shows a tendency to lie down.

12-5.—Looks sleepy; raises himself, but soon lies down again.

12-13.—Breathing returning; is drowsy.

12-17.—Cannot walk without staggering; falls down when left alone; breathing returning.

12-20.—Convulsed. The *kelasee* now applied some oil to the mouth and nostrils.

12-21.—Lies on the left side; universally convulsed; eyes glazed; pupils dilated, and insensible to light.

12-22.—Defecates; is pale and bloodless about the mouth and lips.

12-23.—Involuntary micturition.

12-27.—Respiration ceased.

12-31. Dead.

Ceased to breathe three minutes before heart ceased to beat. Bitten at 12-59. Died at 12-31. Death in 32 minutes.

The above notes were taken by Dr. Ewart, who carefully watched and noted all the symptoms, and he adds the following remarks:—"There is evidence that death takes place through the nerve centres, the heart continuing to beat after the respiration entirely ceases, which can only be through its own inherent irritability and its own ganglionic supply, and quite independent of the medulla, which, in all other respects, is *hors de combat*, from three to four minutes before the heart actually ceases to pulsate."

This experiment, though unsuccessful in demonstrating the good effects of the reputed antidote, cannot be considered conclusive, as the man stated that it was not the most potent agent he was in the habit of using, nor, indeed, should I consider any single trial as proof either for or against the good effects of the drug, however it had resulted. Many and repeated experiments are necessary before any definite opinion can be formed so important a subject, and, therefore, before recording one, it is expedient that the experiments should be made again; and as Colonel Showers has expressed a wish that the man should have further opportunity of exhibiting his antidote, I think that, on a future occasion, more certain results may be obtained.

Having studied the effects of the poison in many animals, and having formed conclusions as to the nature of the cause of death, I am sceptical on the subject of antidotes, and fear that the hopes of those who are most sanguine on the subject will not be realized. I am not the less anxious though to become acquainted with whatever may be of service in the treatment of snake-bites, whether prophylactic or therapeutic, and I shall be as glad to record any facts that tend to throw light on the subject, as to admit the potency of an antidote when I see it proved. Colonel Showers informs me that the *kelasee* makes the following objections to the experiment:—

First, that he was not fully prepared.

Secondly, that the antidote was not the most reliable one he knows of.

Third, that the animal was bitten three times by the Cobra.

With reference to these, I would remark that the time for the experiment was appointed some days previously; that he was invited to make any previous preparation he thought desirable; that the room in which the experiments were performed was placed at his disposal, and that certain snakes were also made over to him; that he locked himself in for some time the day before making his preparations; and that Mr. Seeva was most careful to see that all he wanted was procured, and all his wishes carried out on the day of the experiment. The animal bitten was placed at his disposal to do what he liked with, and all his wishes were complied with to the minutest details. If, therefore, anything were wanting, the fault was his own.

Secondly, with reference to the antidote, it was suggested by himself, and he certifies that his belief that it would prove efficacious, or else why he should attempt it.

As to the number of times a dog was bitten by the Cobra, the snake was made to close its jaws in those places to cause the maximum of the poison to be introduced, at least, being a small dog.

I was not satisfied that one bite, had it been fully inflated, would have been sufficient. Nevertheless the fact of there having been three previous bites at the question in this instance, for the purpose of a trial, with that the dog was in any way influenced by the serum of the bite. It is a number with the same symptoms, not only at the same time, as another dog that had not taken any medicine at all, but were bitten in the same way by a Cobra.

The efficacy of the antitoxins described by Colonel Showers does not seem to be proved, when given to the man who administers them, declares himself to be really and fully paralyzed.

EXPERIMENT NO. 2.

At 12-13, a kid of about 3 or 4 months old was bitten on the neck on the hind-leg by the same Cobra that bit the dog in the previous experiments.

The object was, that in the event of the poison not taking effect in the kid, the activity of the poison might be demonstrated by its action on the kid. Thus, had the dog survived, and the kid died, would have been so far confirmative of the efficacy of the antitoxin.

12-15—Leg weak; partially paralyzed.

12-16—Kid being staggered, but walks his-down; defecation.

12-20—Kid almost dead, but the bitten limb is paralyzed.

12-25—Almost paralyzed; is convulsed.

12-29—Convulsed.

12-31—Heart beats 93 per minute; respiration almost gone. Eyes glassy; pupils dilated, insensible to light.

12-36—Death. Heart beat for two minutes after respiration had ceased.

Kitten at 12-13. Dead at 12-36. Death in 23 minutes.

The activity of the poison had no doubt been exhausted by the previous biting of the dog, otherwise a young animal like the kid would have probably succumbed more rapidly.

The following experiments were made to test the efficacy of the solution of liquor animumus as an antitoxin. They will be repeated with various strength of the animumus in solution.

EXPERIMENT NO. 3.

At 12-36, a pigeon was injected in the thigh with Cobra poison recently taken from the living snake. Two drops were inserted into the muscles of the thigh with the hypodermic syringe.

12-37.—Is affected by the poison; staggers; is slightly convulsed and drowsy.

12-39.—Drops and falls over, but is able to walk when roused. Ten drops of liquor animumus diluted with three times the quantity of water, injected by means of the hypodermic syringe into the same thigh.

12-40.—Very drowsy; rests the point of the beak on the ground; legs stretch out with a convulsive quivering motion; heart stopped.

12-40-30.—Gaspings respiration.

12-41.—Dead.

Death occurred in four minutes, rather a long period for so small an injection, considering the quantity; but the quantity of poison was small (2 drops) and that was not thoroughly absorbed.

In this instance, I do not believe that any beneficial effect was caused by the injection of the animumus.

EXPERIMENT NO. 4.

12-51.—A full-grown parrot, dry, had the femoral vein exposed for the purpose of the injection of animumus might be readily injected with the hypodermic syringe; it was the bitten in the opposite thigh by a fresh full-grown speckled Cobra.

12-56.—Dog walks with staggering gait; the bitten limb is weakened.

12-57.—Dog is very nervous, makes a great deal of water, injected into the femoral vein.

12-58.—Legs very stiff, but legs very loose down.

13.—Legs drawn up, slightly swollen.

13-1.—Legs more swollen, sits down.

13-7.—Motion swollen 7/10 of liquor animumus, well diluted with six parts of water.

13-9.—Pupils dilated; legs down exhausted.

13-12.—Pupils dilated on the left side.

13-15.—Straggles. When roused is not able to walk, or if forced will walk slowly, whimpering and making great excess of the legs as the legs pain.

13-21.—Pupils much dilated; tracheal breathing; very weak in the hind legs, but more so in the middle than the other limbs, still moving.

13-26.—Paralyzed completely in the posterior extremities; jerking movements of the head. Respiration 44 per sec. 100.

13-29.—Respiration 628; pulse irregular and feeble; difficult to count; convulsed; is very restless; convulsive movements of the diaphragm, gasping, spasms of diaphragm; pupils dilated; insensible to light.

13-30.—Struggled and changed the position to the other side. Respiration 12 in the minute; pulse very irregular; cannot be counted from side thus tender arm.

13-31.—10 1/2 convulsions. Heart beats 101 in the minute; irregular pulse; respiration has ceased 14 minutes after the bite.

13-37.—80 1/2 beats of heart in the minute; respiration 12.

13-38.—Heart beats faint, slow but perceptible.

13-38-15.—Heart ceased to beat about 4 minutes after respiration ceased.

Dead in 44 minutes and 15 seconds.

Death was rather later in this case than usual in the case of a full-grown parrot dog bitten by a full-grown and fresh Cobra. It would appear, therefore, that the animumus may have been so far beneficial. The benefit, however, is very small; but further experiments may prove that, given in larger quantities and more frequently, it may be of service.

ON CHOLERA.

By C. MACNAMARA.

Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

(Vol. 16, Part 1, 1868, p. 99.)

I have only a word to add to the account given by the Editor of the *Journal* of 1844-45 from the case of a young European and American (1846-47-1850); we have not had its study advanced, and its date towards the end of 1851. In the meantime, epidemic cholera had again broken out in Calcutta, so that, while the disease was on the wane in Europe, it was re-commencing in this country, and was detected soon to have reached a point beyond the sea and the Ganges, and over-strewn the great part of the civilized world with unprecedented fury.

India was, on the whole, comparatively free from cholera in 1847, the epidemic of thirty previous years having died out, and but few cases being heard of beyond its ordinary limits. In Bengal proper (that is, in the Anglo-Bengal), the average number of 22,247 persons confined in the various jails, there were 747 cases of cholera during the year.

In 1848, out of an average force of 775 Europeans stationed in Calcutta, there were 20 cases and 13 deaths from cholera. From Dampier, the Superintendent Surgeon reported—"Cholera first manifested itself in the Mysore's 50th Regiment in the beginning of May; it was then rampant in the native bazar and villages around the station, and had attacked and proved fatal in many instances. Among the native troops, the visitation was

however, of mild character, and the mortality less than usual. The disease has always been prevalent at Dinapore, and may be termed rather endemic than epidemic.* We hear but little of cholera at Benares, or Allahabad, in 1848; but there was a terrible outburst of the disease at Cawnpore among the men of the 1st Bengal Fusiliers.

The Agra circle was affected to some extent at the same time; for Dr. John Murray endorses Sub-Assistant Surgeon Dharmodas Bose's remarks in the dispensary returns dated October 1st, 1848, to the effect that "cholera, though of a mild type, was generally epidemic from the latter end of August. It continued in the city (Agra) till the end of September, and then took its way towards the cantonments and the adjacent villages."† The disease did not, however, spread to the troops stationed at Agra; the Punjab, and the country to the north-west of Agra, were free from the disease throughout the year 1848. Dr. F. Colborne, in his annual report from Lahore, remarks upon the great deficiency of rain throughout the Upper Provinces, and the peculiarly healthy nature of the season.‡

Towards the end of the year another outbreak of cholera occurred among the 62nd Regiment Native Infantry, which left Dacca for Monghyr in November, in a fleet of country boats. Before quitting Dacca, it was ascertained some of the boatmen had died of cholera. The evening after the regiment embarked, the first case occurred among the sepoy; the disease rapidly increased, and Dr. Cumberland, the medical officer in charge of the regiment, reported to the Medical Board that the subsequent confusion and mortality among the men was so great, that it was impossible for him even to collect data as to the number of deaths that occurred, and much less give any detailed account of this terrible outburst of disease.

Unfortunately, the proceedings of the Bengal Medical Board have never been compiled for the period now under review; but we may nevertheless trace the history of cholera in this presidency from the published report and returns of the Government dispensaries. From those documents, dated 1st October, 1849, I find that, from Midnapore, Sub-Assistant-Surgeon Issar Chunder Gangooly reports "pestilential cholera prevailed to such a pernicious extent in and about the station, that its effects in thinning the population were scarcely less powerful than in 1832." The total amount of rain in June was about 8½ inches, that of the same month last year (1848) was 14½ inches; the total number of rainy days in June of both years was, however, equal. The rains set in on the 19th May, since which date to the end of the month there was scarcely a fine day, the partial and unrefreshing showers being productive of more harm than good. From the 5th to the 9th of June the rain was heavy, and from the latter date to the 15th of the month cholera was at its height †

From Baboo Gobin Chunder Dutt's report of the Poorce dispensary, we learn "cholera broke out during the Rathi Jatra festival, in July. The pilgrims suffered principally." In Gydn, cholera was not so prevalent in the town during the period under consideration as on former occasions, although its severity was very great in the district, where it first made its appearance in April, and continued till August.† In Patna, the disease "raged with great violence in May and June;" it was very hot again in August and September.

From Theobald, Dr. Kimsey reports that, during the six months ending 1st October, 1849, "cholera had carried off numbers of the population throughout the district."‡ Sub-Assistant Surgeon Nindadth Mokorje asserts that the disease "invaded the city of Mirzapore in the month of May, and, although the

duration was not long, yet the ravages were comparatively frightful in the adjacent villages, specially those lying on the southern boundary of Mirzapore. The devastation was terribly frightful; it was reported that the inhabitants fled for refuge to other districts, forsaking their habitations, cattle, and property."*

Sub-Assistant Surgeon Tarachand Banerjee reports from Allahabad, "towards the latter end of May cholera broke out with its usual severity, and carried away many; this disease prevailed epidemically throughout the station and surrounding country."

In Allahabad and Cawnpore, cholera appeared among the European troops in July and August, and "was raging in the city" during these months.

There were no less than 136 cases and 88 deaths among the convicts confined in the Jubulpore, Saugor, and Nursingpore jails during the year 1849, and the disease was very prevalent among the inhabitants of these districts.

Dr. Leith informs us that "cholera made its approach (to Bombay) from the eastward towards the end of the rains of 1849. It had prevailed more or less severely in the southern "Malwatta" country, and the neighbourhood of Shalapore, in the month of May, and, in the middle of July, in the Ahmednuggur and Poonah collectorates; but it did not then extend further northward.

During the week preceding the invasion of the epidemic, rain, which had been unusually abundant, fell daily, and at the rate of 1½-inch a day, and the south-west monsoon blew during the same week with a force varying from 1½ to 5lbs., or an average of 3½lbs. on the square foot, which is equivalent to a velocity of more than 25 miles an hour, in a direction contrary to that in which cholera advanced.

The first four fatal attacks took place in the three different divisions of the island; and from 4th to 12th August the fatal cases that occurred, fifteen in all, were scattered over four divisions, six districts, and twelve streets, some of which were widely separated from each other by densely-peopled portions of the town. These fifteen sufferers belonged to seven different castes, and eight different occupations, and none of them had recently arrived in Bombay.†

Throughout the year 1850, cholera was reproduced with considerable violence over the whole of Bengal proper; Cachar, Sylhet, and the eastern districts suffering very severely.

In August it "raged with great violence at Jabulpore;"‡ the prisoners were attacked by the disease, but, being speedily removed from the jail, it disappeared from among them. Dr. J. Squire reports the prevalence of cholera at Soum and Baitool;§ throughout the hot and rainy season. It is evident, therefore, that the south-western districts of the Bengal presidency were under the influence of epidemic cholera in 1850; and at the same time the disease was severely felt in Bombay, as is shown by the following table:—

| YEARS. | No. of deaths registered from Cholera in Bombay. |
|--------|--|
| 1848 | 69 |
| 1849 | 2,269 |
| 1850 | 4,729 |
| 1851 | 4,020 |
| 1852 | 1,135 |
| 1853 | 1,339 |

Dr. W. Mackenzie, C.B., Principal Inspector-General of the Madras Medical Services, has been most kind in furnishing me

* Dispensary Reports for 1849, p. 60.

† MS. Proceedings of the Bengal Medical Board for 1850.

‡ Id. ib.

* Half-yearly Reports of the Government Charitable Dispensaries, 1849, p. 196.

† MS. Proceedings of the Bengal Medical Board.

‡ Half-yearly Reports of the Government Charitable Dispensaries from 1st April to 30th September, 1849, p. 4.

§ Dispensary Reports for 1842, p. 99.

It is now, in fact, beyond our power to determine with any certainty when and where the former epidemic ended and the new one began.

We may, however, assert with confidence that cholera of a virulent type was widely disseminated over Russia during the summer of 1853. Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Hanover, and Holland, together with numerous towns in the north of Prussia, suffered from the disease. Nor did the south-eastern and central parts of Europe escape the influence of this epidemic. Numerous places in Bessarabia, Moldavia, and Wallachia, besides the towns of Odessa and Jassy, were attacked in August and the latter part of the year. Piedmont, Barbary, and certain districts of Portugal were affected. France was under its influence in the autumn, but had suffered considerably from choleraic disease in the spring.*

In London, a number of *suspicious* cases had occurred in the winter of 1852, but in January, 1853, no instances of death from cholera were registered. As the temperature rose in July, diarrhoea, as well as the common form of cholera, became fatal in the metropolis; and a few deaths from cholera of the *Asiatic form* were registered in August in the low districts by the side of the river. Several deaths by the disease occurred in September and October while the temperature fell, and diarrhoea decreased from 723 in August to 283 in October; but during this time the cholera spread and became more fatal, so that the deaths from it were 335 in October and 228 in November, 43 in December, 1 in January, and another in February (1854). There were no deaths in March; only 4 in April, 4 in May, and 3 in June.†

New York and New Orleans were both invaded by an apparently fresh epidemic of cholera towards the close of the year 1853. Mexico suffered very severely, and the disease was widely extended over the whole of the West India Islands.

In 1854, cholera was reproduced throughout nearly every country in the Old and New World. Europe and America had never before been so terribly stricken by this fearful disease, for hardly a single province, and but few large towns, escaped its deadly influence.

Both Varna and Odessa were known to be affected with cholera early in 1854, as well as the countries near the mouth of the Danube; it attacked the Russian and Turkish forces on either banks of this river. Later in the season, the English and French armies were first affected at Varna, where, as we have already observed, cholera existed earlier in the year. Dr. Marroin, the chief physician to the French fleet, assures us that cholera effected its entrance into the Black Sea on the 13th and 14th of July, with the *Picavault* and the *Magellan*, from Gallipoli. The disease spread from these vessels to the army at Varna. The cases on board the French fleet in Batschick Bay were by no means numerous till the 7th of August, when constant communication was opened between the fleet and General Bosquet's division of the army, at the time being ravaged by cholera. Two days afterwards, the disease broke out with extreme violence on board the ships. From the 9th of August the epidemic assumed great proportions; in three days it attained its maximum of intensity, and terminated at the end of ten days.‡

Dr. Linton informs us that the disease was said to have been imported into Bulgaria in the early part of June, 1854, by a French vessel arrived at Varna from Marseilles, bringing troops from Avignon, already under the influence of cholera. Several cases of the disease occurred on board the ships on

their passage to Varna. From the time the troops landed from this vessel, cholera spread progressively through the town and allied forces, attacking the French and Turks simultaneously, and afterwards the English; no class of people, no description of locality, obtaining an exemption from it.*

In the English fleet it first appeared in the *Diamond*, on the 16th of July, ten days after the arrival of a French steamer from Toulon, in which cholera was prevalent.

At the time of the outbreak of the cholera, the population of the British fleet numbered 12,572 men. These men, all living under the same conditions, except in one particular, yielded 710 cases of cholera and 397 deaths. Of these cases in the crews, 91.26 per cent. of the men attacked were supplied with water derived from springs at Batschick, a spot on which French troops had been quartered while suffering from cholera; the troops had washed their clothing at these springs, and the ground for a great distance around was saturated with their excreta. The remaining 9.74 per cent. of the infected were supplied with water partly from Batschick. Three other crews of vessels suffered from severe diarrhoea. Of these two positively took in water from Batschick, and the third probably so. In one vessel which used distilled water, water condensed from the steam of the engines, cholera broke out; on examination, it turns out that this water was passed to the tank through a foul hose pipe. In all the other ships supplied with distilled water not a case occurred. The officers in such ships as were attacked were in the proportion of 1 in 177, the men in the proportion of 1 in 16.29.

"We may, perhaps, account for the comparative exemption of officers by supposing that the men partook most freely of the infected water with which the ships were supplied without disinfecting it by heat. The officer took his wine, tea, or coffee; the sailor, his grog. That the disease did not become distributed amongst the crews by mere personal contact with the infected is proved by the fact that in one ship several infected persons were removed, and there was not a case of the disease amongst those who received them."†

The disease commenced in the British army in June; it increased in prevalence for three months and then subsided, disappearing entirely in February, 1855. There were no cases at all among our troops in March; but it burst out again in April, and reached its culmination in June. From this date the disease declined slowly but irregularly.

Dr. Downes, of H.M.'s 97th Regiment, informs us that the troops in the Pirous were all perfectly healthy until the early part of July, 1854, when a French steamer arrived from Marseilles with cholera on board. "Two cases were landed and admitted into the French hospital at the Pirous. Asiatic cholera of a malignant kind now made its appearance and rapidly spread; and cases of the disease occurred in various parts of the town of the Pirous. The disease continued to prevail from the 19th of July to the 26th of August, when it gradually ceased.‡ Greece, from her peculiar relations, had been able to isolate herself from the rest of the world in the epidemics of 1832 and 1849, and had been absolutely free from cholera. In 1854, being under exceptional circumstances, and occupied by a foreign force, over which she had no control, cholera effected its entrance into the country. In 1865, this source of danger being absent, she again entirely protected herself from the cholera which was raging around her.

* Dr. Gavin Milroy on Cholera, Medico-Chirurgical Review, p. 451, October, 1845.

† Report of the Committee for Scientific Inquiry in Relation to Cholera of 1854, London, 1854.

‡ Cholera Conference (Constantinople, 1866), Calcutta, 1868, p. 104.

* Medical and Surgical History of the British Army in the Crimea, presented to Parliament by command of her Majesty, 1855, Vol. II., p. 37.

† Dr. B. W. Richardson on the Propagation of Cholera, Transactions of the Epidemiological Society, Volume II., Part II., p. 125.

‡ Medical and Surgical History of the British Army in the Crimea, presented to Parliament by command of her Majesty, 1855, Vol. II., p. 37.

81, on the 16th of January, 1869, and was interred in the cemetery of the late Mr. A. S. D. M. on the 17th of February, 1869. The deceased was a British soldier stationed in the town of Srinagar, and was the first of the British soldiers to die of cholera. The symptoms of which he was afflicted were the same as those of the town, and he died of cholera on the 17th of January, 1869.

The deceased was a British soldier, and he died of cholera on the 17th of January, 1869. The symptoms of which he was afflicted were the same as those of the town, and he died of cholera on the 17th of January, 1869.

When reference is made to cholera and its seasons, there was a large number of cases of cholera in the town of Srinagar in the month of August, 1857, and in the month of September, 1858, and in the month of October, 1859, and in the month of November, 1860, and in the month of December, 1861, and in the month of January, 1862, and in the month of February, 1863, and in the month of March, 1864, and in the month of April, 1865, and in the month of May, 1866, and in the month of June, 1867, and in the month of July, 1868, and in the month of August, 1869.

The deceased was a British soldier, and he died of cholera on the 17th of January, 1869. The symptoms of which he was afflicted were the same as those of the town, and he died of cholera on the 17th of January, 1869.

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CIRCUMSTANCES ATTENDING THE DEATH OF THE LATE MR. R. THORP AT SRINAGAR

By ASSISTANTS JOHN H. COVLEY.

WE have been favoured with the following account of the circumstances attending the death of the late Mr. R. Thorp at Srinagar:

On the evening of the 25th of November, when residing at Peshawar, on the arrival of a mail from Srinagar, I received an express with letters from Colonel Gooden and Mr. DeWax at Srinagar, telling me of the "strange and extraordinary" death of Mr. Thorp on the 22d, and begging me to return and investigate the cause of it. The man who brought the letter said he had seen that the deceased had vomited a quantity of water. I at once went back on a mule to Srinagar on the morning of the 28th, proceeded to investigate the case. The history was that Mr. Thorp had gone out early on the morning of the 22d to take work, as he was in the habit of doing, and had crossed in the direction of the Takli, a rocky hill near the Takli, that he had returned home about 10 o'clock and, as he went upstairs, he said to his servant, an old confidential servant of his named Saik, "Get me warm water ready for my bath, and don't disturb me as I am going to take rest." There were a number of beggars at the gate, and he added, "Give them all some pie," and went up to his room. Shortly afterwards a man came with a pair of boots he had been making, and after waiting about an hour he got the servant Saik to go upstairs, where he found his master in a half-sitting posture on the floor, on his back supported against the wall, and one arm on the bed, and, as he said, "his neck was engaged, and he was ashy pale." Saik strove to raise and touch him, and finding he did not move, he called up the other servants, and he himself ran off and told the city Dewan that his master was speechless, and he thought dead. The Dewan immediately sent for the English Police, who had a Chand College, Garden, an old doctor in the Malabar's service, and the native doctor of the city, and they went together to the house and found the deceased in the above-mentioned position, and quite dead and cold. All said that they had been very unwell, but that some waters silver had been given by which they had got away. (This gave rise to the report of venereal disease by the messenger who brought me the letter, and who had not, therefore, been to the house.) The native doctor rubbed occasionally the face with a little hartshorn, and, on that evening, that he was quite dead, they did not show over the body, sprinkled over a little scented oil, and Colonel Gooden's message, that I should everything in the room immediately packed as a cargo for London, and sent off letters to me and also to Mr. Mansel at Dehra. I was going to take everything in the same state for my last time, and I am sorry to say, I made an investigation. All this I found from the above-mentioned, and also from the letter I received from the other servants. Mr. Thorp had gone out in the morning without "the water," as he said, and I am sorry to say, I then proceeded to examine the room and the corpse. The room was in its usual state, but many of his things were lying about, as he was prepared to have them down to the British man was going to start in two or three days, papers and letters. As I was sitting about on the table. The body was on the bed, but sitting, feet up, with the back resting against the wall, the right arm was resting on the bed and the left hanging down on the ground, and the head resting over on the right shoulder. The face was pale and slightly mottled with purple veins in

commencing decomposition. The right hand was pale, and the left, which hung down, was slightly swollen and discolored from decomposition. The expression was quite calm and natural, no distortion of any kind; the eyes half-open, and the pupils natural; the appearance was almost that of sleep. He was fully dressed with the small cap he usually wore on his head. On the bed, by his side, was a diary book in which he had been writing an account of his walk that morning round the "Tahiti" by the lake. A small pencil, with which he had been writing, had fallen on to the ground just under his head. I examined carefully for vomiting, but there was not a trace on the floor, the bed, his clothes, beard, or in his mouth. There was a little dried saliva on the lower lip. The appearance at once suggested that he had been sitting on the bed, and had got up and slipped down to the ground in a faint, and never moved again or rallied. He had written two pages in the journal, and ended abruptly in the middle of a description of the views on the lake. There had evidently been no struggling of any kind. On examining the body, I found the abdomen and dependent parts were becoming discolored by decomposition; I then opened the chest and abdomen. The viscera of the latter all appeared healthy. In the former the lungs were partially collapsed, showed no adhesions or other signs of disease. They were not congested, but of a dark colour. The pericardium was most tensely distended with an enormous clot of blood, the clot measuring not less than a pint and a half. On removing the clot, I found the heart empty and compressed in shape, and on the side of the left auricle there was a distinct perforation surrounded by a ring of dark tissue, where the blood had soaked into the structures round the point of perforation. On opening the cavity, they were found to contain no blood, though a small amount issued from the large veins. The valves were all healthy; the ventricles and right auricle presented no appearance of disease, though the muscular substance was pale and soft, and had a "fatty" appearance. The left auricle was most extensively diseased, to a degree that I have never seen equalled; the lining membrane was entirely destroyed; the whole surface was covered with bright red granulation, some in the form of long pendulous granulations—like clots, one of which was firmly attached to the inner surface of the auricle, and hung down through the valve into the left ventricle. The muscular tissue of the auricle was softened and friable, and in some places very thin, and at one spot was a distinct circular depression or ulcer, which had gone quite through the muscular wall; and at this point the thin external membrane had given way, and the blood had poured out into the pericardial cavity, the effect of which must have been that the blood rapidly filled and distended the pericardium, and the heart's action was arrested. The escape of the blood must have produced syncope followed by complete stoppage of the heart's action from the pressure. The pericardium externally was thickly covered with fat. The body generally was muscular and well nourished.

With regard to previous health, I have seen Mr. Thorp on several occasions during the last two years. He suffered most severely this last summer from acute pain, which he called rheumatism, though there was no inflammation in his legs and ankles. This affection was on two occasions so severe as to lay him up almost in bed for two or three weeks, and caused great depression of spirits. He never complained to me of any heart disease; latterly he had almost got rid of the rheumatic pain, which had never the character of neuralgia. He was strong and active, and a vigorous mountaineer; but his servant Sahib—an old servant who had known him for years—told me that he noticed his master had not lately been able to walk up hill

so well as formerly, and he seemed to lose his wind and get tired much more easily. During the week before his death, I saw Mr. Thorp several times, and he appeared in good health; and on the 19th he came to see me as I started from Srirangar, and he then seemed well. The next day he went out to visit a celebrated place of pilgrimage, 18 miles from Srirangar, and returned the following day.

The most remarkable feature of this case is that such very extensive disease of the heart could go on without giving rise to more marked symptoms, and that he should have kept strong and well and capable of so much exertion. This may be explained by the fact of the valves of the heart not being affected, so that there was no obstruction to the circulation of the blood. The ventricles also being healthy, the power of the heart in propelling the blood would not be much impaired, and until the moment of perforation, the disease gave rise to no decided symptoms. The lesion of the heart most clearly explained the account given of his death. He got up early, took a walk of two hours, (round the Tahiti, as written down in his journal), returned, and after speaking a few words with his servant, went up stairs, and an hour afterwards was found dead, without his having uttered a sound or made any noise of struggling. Apparently he sat down on the bed, wrote two pages in his journal, and whilst in the middle of a description slipped on to the floor in a faint and never rallied, as the action of the heart must have been arrested by the pressure of the blood suddenly poured out into the pericardium.

The following was received shortly after the preceding communication:—

I shall feel obliged by your adding the following supplement to the account I sent you two days ago of the death of Mr. Thorp at Srirangar:—

When I first examined the body I discovered perforation into the pericardium of what appeared to be the left auricle. After removing the heart, I opened first the left ventricle, and passing my finger upwards into the *auricle*, made a separate incision into its walls, and then saw the diseased surface, the ulcer-like perforation, and a long clot hanging down into the ventricle. I then opened the right auricle and ventricle without dividing any of the valves. I was desirous of destroying the relations of the parts as little as possible, as I wished to bring the heart down to Lahore for the purpose of making a more careful minute examination. This I have just had an opportunity of doing in conjunction with Drs. Smith, Seriven, and Brown, and on laying open the left ventricle through the valve into the aorta, it became apparent that what I had taken for the left auricle was in reality an aneurism opening into the aorta just above the *posterior* segment of the semi-lunar valves by a large, well-defined orifice with a firm thickened margin. The aneurismal sac was the size of a large hen's egg. It had thick fleshy walls, and was situated at the base of the heart, just in front of the auricles, and inside and behind the aortic arch. It was covered externally by the pericardial membrane. The finger could be passed directly from the aneurism into the ventricle. The tumour projected forward on the left side, and seemed to occupy the place of the auricle and its appendage. The auricle was pressed backward, flattened and concealed by the aneurism. The perforation opened into the pericardium a little below the reflection of that membrane from the vessels. The valves of the heart were all healthy and entire, as I had before noticed. The left ventricle appeared slightly dilated. There was on the inner wall of this ventricle, just on a level with the lower border of the aortic valves, a small circular

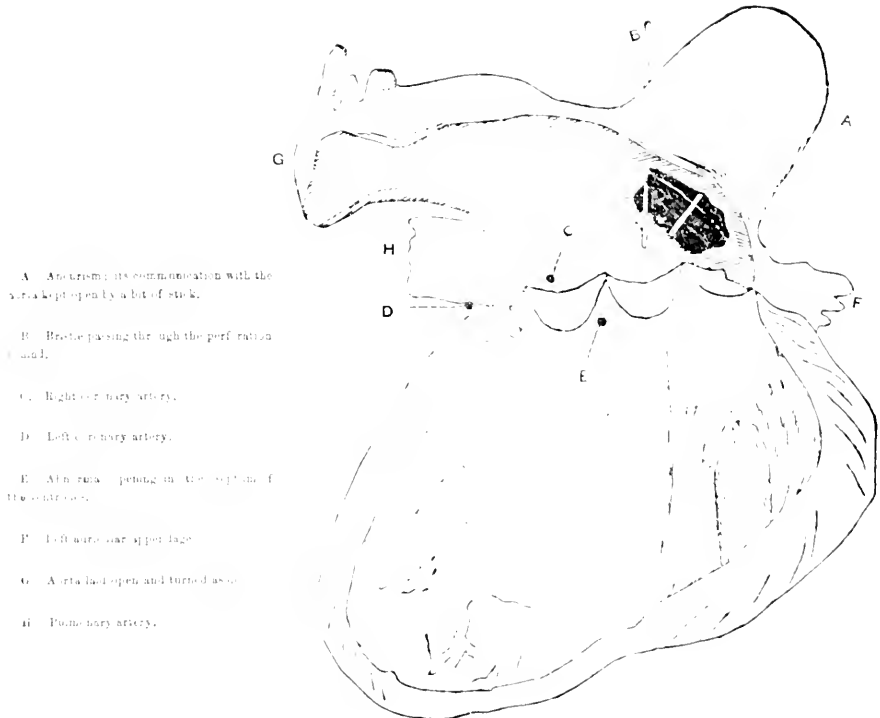
orifice through which a probe passed upwards and backwards for five-eighths of an inch into the muscular wall of the heart, and which appeared to be the cavity of a small vessel. The aorta was roughened internally by atheromatous deposit. In my first superficial examination of the heart, being anxious to have the parts as little disturbed as possible, for further examination I had not cut through any of the vessels; and observing this cavity exactly occupying the place of the left auricle, which was itself compressed and seemed merely to form the wall of the aneurismal sac, and passing my finger down freely and directly into the ventricle, I had mistaken the sac of the aneurism for the left auricle, which it exactly resembled in position and appearance—a mistake that was at

once apparent when the ventricle and aorta were laid open into one.

The disease was thus of no *exceptional* character, but it is remarkable that an aneurism of the base of the heart could grow to the size of a large egg, and not give rise to any symptoms until the moment of perforation and death.

Liverpool, 29th December.

NOTE.—Since the above was in type, we have received by other means of the death of Mr. Hill, very much to the sorrow of all who knew, the following interesting case, and in the form of a report, signed by Drs. C. M. Smith, J. B. S. Brown, and F. E. Prouse. Dr. S. Brown has added a note that the muscular structure of the heart was in a state of *fully degenerate* (L. V. I. M. G.).



- A. Aneurism; its communication with the ventricle kept open by a bit of stick.
- B. Bristle passing through the perforation and.
- C. Right coronary artery.
- D. Left coronary artery.
- E. Atheroma opening in the region of the coronary.
- F. Left auricle upper face.
- G. Aorta laid open and turned aside.
- H. Pulmonary artery.

ON CERTAIN DOUBTFUL POINTS IN THE PATHOLOGY OF CHOLERA.

By F. W. A. DE FARMAN.

Lancet, Nov. 20, 1868. The Lancet, and Hospital Practitioner.

THERE is an earnest desire abroad in the profession to reach, if possible, a true solution of all the difficulties which beset us in the treatment of cholera. With a strong share in this desire, I have been induced to give publicity to the following remarks and suggestions, in the hope that they may receive their full share of criticism, confident that if even they are found to exert no practical influence in themselves towards our knowledge of this important subject, yet that the discussion, which I

am ambitious enough to hope they may provoke, will bring us a few steps further upon our difficult inquiry. Let this be my apology for the succeeding observations.

That which attracts our attention most forcibly on first examining a patient suffering from cholera, is the sinking appearance of the face, and the cold clammy skin, shrivelled at the extremities. There is no doubt that the coldness of the skin is dependent on a deficiency of blood in the capillary vessels, and that the clammy condition is due, not to exosmosis of the watery constituents of the blood, but to the lowered temperature of the surface itself, which, in condensing the quondam vapory exhalations from the sub-dermator follicles, now converts into *visible* that was previously *invisible* transpiration. The shrunken

appearance of the face, and, in general, of all parts of the surface, supported by any considerable thickness of the cellular layer, together with the shivelled appearance of the skin of the extremities, sufficiently proves that the watery particles contained in these situations during health have passed into the circulation by the process of *exosmosis*.

If we examine into the state of the circulatory system of patients who die from this disease, we find (1) that the capillaries are empty, (2) the smaller venous trunks moderately full, but (3) the larger ones, as they approach the heart, more or less distended with dark, thickened blood. The condition of the pulmonary surface presents a marked similarity to the appearances just noted. Dr. Goodale, in the 1st volume of Reynolds' "System of Medicine" (p. 168), has given such an admirable account of these appearances in the lungs, as observed by Dr. Parkes, that I make no apology for quoting it in full. "It was previously supposed, that the lungs and heart were gorged with blood, but he (Dr. Parkes) pointed out accurately what was the precise situation of the congestion. He showed that the gorged parts were the vessels of the right side of the heart and the pulmonary artery, in the roots of the lungs, from the right side of the heart to the smaller branches; and that the smaller vessels, the pulmonary capillaries, the pulmonary veins, and the left side of the heart, were nearly empty; in fact, that the blood was not arrested in the capillaries of the lungs as in common asphyxia, but in the arteries short of them. On section there was free bleeding from the roots of the lungs, but there was little or none in the peripheral parts; they were generally ex-sanguine."

For the present, I defer examination into the state of the abdominal organs, as I shall presently have occasion to show that the condition of the circulation there presents marked differences from that which now forms the subject of our investigation. Let us pause and examine this phenomenon, peculiar, as I believe, to this disease, in which the blood is not arrested in the capillaries, or smaller veins, but in the smaller arteries. To what is this obstruction in the smaller arteries due?

We know that the arterial walls throughout the system are mainly composed of elastic tissue, whose action is purely mechanical, and in harmony with all the established laws of elasticity. We further know that this elastic tissue is supported by muscular fibres, which are but sparingly distributed to the larger trunks, while they are abundantly dispersed over the walls of the smaller branches; and that inversely the proportional strength of the elastic tissue decreases, according to its distance from the centre of circulation. It is this admirable balance of the elastic and muscular force which regulates the flow of blood through the arteries, and assists its progress onwards through the capillaries. A precisely similar arrangement, we know, exists, to a minor extent, in the veins, but the walls of the capillaries forming the peripheral connexion between the arterial and venous systems have neither of these elastic or contractile properties.

Dr. George Johnson has advanced the theory that, as far as the lungs are concerned, the obstructed condition of the arterial branches is due to spasm of the muscular fibres entering into the composition of their parietes; but while this theory seems to explain, better than any hitherto suggested, the pathological conditions of the thoracic viscera, and some of the general symptoms of cholera, it does not sufficiently account for all the peculiarities of this disease.

Post-mortem examination shows that the peripheral circulation all over the body (excluding the abdomen) is in a similar condition to that observed in the lungs; and if a certain mechanical cause be admitted as explanatory of this state in one situation, it will necessarily be applicable to all. Anatomical evi-

dence, and conclusions logically drawn from certain remarkable symptoms, establish this fact, that the large venous trunks are distended, and the capillaries empty. Now, if an obstruction more than usual, to the reflux of the pent-up blood in the larger veins, did not exist, we should have full capillaries, *exosmosis* from their walls, and all the well-known consequences of obstructed venous circulation; appearances, in fact, directly the reverse of those peculiar to this disease. Now, let us see if the theory suggested by Dr. Johnson, as explanatory of the condition of the thoracic circulation, is applicable to other parts of the body also.

Let us imagine a column of blood leaving the left side of the heart, circulating through the capillaries and venous system in the natural way, traversing the right side of the heart, entering the pulmonary artery, and there meeting with an unusually constricted channel. A portion of this stream forces its way through into the capillaries and pulmonary veins, but the remainder is thrown back upon the heart. From this state of things, there results deficiency of blood on the arterial portion on the venous side of the circulatory system. This pressure on the latter, however, is not sufficiently great to overcome the obstructions of the valves in the veins with the spasmodic condition which is now supposed to have attacked the venous branches as well as the arterial. The capillaries, therefore, become empty, because the supply of blood from the arteries is deficient, and because the regurgitant action which does take place in the veins is not strong enough to overcome this obstruction it meets. Hence we have *end-smosis* of all the serous particles derived from the tissues which surround the capillaries, both in the lungs and over the surface of the body generally; amounting, in the first situation, to dyspnoea, cold breath, partial anæmia, and anxiety of countenance; and, in the other, to cold skin, with clammy transudation, sinking and shrinking of certain portions of it, and, associated with these conditions, we have, because of the deficient arterial circulation, diminished pulse.

That a similar lesion exists in the heart, is evidenced by an absence of all the usual symptoms of cerebral effusion.

There is a phenomenon peculiar to cholera, constantly remarked as occurring in fatal cases of that disorder, not observed in any other disease. I allude to the elevation of temperature, over the surface, which occurs shortly after death, and the filling up of parts previously shrunken. By no theory, hitherto maintained, is this strange condition to be so satisfactorily accounted for. With death, the spasmodic condition of the arteries becomes relaxed, and the warm arterial blood now flows peacefully into the empty capillaries; and these, resuming their natural properties, permit of serous *exosmosis* into the cellular tissue in which they are embedded.

We have now seen that this supposed spasmodic state of the muscular fibres of the smaller arteries and veins is abundantly sufficient to account for the phenomena observed in all parts of the body except the abdominal cavity and its contained viscera; and we shall now endeavour to ascertain how far a similar condition may explain morbid appearances in these. Let us first examine the very urgent symptoms which occur in the stomach and intestines, and compare them with the post-mortem appearances usually observed in these situations. The symptoms are vomiting and purging of fluid matter, which, whether ejected by the oral or anal aperture, bears pretty much the same characteristics in both cases. The post-mortem appearances are, an edematous condition of the mucous membrane of the stomach and intestines, sometimes associated with considerable venous hyperæmia, which occasionally proceeds to actual rupture of

3. I admit that the existence of painful cramps, which are generally observed to attack patients suffering from cholera, is no proof of the presence of a similar condition in muscular tissues supplied by the sympathetic; but although these cramps owe their origin undoubtedly to sensory-motor influences, the existence of which we have every reason to connect with the operation of the morbid matter to which all the other changes in the system are attributed, yet it is much more probable that such an excited state of one division of the nervous system should be reciprocated by the other, than that this latter should assume a state of paralysis. These muscular spasms, therefore, of which the patient is *sensibilis*, constitute a strong *à fortiori* argument in favor of the existence of similar spasmodic actions in situations where, from their physiological characters, they are *insensibilis*.^{*} The following considerations may tend to strengthen this view:—

a. Vomiting is one of the urgent symptoms of cholera, a necessary condition of the production of vomiting is obstruction of some kind at the pylorus. In this disease, there can be no other cause for such obstruction than spasmodic contraction of the muscular fibres of the lower third of the stomach.

b. The pain and uneasiness felt in the epigastric and pre-cordial regions can only, as far as I know, be satisfactorily accounted for by the spasmodic state of the stomach, diaphragm, and associated muscular structures making itself felt in this way.

c. The intestinal canal is almost entirely dependent for its nervous supply on the sympathetic. If this nervous supply were arrested, as it would be in paralysis, we should have this, and the suppressed discharge of bile, above adverted to, acting as powerful causes to produce a state of *constipation*. Thus then there is nothing to show that the peristaltic action of the intestines is, in any way, impaired; and if it be granted that there is no positive proof to indicate that that action is excited, of which, I believe, there is much, there is none to establish that it is not as free as at any period during health.

4. Lastly, if cholera were associated with a paralyzed condition of the sympathetic system of nerves, injury or impairment of function of this system, under other conditions, could produce results similar to those observed in cholera, which, it is well known, is very far from being the case.

There are many points in the consideration of this important subject, which, for want of sufficient collection of verified facts, we must necessarily leave to conjecture. We sadly need carefully conducted enquiries regarding post-mortem appearances *immediately* after death, before the reflux of blood into its natural channels has produced that increase of temperature generally noticed shortly after death, and especially with regard to the condition of the blood-vessels and glandular ducts; also results of experimental stimulation in animals, of the whole of the sympathetic system, and also of suppression in its function.

I do not wish to say much regarding treatment, while the theory of the pathology of cholera here advanced is yet so conjectural; it is enough to remark that the indications it suggests are the following:—

1. To promote elimination of the morbid matter from the body.

2. To release the state of spasmodic contraction of the channels of circulation, and of the biliary and renal ducts, so as

to allow the blood to resume its normal flow, and to restore the proper secretions of liver, kidneys, stomach, and intestines.

3. To soothe the nervous system after the excitement under which it has laboured, and to ensure healthy reaction.

In the earlier stages of the disorder, before the characteristic flux from the stomach and intestines has set in, remedies may be admitted to the stomach; but it must be borne in mind that there is one class of drugs which is useful in the first stage, positively poisonous in the reactionary stage of cholera, and another which is useful in both. The first class must be exposed to the action of the stomach with great caution, since, if any portion of them lie in the stomach when collapse has once set in, there is much danger of their remaining inert, until the first effort at reaction ceases their absorption with detriment to recovery. Of this nature are narcotics and indigestible stimuli. The other class may be administered with freedom, because, after the period of their inactive retention in the stomach during collapse, they are presented for absorption at the very instant when reaction sets in, and thus act beneficially at the precise moment of commencing recovery. Of this nature are calomel and other allied medicines.^{*}

The state of the dermal capillaries permits of applications to the skin, with the hope of their absorption; and with this view, mercurial liniments, fluit preparations of opium in the earlier stage, with or without chloroform, and perhaps opium, may be of use. The surface, however, which gives us the greatest promise of speedy absorption of remedies applied to it, is the pulmonary mucous membrane; and I believe that experiments carefully made in this direction would lead to most beneficial results. Of the advantage of chloroform inhalations, we have already had some proof; but much remains to be tried in the exhibition of other remedies in this form, principally, perhaps, mercurial vapor. I have spoken so much in favor of mercurial preparations, because, in my own practice, I have had reason to be well satisfied with their efficacy—an experience which is borne out by that of many of my professional brethren, both in this country and at home. Of the e, of course, calomel holds the chief place. It is difficult to conceive a remedy more likely to be of use in this disease than one which is at once, as Dr. Christison states, “an irritant, stimulant, antiphlogistic or sedative, cathartic, diuretic, anaphoretic, cholagogue, sialagogue, and alterative.” Lately, the application of ice to the spine has been much extolled by European practitioners. I have no personal experience of this mode of treatment, although I am disposed to think that, as an adjunct to other remedies, already mentioned, it may be useful. In closing one of his lectures on tetanus, Dr. Watson observes, “Dr. Todd has suggested to me the application of ice to the spine—a measure which he has found eminently beneficial in convulsions. This mode of employing cold as a remedy in tetanus seems well worthy of trial. It would have the advantage of not inflicting any shock which might excite or disturb the reflex function of the cord through its incident nerves.”

^{*} It is a question whether the cramps usually complained of in cholera may not be induced secondarily by reason of diminished supply of blood to the cerebro-spinal centres—a cause from which we know certain forms of spasmodic disease arise; on this point information is needed.

^{*} Although the act of absorption is generally in abeyance during the period of collapse, it is not necessarily completely so from its first interruption, and the moment of reaction. There may be periods, however brief, during which the balance between healthy and diseased action may waver, when fluttering efforts towards recovery, of which there is no external indication, may occur; and no doubt, at such moments, remedies acting freely in the stomach may become partially absorbed. “It is, I think, well,” says Dr. Monro, “to assume the possibility of some degree of absorption.”

SUB-ASSISTANT SURGEONS.

By RICHARD EYR.

In the *Literary Gazette*, of the 24th October last, appears a notice, No. 3115, dated the 20th of the same month, which states that, as a sub-assistant surgeon, who is appointed to the rank of independent grade, will be entitled to a higher grade than will be assigned to a sub-assistant surgeon who is appointed to the rank of independent grade, the former the same time, and the latter the former's rank, in the latter grade.

Now it is a matter of regret that neither the Bengal Government, by which the question was raised, nor that of India, in which it was referred for final decision, have recognised the fact that the promotion of a sub-assistant surgeon may partly vary in nature, it being either what is connected with the mere change of an official or dispirited, and it generally happens, or its being in connection with the onerous duties of a civil medical charge for the ignoring of this distinction has led to the state of not a little anxiety and perplexity to me.

I give an instance, I shall here mention the case of a sub-assistant surgeon, now serving in the Punjab, who has, since the issue of Circular No. 719 of the Home Department, of the 13th February last, regarding the promotion of the status of sub-assistant surgeon for promotion to the rank of uncommissioned rank, not only been hesitating as to what to do. For at present, the same sub-assistant surgeon draws his pay and allowances as follows:—

| | |
|--|---------|
| 1. Pay of 1st grade sub-assistant surgeon, minus the usual Punjab allowance of Rs. 50 per mensem (which is allowed to one holding independent charge) | Rs. 150 |
| 2. Allowance for holding independent charge | „ 150 |
| 3. „ „ as supplement of dispensary | „ 20 |
| 4. „ „ 1st medical charge of peace | „ 30 |
| Total | Rs. 350 |

To this sum, if Rs. 50 be added, which is an increase which the same individual has every reasonable hope of obtaining on passing successfully the second septennial examination, for which his time has already arrived, then his pay and allowances will amount to Rs. 400, that is, Rs. 50 more than what he was entitled to by his getting himself transferred to what is called the latter grade. And I would not be still more trying to him, as that he should, for at least five years to come, pay a pecuniary, as it were, of the amount of Rs. 500 monthly, with the hope of attaining a monthly salary of Rs. 400 after that period, and of Rs. 500 after the end of that period. As for his being a private citizen, he is Rs. 700, the salary of the highest class of uncommissioned medical officers, though not to enjoy the privilege, the remuneration of years, it is, I believe, a problematical salary that he would not enjoy, if he were to retire at an age of 30 years, but also to retire at an age of 35 years, an age which, if it is heavily disproportioned to him, from retaining his appointment in the Government service.

To conclude this notice, it will be necessary to mention that the same is the case with the promotion of the 1st grade, which is, of course, the same as the change of a private station. But since, in the ordinary previous service of a sub-assistant surgeon, that is, of the rank of uncommissioned rank, he will be entitled to the status of a private citizen, it is a privilege which will be paid and related to within 41 from the moment he is taken into possession of a private station, which the liberal policy of an enlightened Government has already decided to liberally award to all regular and apothecary

surgeons in the medical service, who, as it is well known, are allowed to conduct their private service in the same civil medical charge, to hold the private and permanent, it is every one of the grade of an uncommissioned rank, and that is the fact of the well-known Regulation, No. 18 of 1883, which has granted equal rights of a privilege to all the servants of the State.

It is therefore to be feared that, should a Government, who has a reasonable mind in proving the position and prospects of an officer, who is to be engaged to let Majesty's Indian service, with the exception, only, of that of sub-assistant surgeons, will never allow the claims of this department to be overlooked.

P.S.—Since the above was written, I feel, from your last issue, that another case has been made by the Government to the agents and assistant agent, which is, I believe, a reasonable amount to the true service in improvement of the charge of a regiment towards the period of movements of pay in case of their being appointed to a civil medical charge. What will be the result of this spirit be shown in the case of our sub-assistant surgeons?

A NOTE ON SULPHUROUS ACID.

By ROBERT BIRD, M.D.

I HAVE recently used sulphurous acid, in cases where the temperature of the body was abnormally high, with a very good result. A man in the measured heat of the tissues had almost always to undergo its administration continued over 24 hours. In several cases of remittent fever where, after a general purgative either had failed to cure the body, sulphurous acid succeeded. I usually gave it in drachm doses every two, three, or four hours, according to the intensity of the heat, the greater the heat, the more frequent the repetition of the dose.

In remittent fever it is speedily beneficial, and in many instances in that condition of the body named by the natives "intermittent fever." I did not present it as a panacea for every form of diseased action, but it is a valuable addition to the list of those remedies which control human heat. A fair trial will prove this to the most sceptical. I was at first led to use it in a comparatively tranquil state that had been given a high place to a list of substances powerful to subvert human heat. In fact, sulphurous acid and ammonia take large places, but sulphurous acid takes the place of peace still. It can scarcely be called a fever, but the substance, which has the power to absorb radiant heat in a glass chamber, should also have the power to absorb it in various forms of amongst the body tissues. At any rate, it is not a little remarkable that unacid sulphurous acid, and sulphurous acid, which are also absorbers of radiant heat, are also powerful febrifuges, and that, perhaps, our most powerful antiseptic is at the same time one of the few known substances which can render the elements in the spectrum harmless.

In 1865, I made an unsuccessful attempt to evolve a series of experiments, conducted by eminent men in England in trial of this theory. If it can be established, and I may believe that it can, the substances which are powerful over radiant heat are also powerful over radiant heat, then they also possess a wonderful power over the disease of new germs. For it would seem from the effect and glory of the physical to test thoroughly the agency of radiant heat and light the therapeutic value of every substance freshly made or discovered by the chemist. The action of every natural remedy on the human tissues could then be predicted. In this direction, it appears to me, we have a glimpse of a truly scientific medicine.

HOWARD, 157, J. R. C. P., 1899.

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

INTESTINAL HEMORRHAGE.

By OGDEN CRENSH DUTT,
Civil Medical Officer.

DURING the last two years I have met with a few cases of intestinal disease which, I believe, are curious as to variety of record. Two of these were cases of hemorrhagic flux, and the other two I am about to refer to were apparently cases of inflammation of the bowels and peritoneum, of a peculiar form.

CASE I.

LUCKEN S. ROY, a Rajput prisoner, aged 35, weak and famished, was admitted into the Pooree jail on the 12th July, 1866. On the morning of the 17th July, he came to hospital, complaining of severe pain in both knees. His countenance was pinched and anxious, as if suffering from great pain; pulse frequent, small, and weak; bowels costive. At this time the case was considered to be one of neuralgic pains, and an anodyne liniment was ordered to be rubbed on the knees. At about 4 p.m., the native doctor found the patient no better, and in a state bordering on collapse. I was sent for and found the pulse almost imperceptible, perspirations pouring out of the body, and the patient restless. Even now he did not complain of abdominal pain, or of any other symptoms, except pain in both knees. I examined the heart, but did not in any way examine the abdominal cavity, so that I am unable to state if pain would have been elicited on pressure or not. Ordered stimulant mixture to be administered every hour, as also hot bottles to the feet and ginger friction. The patient died early on the morning of the 18th, from symptoms of collapse. On opening the body, the whole of the intestines were found deeply inflamed in their serous coat. The peritoneal peritonium was also very red and vascular. The abdominal cavity contained about a pint of sanguis fluid, turbid, with shreds of lymph. Patches of lymph were also effused about the coils of the intestines. On opening the intestines, they were found distended with a yellowish thin fluid. The mucous membrane was of a dark red color. The lower lobe of the left lung was congested. There was nothing worthy of notice in the other organs.

CASE II.

BOHORAM SART SINGAR, aged 30, was admitted into the Pooree jail on the 12th July, in a weak, famished stricken state. On the morning of the 19th he came to hospital, complaining of severe pain in the thighs, and a tense, tender state of the abdomen. Bowels confined; no fever. On examination, the abdomen was found very tense and tender; pulse small, weak, and frequent. This case was diagnosed to be of the same nature as that of Lucken Roy, above described, and the patient was ordered colic and opium pills every three hours, and frequent turpentine fomentations over the abdomen. At 3 p.m. he was very restless, the pain in the thighs was very severe; pulse feeble. Was ordered an injection of castor-oil and hot coffee. Died suddenly at 4 p.m. The appearances presented by the intestines and abdominal cavity were much the same as in the case of Lucken Roy; only the congestion of the intestines and peritoneum was not so deep and bright. The fluid effused in the abdominal cavity was of a deep yellow color, with abundant flakes of yellow lymph floating in it.

Remarks.—I will not venture to offer any suggestion as to the nature of these two cases. In the books in my possession, I cannot find any account of a similar disease. At the time I attributed the disease to clumping and clump of a newly-made tomb of my grandfather. But I think that the prisoners should all sleep on straw thickly and all over the floor; and afterwards I had no other case of the sort.

CASE III.

DHONAT SWAMIN, aged 20, a Rajput prisoner, was admitted into hospital on the 21st August, 1866, with fever of six days' duration. The fever was non-remittent in type, and not very severe apparently. He was ordered a dose of castor-oil.

22nd.—Had five stools in the night, had fever whole day and night yesterday; it is a little less severe now. He was ordered quinine, grs. vii., every three hours; fever mixture to be given at the fever intervals.

23rd.—Had fever during the day, and took fever mixture of castor-oil and nitre yesterday; did not remit in the morning.

He was ordered quinine, grs. vi., every four hours. At 4 p.m. it was reported that pain at night was very weak and last night he had five copious watery stools of a red color. On visiting him I found him pulseless and dying; one of the stools was preserved for my inspection. I found it of a bright red color very thin, but without any large coagula. Patient died at 5 p.m.

On opening the abdomen, the peritoneum and large intestines generally were found to be congested. About a pint of reddish serum was effused into the abdominal cavity. Coagula congested thickened, and covered with red patches. On opening the large intestines, they were found filled with a dark yellow fluid. The other organs were normal in appearance.

CASE IV.

MAYSA, aged about 30, a Hindu prisoner, of robust constitution, complained of fever on the 2nd March, and had a dose of castor-oil. He did not come to hospital, nor did he apply for any medicine on the 3rd. On the morning of the 4th he came into hospital, and said he had a return of fever on the 3rd. He was given a dose of atees powder, grs. xxi., and afterwards took some rice, at 10 a.m. Soon after he vomited three times, and was purged twice within 2 p.m. The appearance of these two stools was not noticed, but they were stated to be thin and feculent. Between 2 and 4 p.m. he had two copious watery stools of a deep dark red color, with flocculent yellowish deposits, and had vomited twice, the thrown up matters consisting of bile and mucus. On my visiting him shortly afterwards, I found that his eyes were sunk, pulse very feeble, abdomen sunk and free from pain or tenderness; was very restless. The native doctor had given him a colic and opium pill at 2 p.m., and another at 4 p.m. I now ordered him an emollient of sugar of lead ss , and tinct. opii ʒi , in four ounces of water, and gave internally, every half hour, a mixture composed of 10 drops of liquor ammoniac and 20 drops of sulphuric ether. A large mustard plaster was also applied to the abdomen. Had another stool of the same sort at 7 p.m., and an injection of 10 grains of sugar of lead and half a drachm of tinct. opii was repeated.

5th March, 7 a.m.—Has taken 14 doses of the stimulant mixture since 4 a.m. yesterday. Had one scanty stool at night of a dark red color. Is very sick and retching this morning. Pulse weak and quick, but fully restored. Was ordered Colley Brown's chlorodyne (prepared according to the formula published by Peter Spigine) in doses of 20 minims every two hours.

6 p.m.—Had strong fever at 12 a.m. It is getting less now, but not quite gone yet. Says he feels great relief from taking the chlorodyne, and wants to have it oftener than once in two hours. Pulse weak; sickness and retching relieved by chlorodyne. Took a little soft rice and *addee* for food.

6th, 7 a.m.—Took twelve doses of chlorodyne since 4 p.m. yesterday; fever left yesterday evening. Since then feels composed. Had no stool. Was ordered quinine, grs. iii., every two hours along with a dose of chlorodyne.

4 p.m.—Had fever at 12 or 1 o'clock, attended with sickness; the fever has just left. Mustard plaster was applied to the abdomen, and the chlorodyne continued every two hours. Had taken three doses of the quinine, and the fever was less strong than yesterday on the 6th.

7th.—Feels pretty well now, is only very weak; was ordered 1 quinine, grs. vii., at 10 a.m. and 10 a.m. respectively, along with a dose of chlorodyne. To have no other medicine.

8th.—Had no fever yesterday, complains only of weakness; was ordered bark and sulphuric acid. Patient was discharged cured on the 11th.

Remarks.—The two cases of hemorrhagic flux above related are apparently cases of bloody flux, occurring as complications of malarious fevers. Profuse and long-continued perspirations, with a tendency to end fatally from exhaustion, are often met with as complications of apparently slight attacks of fever. A similar extension of the fatal stage malarious miasmata, permitting of copious exudation from the blood vessels, is very accurate to the hemorrhagic flux that is now a common malady.

The Lymphatics in Frogs.—Herr C. Todd, a military physician, has communicated to the Royal Academy of Vienna some interesting facts in relation to this subject. The details of the memoir are too long to abstract. The author first describes the thyroid gland of frogs, and demonstrates its functional analogy to the lymphatics of mammals. Then he describes minutely what may be called the thymus gland of the frog, and assigns to this organ a peculiar series of functions.

Notice to Correspondents.

Communications should be sent to the Editor, at the office of the Indian Medical Gazette, No. 1, Strand, London, W. C.

Advertisements should be sent to the Manager, at the office of the Indian Medical Gazette, No. 1, Strand, London, W. C.

It is requested that all communications should be sent to the Editor, at the office of the Indian Medical Gazette, No. 1, Strand, London, W. C.

The Editor of the Indian Medical Gazette is pleased to state that the volume of the Gazette for the year 1868, at the eleventh hour, has been published.

ON SNAKE-POISON AND ITS ANTIDOTES.

When we review the result of some experiments recently conducted, we are struck by the efficacy of a certain antivenereal remedy in the treatment of the poison of the Cobra. The remedy was a solution of antimony, in the usual syphilitic form, with the addition of the vegetable Oil of Turpentine from the West Indies, in a proportion exactly equal to the base. It was given by the rectum, and was attended with the most beneficial results, and was especially successful in the most obstinate cases, that we ever witnessed in our country. But we find that, however efficacious the results of the experiment of February, the 15th January, 1869, they were attended with a satisfactory result of the system.

We must not lose sight of the fact, that snake-bite is not an ordinary ailment. In searching for a more efficient remedy, therefore, we are working in the right direction?

We have not space in our present issue to enter fully into this subject, which, however, he reserved for a subsequent issue.

THE JAILS AND JAIL SYSTEM OF INDIA.

A very important note on this subject has recently been published by the Home Department, and, as the volume may not be accessible to many of our readers, we propose to present to them an epitome of the whole question.

From the earliest settlement of the British in India, their prisons and prisons have ever been marked by the setting apart of the convicts to other prisoners. In the earliest period of our rule, the convicts being, as long as they were sane enough, were kept in the same place, and were in the benefit of their own work, and of the good countrymen in the Black Hole, who had previously been employed as a prison-moor the place, in that regard, and its situation and former use, no doubt, was considered the most suitable as a fit place to secure his captivity.

At the end of the last century, prisons in our possession in India were but only one or a pair with those in England, a type of everything that was miserable and pestiferous. Improvement seems to have been slow, and mainly attributable to want of system.

About 1810, the Sadler Nizamut Adawlut appear to have drawn up a code of rules for general guidance on jail management, and these continued in force, altered, perhaps, in different parts of the province to suit local aspects, or different opinions of civil officers, until the question was permanently taken up from the date on which the Home Secretary begins his review.

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The Indian Medical Gazette.

A MANUAL OF THE DISEASES OF THE EYE.

BY C. MACNAMARA, M.D.

London: W. B. Saunders, 1868.

Price, 10s.

WYMAN & Co., High Street, Chelsea.

It is requested that all communications should be sent to the Editor, at the office of the Indian Medical Gazette, No. 1, Strand, London, W. C.

WYMAN & Co., High Street, Chelsea.

The note is divided into the following 9 subjects:—

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|--|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Origin of history of Prison Administration. | 5. Classification. |
| 2. Jail buildings and the Cellular system. | 6. Discipline and general management. |
| 3. Inspection and superintendence. | 7. Finance. |
| 4. Health. | 8. Reformatives. |
| | 9. Accommodation. |

The most practical measures of prison reform were initiated by Lord Macaulay, in 1835, shortly after his arrival in India, as a member of the Indian Law Commission.

His minute on the subject states, that as the practice of flogging has been abolished, and the punishment of transportation has proved so expensive, imprisonment must principally be resorted to in India as the punishment of the law; and he therefore called the attention of the Council of India to the establishment of such institutions, as should "make imprisonment a terror to wrongdoers, and should, at the same time, prevent it from being attended by any circumstances shocking to humanity."

Sir C. Metcalfe, then acting as Governor-General, appointed a committee to inquire into the whole subject, comprised of men whose opinions would command respect in England, and some of the ablest representatives of the Civil Service. Their report was presented in July, 1838, and it has since been the standard authority on the principles of prison management and prison discipline.

The jails in Bengal, 30 years ago, would seem to have held no inferior position to those of more civilized countries. The committee state that, although the humanity of some points in the treatment of prisoners is doubtful, yet, generally, "the care that is taken of the physical condition of these unfortunate men, in their diet, exercise, cleanliness, attention to the sick, and the provision of food and clothing, appear to be highly honorable to the Government of British India." In fact, what was then the standard of prison reform in England, would seem to have been the state of prison discipline in India—a state in which the physical condition of the prisoners was looked to, but nothing more. In a prison was made rather a pleasant place of residence. "In a moral point of view also, Indian jails held a good place in comparison with other countries. "The mixture of debtors with criminals, which in some places still exists in England, and which was universal in North America, is unknown in any jail in India." The proportion of distinct civil jails to criminal jails is very honorable to the Government. The mixture of the two sexes in Indian prisons is unknown, and, in general, the separation of tried and untried prisoners is at least as good as in England as in other countries."

The general principles of Indian prison reform will be noted under the several heads of the note.

Previous to the appointment of Lord Macaulay's committee, the management of jails in India had been under the sudden court, zillah judges, and magistrates; but the individual efforts of the latter could not be looked upon as improvement; their time was taken up by more important business, and it was not until the appointment of a committee, especially for the purpose, as urged by the committee of 1838, that prison reform really began.

In 1844, under the administration of Mr. Thomason in the North-West Provinces, the first Inspector-General of Prisons, Mr. Waodeck, C. S., was appointed, whose object was "to effect an improvement in the regimen and discipline of the prisoners, a reduction in the periods of imprisonments, and at the same time a material mitigation of expense." A few years later, the Lieutenant-Governor was able to report that these objects had been

well gained, a comparison with the statistics of previous years showing that "the prisoners were generally more healthy; that they were better lodged, clothed, and fed; that jail discipline had much improved; and that the expenditure had been reduced."

On such good results following the experiment, the plan was made permanent in 1850; similar appointments were made in the Punjab in 1853, in Bengal and in the provinces of Madras and Bombay in 1854; more recently a special official has also been appointed to the minor administrations.

The next administrative reform that took place was also originated by the Government of the North-West Provinces, in 1850, by the assignment of civil surgeons to the entire management of the jails. "The general superintendence had, up to this time, been in the hands of the magistrate of the district; but as their work in their provinces increased, it was found they had not time to attend to the minutie of jail economy, and that some other agency was required. Civil surgeons, who had only been concerned in the medical and sanitary state of the prisoners, were now to have "the entire charge; and an allowance for the extra duty, with a small office establishment, was sanctioned."

This arrangement was confirmed experimentally by the Government of India in 1862, and was finally sanctioned in 1864, "when the local Government was able to show that, in every one of the twenty-five jails to which civil surgeons had been appointed, there had been improved discipline and economy."

Since the latter date, the principle has been adopted over the province of Bengal, and in the Governments of Madras and Bombay.

The first measure of administrative reform took place at the instance of Sir John Lawrence, in 1861, who, in a minute dated the 31st March, states—"The subject of jail discipline and the condition of prisoners in India appears to be a question which calls for earnest consideration," and he appointed a committee to report fully on the present state of jail discipline, and to suggest improvements in the management and treatment of prisoners.

In the Health Section, the "Indian Jail Committee" attribute to the highest sickness and mortality in jails to the following causes, and in their report they make suggestions for their removal or mitigation:—

Overcrowding, bad ventilation, conservancy, drainage, and want of sufficiency of clothing, sleeping on the ground, delinquency of personal cleanliness, exaction of labor from unfit persons, and insufficient medical inspection; their great points of advance of previous practice being that no central jail should be built for all prisoners sentenced to a term exceeding 2 or 3 years; should be built for more than 1,000 prisoners, and that the minimum space allotted to each prisoner should be 34 square and 64 cubic feet. They classify the introduction of such discipline into jails as shall tend to make imprisonment a really deterring punishment, under five heads, resting upon each: viz., superintendence, labor, rewards, punishments, education; and they note also upon other subjects, such as juvenile delinquency, and reformatories, female criminals, jail dietary, habitual offenders, tickets of leave, classification of convicts, salaries, fines, statistics, and the accommodation of European prisoners.

2. *Cellular buildings.* The provision of prison accommodation was coeval with the first settlement of the English in India. Imprisonment was not a punishment inflicted by native Govern-

of the kind of punitive measures were taken, more summary, and more satisfactory than a trial, and a prison rather than a court of law. So little of this "native and simple" system of native administration" appear to have been remarked upon, that in 1842, on application to the Court of Directors for a grant of 50 lakhs for the accommodation of British prisoners in India, the Secretary first desired to be informed of the manner in which European convicts had been imprisoned, and whether any of the convicts were to be longer, in any degree, available. The answer that it was meant, except in dungeons or at the houses of the Magistrate for political offences, was not a native system, but one sanctioned by a long detail of how prisoners were kept out of Mr. Rippey Saig's time, was accepted, and the accommodation sanctioned.

It is not within the scope of this article to relate the history of the present accommodation, or to show how convicts were housed and provided for from our earnest occupancy of the country; but it is to say that improvements in every stage have been going on ever since our first efforts, and that the recommendations of the Joint Prison Committee in 1864, as listed under the former recommendations, by defining the size of the prison, and increasing the amount of significant and active accommodation per man were largely to be expected and fulfilled by providing buildings to become up to their recommendations.

As in India we go in jails, the country is in a progressive stage, and while the present generation is acting up to the advanced state of knowledge on the subject, our successors may yet be upon us to be quite as inferior in action and practice, as we now have learnt to regard the first notions of reformation.

The recommendation for "central jails" emanated from the committee of 1864; one of this class was first established at Agra, in the North-Western Provinces in 1866, and the Inspector-General of Prisons was appointed to the street charge of it. In 1868, one was established at Bareilly and another at Agra. In the Punjab, the first central prison was established at Lahore in 1872, and similar buildings at Multan and Rawul Pir were at that date nearly finished.

The above two Governments appear to have taken the lead in prison construction, and at this present date the requirements of the North-Western Provinces are approaching completion, while in the Punjab some district jails are only required.

In the Government of Bengal, the Lieutenant-Governor reported in 1864 that "the principal jails appointed only by the Prison Committee of 1864, are existing, though in a dilapidated condition." A standard design for large jails in this province has, during the past few years, been recommended by the Government of India, and one has been provided for the commencement of the present year.

In the Government of the Straits, there appears to have been delay in the construction of jails, estimates for new jails being only made and some of them approved by the authorities. The central jail department has, however, in the past few years, been carried out in some parts of India, and for one of them, which would have been for financial and other reasons unobtainable.

In the Government of Mysore, two central prisons had been commenced in 1864 and 1867, of which one was completed in 1867, a second had been commenced, but was not finished, while the third was in progress. The same is the case of district jails,

as progress is made, and grants are made for the purpose from the annual budgets.

Prior to 1842, nothing appears to have been done in the province of Bombay towards building central prisons; one, however, has since been commenced in the Deccan.

In the Central Provinces, the Hyderabad of Assigned Districts, and in British Burma, some are completed, and others are well advanced.

"Thus it will be seen that great progress has been made in jail construction in all provinces, except Bombay and Bengal, since the report of the Jail Committee in 1842, and in the case of these two provinces, designs have at length been settled, so that they should now stand on a par with the rest."

A reference to all local Governments and Administrations was made at the instigation of the committee of 1864, to inform the "amount of existing jail accommodation, and the number of prisoners of all classes, for whom it was constructed, and to provide in each district." The replies showed that, while the average number of prisoners of all classes, at that time throughout India, was about 74,000, that, at the time of the report of the committee, no recommendation by the committee, an accommodation was only provided for 52,000. On this the Government of India sanctioned extensions and alterations in the plans of buildings then commenced, and lost no time in considering details of designs submitted for new buildings, being guided generally by the principles laid down by the committee of 1864, with certain modifications.

In the various States of India, and amid the peculiarities of available sites, local supply of materials, &c., what is a good plan of building for one part of the country must be greatly modified in another; but the general principle on which all jails in India, except in British Burma, are now constructed, is the radiating system, that is, blocks or lines of barracks, radiating from one central point, where a watch-tower surveys the whole. The buildings are generally of one story, the floor raised from three feet from the ground, each barrack about 18 feet broad, and intended to contain from 20 to 30 prisoners at the cubic and superficial space laid down by the Jail Committee, ample provision is made for ventilation, conservancy, &c. Buildings also exist for hostilities, quarters for officials, workshops, separate wards for females and juvenile offenders, affording complete separation between the different classes of solitary cells, every convenience for other officers, &c., &c., all of which are designed with the greatest care and well adapted with the greatest vigilance.

The estimated cost of jails which have been sanctioned during the past four years has varied from Rs. 190 to Rs. 577 per prisoner, including the value of convict labor."

(1). "The Cellular System." It is remarked in the note, that there are but generally two kinds of systems of imprisonment, 1st. "Complete isolation of the prisoner in a separate cell by day and night, without either of any kind, and without any communication with other prisoners or with prison officials."

2d. "Isolation by day and night in a separate cell, with labor and other instruction."

3d. "Isolation in a separate cell during the night, with labor in association with other prisoners during the day."

4th. "Association in labor by day and at night with other prisoners."

"Of the systems, the first was tried in America, but has long since been abandoned as unobtainable, dangerous to reason, and even

to life. The second is the system contemplated in the English Prison Act of 1865. The third is the system which has been advocated by some local Governments for introduction into India. The fourth, with certain modifications to be noted hereafter, is the existing system in India. For the purposes of this note, the first and second systems will be termed the solitary; the third, the separate system; and the fourth, the system of common imprisonment. Most of the local Governments in India advocate the introduction of the separate system. The Government of Madras is persuaded that no complete system of reformation is possible until each prisoner is provided with a separate sleeping cell; but the objection on the score of expense is admitted. The Government of Bombay considers the separate system to be undoubtedly the best, but to be delayed only on the score of expense. The Government of the North-Western Provinces seems satisfied with the existing system, under which, in those provinces, each prisoner has a separate, well elevated sleeping berth, measuring $6\frac{1}{2}$ by 2 by 2 feet, and is associated with other prisoners in labor by day. The Punjab Government strongly urges the immediate introduction of the separate system, and deprecates the objection on the score of expense. The Chief Commissioners of Oude and the Central Provinces, the Resident of the Hyderabad Assigned Districts, and the Commissioner of Mysore, appear to concur with the Government of the North-Western Provinces that separate sleeping berths are all that is required. The Chief Commissioner of British Burmah seems to agree with Dr. Flanck, the Inspector-General of that province, that solitary sleeping accommodation would cost a very large sum to provide, and would increase the mortality among the prisoners when provided. But the most strenuous advocate of the separate system is the Inspector-General of Jails in Bengal."

(To be continued.)

SEPTENNIAL EXAMINATIONS OF SUB-ASSISTANT SURGEONS.

IN accordance with a recent Government order, issued upon a recommendation by the Inspector-General of Hospitals, L.P., sub-assistant surgeons in this presidency are now to be examined as to the extent of their professional qualifications, on the termination of each of their septennial periods of service, by written questions from the professors of the Medical College. We publish, by the permission of Dr. Green, a set of questions on the several subjects, that sub-assistant surgeons may be made acquainted with the *nature* of the examinations to which they would henceforth be subjected. It will, of course, now be more than ever imperative upon sub-assistant surgeons, not only to keep up the knowledge which they acquired at college, but also to be familiar with the advances which are being made in each branch of the profession. The former will be very easy of accomplishment by an occasional perusal of their text books, and the latter need not be less difficult, if the monthly retrospects, which are (or ought to be) circulated throughout each circle, are carefully studied.

We have reason to hope that the above order will effect a marked improvement in the professional character of the entire body of the sub-assistant surgeons in this presidency, for we are too well aware that very many are apt to occupy themselves with literary pursuits which have no bearing whatever upon

medicine, to the detriment of their own reputation and of their patients. As a matter of course, questions emanating from the college professors, who are compelled—as teachers, if for no other reason—to keep themselves informed of the progress made in medical and surgical science, will be "stiffer" than what may be expected from medical officers who are engaged in practice only; and it is therefore fitting that the *crucial* tests at the septennial examinations should be applied by the professors. The examining committees will be convened as usual, and the members are expected to ascertain, by *visa voce* questions, general intelligence and acquirements of the candidates, and to report accordingly. On the score of uniformity, the new system is a decided improvement upon the one lately in force. The examinations will henceforth be *always* of the same searching character, as coming from men who are *accustomed* to teach and to examine. We fully believe that, after a time, after the first feelings of opposition shall have subsided, sub-assistant surgeons will accept the new system as a boon. A higher *professional* status, which they will henceforth acquire, will lead to an earlier recognition, on the part of Government, of professional merit, and so to an earlier bestowal of Government patronage in the shape of higher paid appointments.

We are aware that a feeling of discontent is abroad, and we are grieved to find that it is fostered by the editor of a journal for whom we would fain entertain a high respect. The editor is mistaken, however, in thinking that the sub-assistant surgeon alone is to be subjected to examinations *after* he has once been admitted into the service. The same rule is in force with respect to her Majesty's *assistant-surgeons*, who are examined for promotion to the rank of surgeon (on the completion of 10 years' service) by questions sent from England; and, by the Secretary of State's despatch of November 7th, 1864, No. 340, the medical officers on the Indian establishment are required to go through the same ordeal. We look forward to seeing it extended likewise to apothecaries and native doctors.

Let not sub-assistant surgeons be led into the belief that they are neglected, and that their very name is a disgrace. We have pointed out, in a former article, that they may look in confidence to a still further acknowledgment of good service beyond the concessions which have already been made; and we must remind them that the term *sub* is used in other high departments of the State, as well as their own, and in reference to officers who may hereafter fill some of the *highest* situations of trust under Government. If, however, the title of sub-assistant-surgeon be distasteful, we have no doubt that, upon a respectful memorial being submitted to Government, it would be changed for that of *native surgeon*, the term by which this class of medical officers is indicated in Madras. With *that* title we presume no fault would be found.

QUESTIONS IN SURGERY.

1. Describe the pathology of gangrene, and the different forms in which it occurs. Give an account of the causes, symptoms, and treatment of each form of the disease.
2. What is meant by acute angular curvature of the spinal column? Describe its causes, symptoms, pathology, treatment, and results.
3. What are the subsequent dangers from pathological changes to be apprehended in persons who have recently suffered from wounds, or undergone grave surgical operations?

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|---|-------|
| Professor of Medicine and Midwifery, and <i>ex officio</i>
Physician to the Hospital | 800 |
| Professor of Materia Medica* and Botany | 800 |
| Professor of Chemistry and Medical Jurisprudence, and
Chemical Examiner | 800 |
| Resident Surgeon† | 800 |
| Professor of Anatomy and Physiology | |
| Resident Physician‡ | 800 |
| Professor of Comparative Anatomy and Zoology, and
Curator of the Museum | |
| Registrar of Statistical Officer | 200 |
| Total | 6,800 |

We have, probably, in the estimation of those who are accustomed to look upon *teaching* as a *secondary* duty, fixed the salaries of the Principal and Professors too high. But we cannot too emphatically, and too earnestly, impress upon ourselves that our great mission in this country is the *education of the people*. And we must also remember that it is better not to educate at all than to do so imperfectly. "A little learning is a dangerous thing." Second-rate teaching will not answer. But first-rate teachers are not to be enlisted without adequate remuneration; and there is no lack of them. The assistant-surgeons of the Indian Medical Service who come to India now-a-days are, as a body, *professionally*, exceedingly well educated in a general way. Only let it be known at home that well-paid professorships at medical colleges are amongst the prizes of the Indian service, and students will qualify accordingly. Thus a further stimulus will be given to medical education for India. Not that we would urge the best-wal of those appointments upon young men sent on the schools; on the contrary, they should be offered as prizes to those who have distinguished themselves in their medical career; and of such there will doubtless be a multiplied number in after years.

We next come to the duties and pay of the native teachers, who hold the sub-assistant surgeon's rank. In the Medical College in Calcutta the students of the native doctor (*pr. ceethoo*), as it is now termed, the *hospital assistant*, class are, we venture to say, insufficiently taught. A few months ago, a well-known Commissioner drew attention to the very inferior professional qualifications of some of the young men whom he had met with in certain dispensaries in B. N. D. Shortly after the publication of this report a certain student of the *Englishman* (who was apparently familiar with the subject), replied that native doctors were only educated to be *barbers*! This, we fear, is too true. It is understood that the native doctors—little to be *relied on*—are to serve as assistants in regimental hospitals, and that their education in England would not qualify them for these subordinate situations. But the regimental native

doctor is occasionally the only person in the shape of a doctor with a detachment; and it is clear that unless he is qualified beyond the mere subordinate standard, he may not only be useless, but mischievous. It sometimes occurs that a native doctor of this class is required for the sole medical charge of a dispensary; to assume the functions, in fact, of a sub-assistant surgeon. There are a few men in the service who are qualified for such a charge, but they have qualified *themselves* after leaving college, and their fitness is, therefore, the result of personal effort, not of any educational system. Bearing in mind that these higher qualifications *may* be demanded of this class of native doctors, would it not be well to educate them accordingly?

But, there is educated at the Medical College in Calcutta yet another variety of native doctors composed of two classes:—one, the *apothecary class*, the students in which are intended to occupy subordinate positions in jails; the other, the *Bengalee class*, (both classes are composed of Bengalees,) in which the youths are educated up to a higher standard. *These are to become the village practitioners of Bengal*, though they too are employed, when required and available, as Government assistants, and the system adopted with them might be taken, so far as it goes, as a model for the instruction of *all* native doctors. We would, however, go even further, and raise the standard still higher. We proceed to state what this standard should be. In the first place, native doctors remain too short a time at college; three years are not sufficient, even to master the subjects which, at present, constitute the curriculum of study at the Medical College in Calcutta. This is the period fixed for all the classes. Under the new regulations bearing upon the training of hospital assistants, (of students intended for regimental hospitals—the native doctors of the military class in fact,) the youths are required to serve for two years in a military or civil hospital, after which they will be entered for two more years at the Medical College in Calcutta. Thus four years of professional education are secured. This is the *Mohus* system, and *there* it works well. We have every reason to hope that it will work equally well in this presidency, though we would extend the period of education from four to five years. We would give the same advantage, as to *time*, to both classes of the Bengalee native doctors. The youths of these classes might be attached, for two years, to dispensaries before entering the college. During this period of apprenticeship, so to speak, the character and qualifications of each youth should be carefully studied and kept in view by the European medical officer. Of course, the *selection* of the youths in the first instance must be carefully seen to. An unpromising youth should be unscrupulously rejected, whether at the commencement, or during the progress, of his apprenticeship.

We now proceed to the instruction given at the Medical College. It is presumed that the student has been instructed, as far as possible, in practical pharmacy, in materia medica, and in the minor operations of surgery, if not to the same extent, at least in the same direction; that the country gentleman in England is instructed, by what he would carry out, in a certain amount of elementary knowledge, to the college, and that the now employed there for his instruction might be employed on a day or two. The instruction given at the college should be very, very equal to that which is the result of the present system of assistant surgeonship. In another article

* Including practical Phlebotomy and Organic Analysis.
 † We would, if possible, have a greater number of chairs, in the *reg. serv.* of the medical school. Here, as elsewhere, there would be an increase in the number of students, and, in consequence, a greater number of hours' physical education should be demanded, as their studies would then completely occupy their time.
 ‡ The map of the country being taught might be entrusted to a responsible European clerk, or a young man, one of whom has left the army. European students would be encouraged, and encouraged to give to the natives a more thorough acquaintance with the principles and modes of seeking their health. We would, if possible, prefer the *reg. serv.* to the *reg. serv.* as an extra duty, as in India all officers already have *reg. serv.*—*Edw. J. M. G.*

ment, and the Government will be instructed to make, except in the case of the Government of Mysore. The Government will be empowered to appoint to the posts. Their salaries will be fixed by the Government, and will be paid by the Government. The Government will be empowered to make regulations which are necessary for the service of the hospitals, and will be empowered to make regulations which are necessary for the service of the hospitals. The Government will be empowered to make regulations which are necessary for the service of the hospitals, and will be empowered to make regulations which are necessary for the service of the hospitals.

In the re-organization of a college staff, the sub-assistant surgeons, who would act as assistants to the several professors of physiology and surgery, so long as we have side by side the "old" and the "new" classes. These will be given a special class, (although all would be taught together,) to be used as a supply hospital assistants for jails and native hospitals, and that which contains the embryo village practitioners.

1. Sub-assistant surgeon, who would have the same salary as the Professor of Surgery and Hygiene, and would be in charge of the hospital, with a salary of Rs. 1500 per annum.

- 1. Professor of Materia Medica, Botany, and Chemistry, Rs. 1500
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1. Sub-assistant surgeon attached to the hospital, who would have permanent, besides the pay of his post, a special allowance, Rs. 150, because, besides teaching on his own subject, he would give clinical instruction, *à la Pichot*. This is much more than is now made for a clinical lecture in a theatre. There would be three such teachers—the teachers of surgery, of anatomy, and of *botany*. Rs. 150

The Professor of Anatomy, Pathology, the mode of making Post-mortem Examinations, Chemistry, Materia Medica, and Botany, should receive Rs. 100 each per annum, besides the pay of their office. Rs. 100

The Professor of the wide subject of medicine would, therefore, receive Rs. 1500

The Professor of Surgery and Hygiene, the teachers of the Sub-assistant surgeons, and the teachers of the hospital, should receive Rs. 1500

The Professor of Materia Medica, Botany, and Chemistry, the teachers of the Sub-assistant surgeons, and the teachers of the hospital, should receive Rs. 1500

We would therefore be enabled to do the outline of a scheme for the organization of a medical college in the provinces of India, far removed from the metropolitan, where the local

medical establishments would be better organized, and could be utilized to a considerable extent, with reference to the requirements of the institution. The details of the scheme must be left in hereafter. We earnestly hope that the Government will establish a medical college in the North-Western Provinces, which has been a century ago an almost unpopulated spot, or seven years, which is a total gain. The Government will be empowered to make regulations which are necessary for the service of the hospitals, and will be empowered to make regulations which are necessary for the service of the hospitals. The Government will be empowered to make regulations which are necessary for the service of the hospitals, and will be empowered to make regulations which are necessary for the service of the hospitals.

LOCK HOSPITALS.

In a recent issue of our leading columns, an excellent article (communicated) on the subject of Lock Hospitals in Calcutta, to the sentiments expressed in which, with a single exception, (whereof it is not necessary now to speak), we gave our unqualified adhesion.

There is one point in connection with this subject to which we would wish to draw the attention of the Government of India. It is now universally admitted, as the result of long and bitter experience, that no department of state machinery, (in this country), which requires careful organization in the first instance, and unremitting supervision afterwards, is likely to be successfully managed without direct agency, responsible through the chief of the department to the supreme power. Not only should there be a single superintendent of the Lock Hospitals that are to be established in certain quarters of the city and suburbs, with executive subordinates under him, but he should be selected, and without other occupation. We can do justice to no question in medical science in India which requires for its full elaboration the undivided application of method, manner, and experience, because (so short-handed as the service) we cannot spare the men, who are already required for the ordinary routine work of the hospitals and dispensaries of the country. Is an enquiry sought for into the subject of entozoonism?—is a Medical College to be set on foot?—is a superintendent of Lock Hospitals suggested?—and the answer is ever the same, "No man can be set aside for special duties." And then follows the pernicious system of *doubleing up*, of burdening one labourer with the work of three or four. The present variety of educated medical officers of the establishment is a crying evil which, we have reason to believe, was brought to the notice of Sir John Lawrence. But the evil increases, and is sapping the strength of the service. It is possible that reference may have been made to the Secretary of State for India, in which would be pointed out the numerically defective condition of the Bengal Medical establishment,

* It is to be noted that the Professor of Materia Medica, Botany, and Chemistry, should have two assistants, one of whom would be in charge of the hospital, and the other would be in charge of the laboratory. The Professor of Materia Medica, Botany, and Chemistry, should have two assistants, one of whom would be in charge of the hospital, and the other would be in charge of the laboratory.

and the difficult complications which spring out of it; and the remedy *may* be in the "womb of time;" but, if not, we implore our new Viceroy to look into the question, and—act. Not only is one medical man unable to leave an inferior appointment to take up another which is more lucrative, not only does the victim of circumstances in robust health think of a medical certificate with which to secure leave to England which he *ought* to have on private affairs, and not only is it impossible for the head of the medical department to meet the requirements of local Governments for competent medical officers for even the medical charge of civil stations,—not only do these inconveniences result from the fact of there being medical men enough in the country,—but, as we said before, medical science is threatened with stagnation. A cholera hospital is suggested for the study and possible eradication of the greatest pest of modern times. There are neither men nor money, is the reply? A fine opportunity occurs for the study of the syphilitic poison. There are to be several hospitals, each to contain some 300 patients, and at which are to be examined some 700 or 800 women daily. What a field! Here is an opening for a Ricord or a Henry Lee. Doubtless, in the medical service of this presidency alone, there might be found men, any one of whom would, possessing the required administrative ability, judgment, and tact, and having cultivated the specialty, be an admirable superintendent to *organize* and to *establish* hospitals of this delicate nature in Calcutta. It is not *every* man that would be suitable for the post. We sincerely trust that there will be no "dumbling up." If this measure be decided upon, if the appointment of Superintendent of the Lock Hospitals in Calcutta be conferred upon a medical officer who is already occupied with other duties, and who, probably, has no taste for this, we must not be surprised if the work is done in a perfunctory manner, and therefore *ill done*. It has been whispered to us that the Government fiat *has* gone forth, and that there is *not* to be a special Superintendent. But (we say it with all respect) the laws of the Imperial Government need not of necessity resemble that ancient code which underwent no change. Rather let them resemble the opinions of one of England's greatest orators, which he never hesitated to alter if good reason were shown. May we venture to indulge the hope that *if* the question which forms the subject of our article *has* been disposed of, it may be re-opened and again dealt with, and that, if satisfactory proof be given of the benefit to be derived from the appointment of a special Superintendent of Lock Hospitals, the appointment will be created.

THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL'S SURGEON.

IN this country the Ruling Power is at liberty to choose the fittest physician, and no one can object to the arrangement. At the same time the members of the various departments of the State have an interest in the selection. The health of their chief is dear to them; and they are, therefore, anxious that it should be placed in good keeping. Moreover, the medical department of the State, notwithstanding that it may have an independent organization and action of its own, should feel the kindly influence of the State physician for whom its welfare and its progress ought to possess a special interest. The head of our department governs his own service, of course, quite independently of any other power; still, the Viceroy

Body Surgeon (as he is called) should be intimately acquainted with its machinery, and be able to help the Viceroy with valuable information respecting it, when required to do so. With this being, in the remotest degree, the adviser or referee on medical questions, he may yet, occasionally, give an opinion based on his own experience; whilst he should be qualified to discuss all medical questions brought before the Government, whether by the head of the medical department or in any other way. The appointment of "Surgeon to the Governor-General in India" is something more than a mere *private* appointment; and we venture to assert that its delicate functions were, though unostentatiously, fulfilled by the late incumbent. Who his successor may be, we are not very sure. Names have been mentioned, but only, we presume, to raise a smile. It is whispered that a medical officer is to be summoned from a sister presidency, and not from the Indian service, out of whose body the appointment has *always*, we believe, hitherto been made. A new Viceroy is naturally unacquainted with the usual course of procedure in this matter; but he should be informed by his immediate councillors of what is the practice; and what a grievous disappointment to the old medical service of India it would be if the Viceroy's surgeon were to be one whose career has been out of Bengal, whose interests are not there, and whose functions, therefore, would be imperfectly, and so unsatisfactorily, performed.

FAR be it from us to write in a querulous or a dictatorial spirit. But, as representing the current of medical opinion in this presidency, we should fail in our duty if we hesitated to give expression to those feelings of mingled surprise and regret with which the profession sees one of the greatest prizes of the service—the high appointment of surgeon to the Governor-General of India—conferred upon a stranger.

CUI BONO?

It has been recently stated, in one of the local newspapers, that from the 1st April next the Sanitary Commission for India is to be transferred from the military to the civil authorities, and will, in that case, be under the Home Department, and, therefore, under the administration of the member of Council who presides over that office under the Governor-General.

If the movement involved in this change was merely nominal, no notice need be taken of it; but it is the feeling of a large body of the medical service that it is but another form of separating the sanitary from the medical administration of the country; as such, it is viewed with very great distrust, and believed to be fraught with great danger to the organization of the medical department.

Sanitary work in India has ever been propounded and supervised by medical officers. Dr. Gordon's recent account of sanitary work among British troops, dating back forty years, is very valuable; and, as a recent memorandum states, "should the history of the Royal and Bengal medical departments ever be written, it would be shown that for many years past they have steadily advocated and promoted sanitary improvement in India; and that many individual members of the Royal and Bengal services have been foremost in the good work."

When the whole medical administration of the British Army was re-organized in 1858, under the presidency of Lord H. Russell, he advocated the establishment of an army medical department

attendant and adviser of Viceroyalty in India shall be taken from their ranks. In the recent *General Orders relating to the Bengal Medical Service*, lately published by Messrs. Wynn & Co., at page 19, we find G. O. No. 370 of 14th April, 1867, which, in accordance with instructions received from the Right Hon'ble the Secretary of State for India, "lays down the following revised scale of consolidated salaries for officers of her Majesty's Indian Medical Service." Beginning with the Inspector-General, we have the salaries of various officers of the administrative staff laid down; and we find, amongst the salaries for officers of her Majesty's Indian Service, that of the appointment of "Surgeon to the Viceroy and Governor-General." From this it is clear that the order in question implies that the Surgeon to the Viceroy shall be chosen from her Majesty's Indian Medical Service. It has been so in the past, and it ought still to be so. The appointment of Dr. Fayer, will doubtless be hailed with satisfaction by every member of our service. It would be impossible to find any one more fitted, by the ascendancy of his character and the respect in which he is universally held, for the post of honorary Surgeon to the Viceroy. I say *honorary Surgeon* advisably, inasmuch as Dr. Fayer will not reside at Government House, and will officiate as "Surgeon to the Viceroy, in addition to his other duties." It appears clear from this that there yet remains to be filled an, in due time, the regular appointment on the staff. Indeed, there are certain grounds for the belief that a gentleman from the ranks of the Royal Medical Department is likely ultimately to fill the post of private surgeon. Far be it from me to endeavor to create any spirit of faction between the sister services, whose interests and aims are of a kindred character. On the contrary, my kindly and noble feelings ever exist between the members of the Royal and of the local medical services! My such feelings never be marred by paltry jealousies! In writing this—which one does most honestly—there is, I believe, no reason why we should not express, without disguise, the opinion that the members of the Indian Medical Department would be stung with disappointment were they to forget the high privilege of serving on the Viceroy's staff. It could not but be with regret that we should see the numerous and distinctions, to which, as a service, we believe we are entitled, passing beyond our reach. The men whose eager services have at all times been available, without stint, for the mitigation of the evils of war in India; they who have devoted themselves to science in this country, and to profound self-denial in the cause of practical philanthropy amongst its people, cannot but know how to value the approbation of the State, and the rewards bestowed for honorable services. It would simply be foolish to affect to despise or depreciate the recognition of public merit by our rulers. Let us therefore hope that Earl Mayo will not forego the present opportunity of doing simple justice, and at the same time paying a well-merited compliment to a department which has ever been animated by feelings of honorable pride regarding its professional status which is its due. As I wrote above, it is not that we gudge the medical officers of the Royal Army any possible good fortune which they can fairly enjoy; very far from it. Yet we are naturally averse to seeing precedents established which must be regarded with extreme disfavor by the officers of the *local* Indian Medical Service, who would thus experience the painful consciousness of being displaced of one of their most honorable appointments. It is argued by some that he whom his Excellency the Viceroy may believe to understand his constitution best must of necessity be the most fitting man for the post of private surgeon. The question, however, is clearly one of wider scope. Of two men equally able, why should not the Indian officer be selected, as heretofore? I submit that those who have served with reputation and success in India, and who have faced the disadvantages of continual exile in this country, not uncharitably desire and expect to enjoy the distinctions which have heretofore attached to such conditions of service. On this principle it is that I, for one, should be very sorry to see the members of the Bengal Medical Department deprived of rank, furnishing, from their ranks, the private surgeon to the Viceroy of India. There would appear to be really no good reason why they should be subjected to any abridgment or disappointment in such a matter; and they would certainly be wanting in self-respect and magnanimity were they indifferent to the fact of State favor passing away from their midst without good cause. Were any but an Indian officer appointed as the Viceroy's Surgeon, I believe that the nomination would be resented

in every Indian civil station and regiment. Without desiring to imply that local medical officers care to hang obsequiously upon the favor of the great, it is yet impossible to ignore the important distinction between sycophancy and proper professional pride. A post of elevation and great trust which it has heretofore been the privilege of an Indian officer to fill, should surely not be allowed to pass to others without very good grounds for such an altered system of patronage. Indeed, I feel convinced that the introduction of such a precedent could only produce widespread heart-burning and discontent. Let us therefore trust that the ambition of our service is in no respect doomed to be lulled or blighted; but that, on the contrary, his Excellency the Viceroy may see fit to afford its members every reason to cherish that spirit of magnanimous rivalry for posts of honor which has in the past been the unspringing of great part of their public usefulness, and the secret of their best service achievements.

I am, sir, yours truly,
SPECTATOR.*

* We have published this letter at the request of our gifted and valued correspondent, though we venture to think that, as the subject has been dealt with in our editorial columns, it is unnecessary. And we beg to be distinctly understood, that we neither endorse all the sentiments expressed, nor can we approve of the general tone of the letter, which is written somewhat in a spirit of resentment, and of "service" indignation. If there is one man more than another, who is anxious to conciliate public opinion, at our present Viceroy, what has done so has been, we are sure, the result of deference, and no one would more deeply regret a false step than he would. To take up a position of resentment, therefore, is to assume an attitude which is hardly suitable to the occasion.—*Ed., I. M. G.*

Progress of the Medical and Collateral Sciences.

Animal Life at Great Depths in the Ocean.—On Thursday night, December 17th, 1868, Dr. B. W. Carpenter read to the Royal Society of London his report on the recent dredging exploration undertaken by him and Professor Wylie Thomson at the instance of the Government. The results obtained by the eminent physiologist are very remarkable, and completely upset the dictum of the late Edmund Forbes, that animal life ceases at a depth of eighty fathoms. Dr. Carpenter let down his dredge in water off the Faroe Islands of a depth of about 650 fathoms, and when he hauled it up he found it not only full of living creatures, but that these presented types of many genera and species, and in some respects recalled the littoral fauna of warm climates like the Mediterranean. At another point in their expedition, the dredge was let down in nearly equal deep water, at a point about midway between the Faroe Islands and the north-west of Scotland. Here, when drawn up, the dredge was not found to contain many individual or specific forms, and those which did present themselves were almost all of an arctic type. Now this is not the most remarkable fact. What is more singular, though more in accordance with *a priori* reasoning, is the fact that at the sea-bottom, from which the first faunula was taken, the water had a temperature of about 45° Fahrenheit, while the temperature of the water on the second sea-bed was 32° over the usual freezing point. This touches the important question, at what point does sea-water find its greatest density, for distilled and fresh water find its greatest density. Since it is clear that the densest water must be at the bottom, the greatest density of sea-water must be at or about freezing point; and it seems that the researches of physicists bear this view out. Many new species of invertebrates have been discovered by Dr. Carpenter, and among others, certain shells which were thought to be extinct, and are only known in some of the Sicilian Tertiary deposits.

Acetate of Potash in Gastric Catarrh.—In the *Bulletin Générale de Thérapeutique* for November 30th, there is an excellent theoretical article by M. le Professeur Gosselin, in which the author expresses the belief that the above salt is one of the most valuable of our preparations for the mucous affections of the stomach and digestive canal. He gives cases of acute and chronic dyspepsia, (and in one the catarrh of the stomach was accompanied by acute hepatitis) which were rapidly cured by the employment of the acetate. He mentions, however, that while this salt is not only useful in reducing

of the eye, and the eye itself is not so much affected as in the case of the other eye. The eye is not so much affected as in the case of the other eye.

Etiology of Cholera.—A recent writer has shown that cholera is a disease of the small intestine, and that the bacteria which cause it are found in the water of the small intestine. He also shows that the bacteria which cause cholera are found in the water of the small intestine.

Cholera in America.—In a recent number of the *Medical Record*, Dr. J. C. Deane, of New York, has shown that cholera is a disease of the small intestine, and that the bacteria which cause it are found in the water of the small intestine.

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Ergotine as a Prophylactic against Diphtheria.—M. Ozanam has shown that ergotine is a prophylactic against diphtheria. He has shown that ergotine is a prophylactic against diphtheria.

The Treatment of Goitre.—A recent writer has shown that the treatment of goitre is best effected by the use of iodine. He has shown that the treatment of goitre is best effected by the use of iodine.

The Treatment of Goitre.—A recent writer has shown that the treatment of goitre is best effected by the use of iodine. He has shown that the treatment of goitre is best effected by the use of iodine.

Operation of the Crystalline Lens.—A recent writer has shown that the operation of the crystalline lens is best effected by the use of iodine. He has shown that the operation of the crystalline lens is best effected by the use of iodine.

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The Correction of the Eye.—A recent writer has shown that the correction of the eye is best effected by the use of iodine. He has shown that the correction of the eye is best effected by the use of iodine.

The Correction of the Eye.—A recent writer has shown that the correction of the eye is best effected by the use of iodine. He has shown that the correction of the eye is best effected by the use of iodine.

The Structure of the Prostate Gland.—The structure of the prostate gland has been described by Dr. H. H. Kelly, of New York. He has shown that the prostate gland is a gland of the male sex, and that it is situated in the male sex.

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Operation for Cystitis.—In the *Practitioner*, for July, 1898, Dr. J. C. Deane has shown that the operation for cystitis is best effected by the use of iodine. He has shown that the operation for cystitis is best effected by the use of iodine.

Methyl-Styphenium and Allied Compounds.—In a memoir published in the *Revue* (November 1900), M. M. L. de la Cour has shown that methyl-styphenium is a compound of the male sex, and that it is situated in the male sex.

Ergotine after Amputation.—If we are to believe some recent statements of M. L. de la Cour, the mortality after amputation is diminished by the use of ergotine. He has shown that the mortality after amputation is diminished by the use of ergotine.

The Effects of Resection of the Nerves.—M. M. Aubin and Dr. J. C. Deane have shown that the results of nervous experiments on the resection of the nerves are best effected by the use of iodine. He has shown that the results of nervous experiments on the resection of the nerves are best effected by the use of iodine.

A New Cure for Cataract.—A French physician, M. Dr. J. C. Deane, has shown that a new cure for cataract is best effected by the use of iodine. He has shown that a new cure for cataract is best effected by the use of iodine.

A New Cure for Cataract.—A French physician, M. Dr. J. C. Deane, has shown that a new cure for cataract is best effected by the use of iodine. He has shown that a new cure for cataract is best effected by the use of iodine.

THE HISTORY OF CHOLERA.

(Continued from page 30.)

ALTHOUGH it is impossible to fix the date and circumstances of the advent of cholera into England in 1853-54, we may with advantage consider its progress in certain localities, as for instance in Newcastle, which suffered most severely during this epidemic.

The Tyne, as is well known, is a tidal river, and during its flow it carried the sewage of Newcastle as far as Elswick, where, in 1853, the open culvert of the water company supplying the town was situated. A large drainage area at Whittle Dean had usually yielded water for the purposes of the company; but early in 1854 the supply from this locality having been partially cut off, the company took upon themselves to pump water directly from the Tyne at Elswick, into the town: the inhabitants of Newcastle were constantly, therefore, imbibing water contaminated with the filth of their own dirty city. We may conceive the nature of this drinking water when it is stated that no less than two-thirds of the population of Newcastle were without privies, and the filth accumulating in the streets was washed down into the river by the rain, and as already explained, carried up in a diluted form to Elswick, to be re-distributed to the inhabitants of the town for domestic purposes. Supposing cholera to have existed in Newcastle, it is evident the deposits of those affected, would very probably under these circumstances, have found its way into the intestinal canal of the unfortunate townspeople; the more so, as directly cases of the disease occurred, the authorities betook themselves vigorously to washing and flushing out all the drains and dirty holes in the place, thereby increasing the chances of cholera fomes finding their way into the river, to be consumed by the population. It is quite certain the drinking water contained organic matter, for Dr. Thomson found it in abundance by analysis, and considered it probable a portion of it consisted of human excrements. And Mr. Furness, during the height of the epidemic, exhibited a bottle of drinking water to the guardians of the city of "a most noxious quality." I may observe, however, in passing, that although this impure water was consumed from May till the end of August, 1854, it did not generate cholera among the inhabitants of the place up to that time.

On the 23rd of August, a woman living at Bill Quay, where cholera was known to exist, was attacked with diarrhoea. She proceeded to Newcastle by steamer, and the case was declared to be one of cholera on the 31st of August. On the 1st of September, 3 deaths from cholera were reported in the town; and by the 15th, Mr. Grainger states, the disease "was epidemic" in the city. On the 12th there were 59 deaths, and on the 15th no less than 149 individuals fell victims to the disease. In the meantime, the scandalous proceedings of the water company had been discovered, and on the 15th of the month the supply of water to the town from the Tyne was stopped. From that date, the cholera began to diminish.* On the 25th the deaths had fallen to 75 per diem, and on the 30th to 16, after which not more than four deaths occurred on any one day.

A still more remarkable instance of the kind is Dr. Snow's well-known Broad-street case, which was one among many of a succession of partial local outbreaks of the disease, which have always been one of its marked features, attributable, by the majority of authorities at the time, to "the localizing cause" of an "epidemic or pestilential constitution of the season."†

It appears that among the sub-districts of St. Ann's, Golden Square, the mortality from cholera in 1854 was no less than 128 for every 10,000 persons, while the general cholera-rate of the metropolis was only 60 to the same number.

The district was not situated on a low level, nor were its inhabitants very poor; it had enjoyed a peculiar exemption from disease up to the time of the outbreak of cholera.

A child who had been ill with cholera, or choleraic diarrhoea for three or four days, died at No. 40, Broad-street, on the 24th September, 1854, and it was ascertained that the child's feces had been emptied into a cesspool situated only three feet from the well of the public pump in Broad-street, from which most of the surrounding people took their supply of water. It was further discovered that the bricks of the cesspool were loose, and allowed its contents to drain into the pump well.‡ On the night of the 31st of August, cholera broke out among the inhabitants of Broad-street, the greater number of cases occurring on the 1st of September. On the following day the attacks fell from 144 to 116, and the day after to 44; by the 12th of the month it had almost subsided. Dr. Snow and the Reverend J. Whitehead investigated the circumstances of this case with the greatest care, nor have the facts they brought forward ever been disproved. These gentlemen affirm:—"It was found that nearly all the persons who had the malady during the first few days of the outbreak drank of the water from the Broad-street pump, and that very few who drank of this water during those days escaped having cholera." In the weekly returns of deaths for September 9th, the following was recorded as occurring in the Hampstead district:—"At West End, on 2nd September, the widow of a percussion-cap maker, aged 59 years; diarrhoea two hours, cholera epidemic sixteen hours." Dr. Snow was informed by this lady's son that she had formerly resided in Broad-street, but had not been in the neighbourhood for many months. A cart went from Broad-street to West End every day, taking out, among other things, a large bottle of water filled from the pump in Broad-street, the lady in question preferring this to any other water. The bottle of water was carried out to Hampstead as usual on Thursday the 31st of August, and she drank some of it that evening, and more on the following day. She was seized with cholera on the evening of the latter day, and died on Saturday. A niece, who was on a visit to this lady, also drank the water; she returned to her residence, in a high and healthy part of Islington, was attacked with cholera and died. There was no cholera at the time either at West End or in the neighbourhood. Besides these two persons, only one servant partook of the water at Hampstead, West End, and she did not suffer, or only to a slight extent. On examining the Broad-street pump water, Dr. Snow found it to contain organic matter in the form of "small white flocculent particles," which, Dr. Hassall thought, "resulted from the decomposition of other matters."

With regard to this remarkable case, the committee appointed by the Board of Health to conduct a scientific enquiry into the circumstances of the epidemic of 1854, remark:—"It seems probable that the water of this well did really act as a vehicle of choleraic infection"; but (assuming the absence of fallacy in the case) this probability might easily be admitted, without its reference resulting that infection depended on the specific material alleged by (Dr. Snow). The water was undeniably impure, with organic contamination; and we have already argued that if, at the time of epidemic invasion, there be operating in the air some influence which converts putrefiable impurities into a specific poison, the water of the locality, in proportion as it contains such impurities, would probably be liable to similar poisonous conversion. The committee argue:—"If, therefore, the specific

* Report of Committee for Scientific Enquiries into the Cholera of 1854, p. 55.

† Lambert, Vol. II, 1855, p. 156.

‡ *Mode of Communication of Cholera*, by Dr. J. Snow, Second Edition, London, 1855, pp. 14-15.

§ Report of Committee for Scientific Enquiries into the Cholera Epidemic of 1854, p. 54.

* Report on the Cholera Epidemic of 1866 in England, by the Registrar-General, p. 5530.

† Dr. E. H. Greenhow on Cholera, *Medical Chirurgical Review*, 1857, p. 62.

ferment can only act where it meets with suitable local conditions. According to this authority, a special heaven sets up a zymosis or decomposition in the impure soil itself, and the poison of cholera is generated from this earthy fermentation. While, therefore, he considered the presence of a special ferment as essential to the production of a cholera epidemic, he also insisted upon the existence of certain local peculiarities. These he supposed to consist of a damp subsoil, sufficiently porous to be penetrable by the decomposition products of human and animal excrements. He was of opinion that it was only in such a soil, thoroughly impregnated with this peculiar organic matter, that the special cholera poison is generated.

Hence, as Dr. Greenhow observes, Professor Pettenkofer asserts the susceptibility or in-susceptibility of towns, for a cholera epidemic is in exact proportion to their soil relations. The difference between the mortality from cholera in the upper and lower terraces of London he attributed to the dry gravelly soil of the former, which allowed all the impure matters for decomposition to gravitate towards the moist, closer soil of the lower levels, where it underwent a much slower decomposition. Single cases may occur, Dr. Pettenkofer says, in towns or houses whose foundations are built on a rock, but never epidemics; and any exceptions to this rule will, upon closer examination, be found more apparent than real. Arguing upon this presumed fact, he abandoned all ideas of air and water as the nidus of cholera, and sought for it in the soil alone.*

The ferment supposed by Dr. Pettenkofer to be necessary to set up the peculiar decomposition of which cholera poison forms one of the products, is the matter of the dejections of cholera patients. His notion was that the cholera germ-bearing excrement which spreads itself in the damp porous soil already impregnated with fecal matters, produced by means of the fine division which it there underwent, such a modification in the process of putrefaction and decomposition, that, in addition to the gases usually formed, a cholera miasma was produced, which became diffused through the atmosphere of dwellings in common with other exhalations. Thus, although the cholera miasma was formed in the ground, the air was the vehicle for its transmission to the patient. He considered the dejecta of persons suffering from diarrhoea or cholerae equally capable of producing the pestilence as the cholera dejections.

In confirmation of his theory, Dr. Pettenkofer gives the following history of the introduction of cholera into the convict prison of Ebraich, where both the male and female prisoners were attacked, whilst the officials, a company of soldiers quartered there as a guard, and the inhabitants of the adjoining village, entirely escaped. In the first place, however, we may notice that the "necessary" accommodation of the prison consisted chiefly of wooden night stools.† Such privies as existed for the use of the prisoners emptied themselves into a stream, which, cutting at the women's division, ran through the institution, and passed out at the men's side. The privies in the female division were thoroughly bad, the brickwork through all the floors being impregnated with excrement; "the stink was pestilential one," and the excrements were conveyed from the privies to the ditch by means of wooden spoons. Into this very objectionable jail a prisoner was brought on the 20th of August, suffering from diarrhoea, which soon became developed into cholera. On the 27th, the man who attended him took ill of cholera and died; an epidemic spread through the jail, affecting the male and female division equally, although there had been no inter-communication between them, except through the officials of the place, all of whom remained free of the disease. But among the females it was discovered the first case occurred in a woman who had washed the linen of the patient admitted into the prison with cholera.

There were 600 prisoners, arranged in classes, between which there was little communication, yet the disease showed itself speedily throughout all parts of the prison, reached its climax in the men's ward on the 10th of September, and then declined, having carried off about ten per cent. Dr. Pettenkofer attributed the outbreak to the fermentation set up in the excreta brought into the jail by the first case, and which were thrown into a large cess-pit in the garden, and the badly arranged "necessaries" of the women's department, into which all the dejections were emptied.

The same author also mentions the fact of cholera having been introduced into the prison of Kulsheim in 1854 by two prisoners. Nothing could have been worse, he says, than the hygienic state of this jail, but the stools of the cholera cases, and all others, were subjected to disinfection, and not a case of cholera occurred among the other prisoners.

The same phenomena were observed at Traunstein, in Bavaria, when sulphate of iron was employed as the disinfecting agent, and the disease in every instance contained itself, contrary to its usual habit, with the first victim. In England Dr. Bull used similar means, and with admirable effect to stop an outbreak of cholera at Horfield Barracks, near Bristol. He recommended that the dejecta of all the patients should be received into vessels containing a strong solution of chloride of lime, that the soiled linen should be burnt, latrines disinfected, the troops to be kept under constant observation, so as to catch the disease in its first stage, and lastly that the men should be prevented from wandering from their barracks into infected localities.

The above are a few among many cases of the kind recorded during the epidemic of 1853-54, not only as evidence of the value of disinfectants in cholera epidemics, but as proving the direct influence exercised by cholera dejecta in causing the spread of the disease.

Another class of cases occupied the attention of several observers during the epidemic of 1854, from which it was intended to demonstrate not only that the feces of cholera patients generated cholera in otherwise healthy people, but that articles of clothing soiled with these dejecta might induce a similar result. I have already referred to a case in point related by Sir J. Simpson, which occurred at Moor Monkton, in 1832. In 1854, cholera was not known in the county of Bedford, when it broke out in the village of Ridgmount, and eleven cases occurred, all of which were fatal. It was ascertained that the first case occurred in a man whose son had died of cholera in London a week or two before, and whose clothes were sent down to the country. The poor man unwrapped the bundle of clothes himself, was seized with the disease and died; his case was the nucleus of the others.† An instance of a similar nature was reported from Lustheim, near Munich, where the first case of cholera was generated in the house of a labourer, one of whose daughters was in service in Munich. The latter sent her parents' clothes belonging to a family, some members of which had just died of cholera. These old clothes were at once appropriated and worn. Three days afterwards (September 21st, 1854), the father and mother were seized with cholera and died; on the 22nd and 25th other members of the family took the disease.

Sjur Nielsen, when out fishing, was moored to a small island, on which several bodies of persons who had died of cholera lay unburied. A few days afterwards, four cases occurred among men in his boat. Before Nielsen returned home, fearing infection he changed his clothes; he remained with his family for one day only; on the following morning he left for Bergen.

* Dr. Greenhow on Cholera, *Mexico-Chirurgical Review*, 1857, pp. 139, 140, 37, 38.

† *Ibid.*, p. 77.

* *Communicable Cholera Conference*, Calcutta, 1868, p. 41.
† *Communicable Cholera and Miasmata*. By Dr. J. Barker, M.R.S., London, 1868, p. 149.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

INDIAN EXPERIENCES OF LITHOTRITY.

BY J. B. SCRIVEN,

Principal, Lahore Medical School.

HAVING published in the numbers of the *Indian Medical Gazette* for August and October, 1868, a brief account of thirty-three cases of lithotripsy at the medical school hospital at Lahore, I now add a tabular statement of seven more, making the number forty since 1861, of which 18 have been during the last two years, 1867 and 1868. All of these seven were successful except one, that of an old man, who could not have lived under any circumstances. He got diarrhoea soon after the operation, and gradually sank, without any new symptoms referable to the bladder.

After death, his kidneys were found enlarged and fatty, their pelvis dilated, inflamed, and containing pus. In the bladder there were five stones, varying from 1 inch to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch in their long diameter; one of these had been broken into large fragments by the lithotrite. The bladder was much thickened, and its mucous membrane injected; the middle lobe of the prostate was greatly enlarged, and projected upwards into the bladder. The mucous membrane of the urethra was ulcerated, and even in a sloughy condition in some places; and, about its middle, was a faceted calculus, half an inch in diameter. The bladder contained about six ounces of urine. The other six cases were ordinary ones, and the stones of moderate size.

One principal object in the present communication is to supply a deficiency in the former papers, in which, it will be remembered, I had no very useful information to supply from my own practice as to the time the lithotrite ought to remain in the bladder.

In the seven cases now under consideration, the time has been carefully noted in several instances, so that some deductions can be drawn. These are certainly not too favourable; for, in some of the patients, especially Kahun Sing, there was unusual difficulty in catching the stone, which was generally found sunk down into a hollow behind the prostate gland. The tabular form given below, is the same as in the last paper, except that the column of remarks has been cut up into three, referring to the time the instrument was in the bladder. I may mention here that the shortest time in these cases was 45 seconds, and the longest 4 minutes and 37 seconds, a very unusual period. It appears from the table that in the case of Peer Bakhsh five pieces were crushed in 1 minute and 15 seconds, which gives 15 seconds to each piece.

Furthermore, the period that these cases were under treatment was less than is usual in lithotomy, with the exception of the last case, Khoda Bakhsh. Taking the six cases that recovered, the shortest period was eight days, and the longest thirty-seven, the average being twenty days, which, I believe, is less than the average of any successive six cases of lithotomy that could be collected from the records of any hospital in India, counting from the day of operation till the wound in the perineum was completely healed. Thus, one great objection raised to the practice of lithotripsy in this country, *viz.*, the protraction of the treatment, did not exist in these cases, and, with good instruments and proper selection of cases, seems to me likely to disappear in the vast majority of instances.

The fifth case, Jaga, was once in hospital before; but there is no doubt that on this second occasion he was suffering from a fresh stone, and not from any remnant of the former one, for

he persistently declared that he had remained perfectly well, and been able to run, jump, and perform any active exercise after his discharge on March 4th, till a fortnight or three weeks previous to his second admission on October 19th.

I have heard the objection raised to lithotripsy, that there could be no certainty of the last fragments having been removed. That this is more difficult to ascertain than in lithotomy, must be admitted, but, surely, the total absence of symptoms for seven months is sufficient evidence of cure. Neither operation, of course, can alter the diathesis, and it must be well known to all surgeons of large experience in lithotomy that it is no unusual thing for a second stone to form after the first has been removed by a *cutting* operation.

| Quantity of detritus collected. | grains. | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|
| | 42 | 133 | 26 | 100 | 29 | ... | 220 |
| Average number of pieces crushed on the occasions on which the time was noted. | 4 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 3 | ... | 6 |
| Average time the instrument was in the bladder in the same operations. | S. 24 | 1 30 | 15 | 48 | 1 43 | 1 40 | ... |
| Number of operations in which the time the instrument was in the bladder was noted. | M. 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | ... |
| Result. | Cured | Do. | Do. | Do. | Do. | Died | Cured |
| Composition of Stone. | U. | U. | ... | P. | P. | P. | U. |
| Duration of treatment. | 15 days | 21 " | 8 " | 29 " | 13 " | 7 " | 37 " |
| Number of operations. | 3 | 5 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 1 | 9 |
| Date of first operation. | June 27, 1865 | July 7, " | Sept 15, " | Oct. 14, " | Octo. 21, " | Deco 31, " | Nov. 25, " |
| Size of Stone. | 4 inch. | " | " | " | " | " | " |
| Sex. | Male. | Do. | Do. | Do. | Do. | Do. | Do. |
| Age. | 69 | 43 | 28 | 45 | 31 | 69 | 49 |
| NAME. | Kammas, Hospital Register No. p. 171 | Mahomed Deen, xiii, p. 61 | Peer Bakhsh, xv, p. 176 | Kahun Singh, xiii, p. 131 | Jaga, xv, p. 149 | Bandy, xiii, p. 113 | Ki. B. Pak-b, xiii, p. 134 |
| Number. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Lahore, February 18th, 1869.

SUMMARY OF FIFTY POST-MORTEM EXAMINATIONS OF INFANTS.

By KENNETH McLEOD, A.M., M.D., F.R.C.S.E.

Continued from p. 67.

TABLE.

| No. | General Condition | External Appearances. | III. | | | IV. | | | | | | |
|-----|------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------|--|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|--|
| | | | Skull | Cranium | Brain, &c. | Trachea & Lungs | Pericardium | Right Lung | Left Lung | Peritoneum | Heart, &c. | |
| 11 | Extremities emaciated. | Nothing notable. | Healthy. | Pneumoniae generally, with effusion. | White cerebral substance purplish. | Healthy. | Slight congestion of the lungs. | Grey hepatic colour. | Lower part of the lungs congested. | Contraction of the stomach. | Contraction of the stomach. | Contraction of the stomach. |
| 12 | Extremities emaciated. | Nothing notable. | Healthy. | Pneumoniae generally, with effusion. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Of the lungs, the upper part is congested, the lower part is purplish. | Purplish colour of the lungs. | Upper part of the lungs congested. | Contraction of the stomach. | Contraction of the stomach. | Heart contracted, the right ventricle is dilated, with a little purplish colour of the myocardium. |
| 13 | Extremities emaciated. | Nothing notable. | Healthy. | Pneumoniae generally, with effusion. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Cardiac vessels of the lungs congested, the pulmonary artery is dilated, the pulmonary veins are contracted. | Grey hepatic colour of the lungs. | Purplish colour of the lungs. | Contraction of the stomach. | Contraction of the stomach. | White spots on the surface of the myocardium, the right ventricle is dilated, with a little purplish colour of the myocardium. |
| 14 | Emaciated. | Nothing notable. | Healthy. | Pneumoniae generally, with effusion. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Firm, elastic, and healthy. | Reddish colour of the lungs. | Congested peritoneum. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | White spots on the surface of the myocardium. |
| 15 | Malnourished. | Slight induration of the back. | Healthy. | Pneumoniae generally, with effusion. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Slight induration of the lungs. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | White spots on the surface of the myocardium, the right ventricle is dilated, with a little purplish colour of the myocardium. |
| 16 | Generally emaciated. | Nothing notable. | Healthy. | Pneumoniae generally, with effusion. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Effusion into the left pleura. | Oedematous. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | White spots on the surface of the myocardium, the right ventricle is dilated, with a little purplish colour of the myocardium. |
| 17 | Malnourished. | Contracture of the right ventricle. | Healthy. | Pneumoniae generally, with effusion. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Contracture of the right ventricle. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Contracture of the right ventricle, the right ventricle is dilated, with a little purplish colour of the myocardium. |
| 18 | Generally emaciated. | Slight induration of the back. | Healthy. | Pneumoniae generally, with effusion. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Effusion into the right pleura. | Contracture of the right ventricle. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | White spots on the surface of the myocardium, the right ventricle is dilated, with a little purplish colour of the myocardium. |
| 19 | Extremities emaciated. | Nothing notable. | Healthy. | Pneumoniae generally, with effusion. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Effusion into the right pleura. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Contracture of the right ventricle, the right ventricle is dilated, with a little purplish colour of the myocardium. |
| 20 | Generally emaciated. | Nothing notable. | Healthy. | Pneumoniae generally, with effusion. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Effusion into the right pleura. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Congestion of the stomach. | Contracture of the right ventricle, the right ventricle is dilated, with a little purplish colour of the myocardium. |

OF THE JESSORE DISTRICT, PERFORMED IN THE JAIL HOSPITAL.

Civil Assistant-Surgeon, Jessore.

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No. III.

| V
ABDOMINAL CAVITY. | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|----------|---|--|--|--|---|---|---------------|
| Parietes and Peritoneum. | Stomach. | Small Intestine. | Large Intestine. | Liver. | Spleen. | Right Kidney. | Left Kidney. | Pancreas, &c. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Congested and pigmented in patches. | Fatty and slightly congested. | Enlarged; congested. | Cortical substance slightly degenerated. | Cortical substance slightly degenerated. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Occasionally congested. | Contracted, thickened, and pigmented. | Fatty and cirrhotic. | Capsule thickened; organ enlarged. | Cortical substance degenerated. | Cortical substance degenerated. | Healthy. |
| Old bands of organized lymph. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Contracted; ulcers in process of healing; pigment deposit. | Capsule slightly opacified and contracted; slightly fatty. | Enlarged; capsule opaque. | Cortical substance degenerated; congested. | Cortical substance degenerated; congested. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Enlarged. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Fatty and slightly cirrhotic. | Adhesions around; capsule opacified and cartilaginous. | Cortical substance degenerated and wasted; right contained cysts. | Cortical substance degenerated and wasted; right contained cysts. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Occasionally congested. | Large transverse ulcers in sigmoid plicura, and rectum. | Fatty, with biliary congestion. | Enlarged and engorged. | Enlarged and congested. | Slight smallness in cortical substance. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Mucous membrane highly pigmented. | Healthy. | Fatty. | Enlarged and engorged. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Congested in patches. | Congested. | Cirrhotic and fatty. | Enlarged; capsule opaque; firm. | Cortical substance slightly atrophied and degenerated. | Cortical substance slightly atrophied & degenerated. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Chronic congestion; perer's patches wasted. | Congested. | Cirrhotic and slightly fatty; intra-biliary congestion. | Small and congested. | Highly cystic; cortical substance degenerated and wasted. | Highly cystic; cortical substance degenerated and wasted. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Mucous membrane highly congested. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Congested. | Pyramids congested. | Pyramids congested. | Healthy. |

state of the country. We know, however, it appeared among our troops before Delhi from June to September, 1857, and some 16,000 and 11,000 took place among the prisoners in the Delhi Jail in 1858.* The Lucknow Garrison also suffered to a slight extent from cholera in 1857 †

During the year 1859 cholera was widely disseminated in Bengal, eastward of a line corresponding to about 80° east longitude; to the northwest of this, we hear nothing of the disease. For instance, to the east of Chawpore no less than 701 Europeans and 390 prisoners (Natives) died from cholera; to the northwest of Chawpore not one single death occurred in either of these classes of the community. In the Sangor division, however, there were 62 admissions and 23 deaths among the European troops on this day ‡

Several of the local epidemics which broke out in Bengal during the year were attended with considerable loss of life. Dr. Hugh Macpherson reports that the artillery at Dum Dum were attacked by cholera on the night of the 9th of August, 1859, and that out of a force of 1,497 men, 87 fell victims to the disease within a week; the epidemic then rapidly subsided and soon disappeared. Dr. Macpherson remarks "that the admissions were most numerous when the sky was overcast with cloudy, calm, hot, and low; when the sky was clear †. The disease was very prevalent at Barrackpore, Berhampore, and Trinamool about the same time. In May and June it was general with a terrible virulence in the Allahabad, Buda, and Binnopore districts; † and, as I have already remarked, it extended to the Central Provinces, visiting several battalions in the Nagpur circles.

The year 1860 cholera prevailed to a terrible extent throughout Bengal proper, and, in fact, from Assam to the south, in the southern portion of the Bay of Bengal away into Ceylon, and even extended far up the Himalaya to Doojoolah. The number of deaths from cholera among the prisoners in the Nagpur jails eastward of Chawpore rose during these epidemics to 1,055, being, therefore, nearly four times as many as in 1859. Among the small European force at Mysore there were 89 deaths from cholera; at Jhansi 13; at Saugor 4; Nagor 15; and Jubhulpoor 5. The prisoners in these garrisons together with the civil population suffered in an equal degree. So that we have evidence of cholera of a fatal type and extensive power of diffusion having been general over the eastern tract of country above indicated during the early part of the year 1860. And, as we might have expected, the disease spread at the same time to Agra.

Dr. Walker, Superintendent of the Central Jail, at Agra, informs us that cholera appeared in the city in July, and spread chiefly among the Natives. "Rains had fallen sufficient to soak the ground, and even to be lying in pools in many places." On the 10th of August cholera broke out among the prisoners at Agra and lasted 23 days, 816 cases and 175 deaths arising from it, at the same time there were 21 casual deaths among the Europeans troops at Meerut.

Dr. Walker remarks that of a party of 396 prisoners who arrived at Agra from Mysore on the 9th of August, no less than 100 of them died of cholera; whereas the death-rate among the remaining survivors was only at the rate of 17 per cent. He attributes this excessive mortality in the Mysore party to the fact that their vital powers having been depressed from the fatigue of long marches and irregular supply of food they had experienced during their march into Agra. It was, in fact, a proof that "the epidemic influence appears to have

been on this occasion more widely spread and more generally fatal than in former years." From this statement of Dr. Walker, which is borne out by his figures and from the history of the disease in 1859, together with its terrible virulence over the whole of Bengal proper, the Central Provinces, and as far to the north-west as Muttra, we should naturally have expected to have heard of its immediate dissemination throughout the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab with the setting in of the rains of 1860.

I will call the reader's attention, however, to the exceptional state of these provinces. Throughout this year, they were subjected to unprecedented drought, which converted in enormous tracts otherwise fertile country into a desert. This and west was bounded to the east by the Agra district, to the west by Sahank, to the north by Deyrah, and to the south by Goozogan; and although cholera spread from Bengal and central India up to the very borders of these districts, it in no single instance extended into this barren area, which constituted what Colonel Baird Smith describes as the triangle tract of 1860-61, and which is very clearly defined in chart No. II. of his valuable report on the subject. Section 28 of this report refers to the mortality attributable to the famine, but among the diseases which affected the starving people, he makes no allusion to cholera. Throughout the whole of the jails in the famine districts, not one instance of cholera occurred; and there were only one or two cases among the troops, and some of them are described as "cholera biliosa." Dr. David B. Smith, who at this time was in medical charge of the civil station of Delhi, and who lies in the midst of all the suffering, expressly states that the first instance of cholera he heard of among the famine-stricken people was in *Dehra* 1861. Small-pox and fever raged among the starving people, but from all the reports and returns I have received on the subject, the existence of cholera is never recorded to during the year 1860 in the famine-stricken districts.

I think I am justified, therefore, in asserting that in 1859 a very considerable portion of this presidency was under the influence of epidemic cholera. Throughout the following year it was produced over the whole presidency, with the exception of that part of the country which had been affected by a grievous drought and thereby converted into a sandy desert.

It is almost impossible for those who have not experienced the influence of the annual rains in the north-west of India to realize the condition of the country after such a year as 1860. Colonel Baird Smith says—"It would be difficult to exaggerate its foulness—its seemed devoid of all vitality; that monotonous brown tint of the mineral soil supplanted everything else. It was only by some coupling of a cold wind and that over in this great waste there was no vegetation in sight around the villages, and round the woods, and from village to village. It is truly a fearful picture of a country, and in this country, cholera never general a footing, and the continuance of the drought, although the disease was an enemy."

I need not pay tribute now to cholera's being an enemy of the soil; the story of cholera but when taken in conjunction with the circumstances I have related occurring in the north-west in 1859, they are very significant, and well worthy of a more extended notice.

The epidemic of 1861, I believe, by which I allude, was not a local but a general one, it recovered its former prevalence, and then cholera broke out among its inhabitants with terrible violence.

I will not pretend to estimate the effect from a general epidemic of cholera being on the subject.

In 1861 cholera was reported over the whole of British India. Out of 75 jails in this province, only 11 escaped without a considerable number of deaths among the prisoners.

* *Prison Statistics*, Vol. V, No. 8, p. 90.

† Dr. Walker's Narrative on the Siege of Lucknow, Vol. II, Annals, p. 207.

‡ *MS. Papers*, p. 102, 103.

† *Ibid.*

† *Prison Reports of the North-Western Provinces*, p. 10, 11, 12, 13, 14.

at Camp 2, 779. In May the Europeans and European troops at Camp 2 and Adialpur were attacked with cholera, and in July it was at Ferozpur and Bahawalpur suffered very severely. It is evident, therefore, cholera was not confined over the area in which it was principally general during the previous years, and this remark is applicable to the circumstances of the outbreaks of the Agra and Muttra districts, when, as I previously stated, it had been very severe in 1859.

Dr. David B. Smith informs us that "The first heavy fall of rain at Delhi in 1861 occurred on the 31st of May," at which time cholera appeared among the inhabitants of the southern part of the Gurgaon district, extending from the direction of the Agra to the territories. The disease rapidly spread among the unacclimated people of the district, and reached Delhi on the 14th of June.* Dr. Smith remarks, "It is important to note that at this time there was not a single case of diarrhoea in the city, and the amount of sickness in the station generally seemed to be below the usual average. It is well known that many cholera epidemics are preceded, introduced, or it were, by the occurrence of a great amount of generally prevailing diarrhoea. It was not so in this instance regards the city of Delhi."

It appears that among the passengers, one patient only sunk from the effects of the disease within four hours of the time he was attacked by it, of the others, none died under an illness of less than nine hours.

On H. M.'s 82nd Regiment, Dr. Smith reports: "80 men were seized with cholera, 57 of these were in a state of collapse on admission into hospital. "One man had no vomiting or purging throughout, but after death the intestines were found filled with rice-water diarrhoea."

The men of H. M.'s 75th Regiment and the prisoners were attacked by cholera on the same day at Agra (7th July). The disease spread with alarming rapidity both among the Europeans and Natives, and it had its centre among the latter from the middle of June †. Dr. Banister writes from Muttra that the disease appeared among the Europeans on the 14th July—"The weather being very close, the rain was unusually heavy, the wind continuing to blow from the east."

Dr. J. M. Cunningham makes a similar remark respecting the state of the weather at Panilly, and observes that "during the year 1861 there have been 19½ inches of rain." He continues—"In what manner unusually heavy rains are connected with the development of the cholera poison, it is difficult to say, that there is some connection between the two, however doubtful. The heavy rain of 1856 was accompanied by a severe outbreak of cholera at Agra, Ferozpur, Ludlow, and Umritsur, just as the heavy rains of 1861 have been accompanied by a severe epidemic of cholera in the same places. Partially a little object to even permit me to say of the disease. But the inhabitants of the city suffered from it severely during the heavy rains of 1856 and the disease, after several absences, has been again prevalent with the heavy rains of 1861."

Dr. J. C. O'Brien reports that on the 14th July, the station of Meerut was visited by a heavy rain, during which the outbreak of the epidemic cholera rose. On the 17th of July, the first cases of cholera occurred among the prisoners, and did not cease until the 24th of August, when the epidemic had been 6000 victims, and 344 deaths had taken place. Cholera had, however, spread among the Europeans in the station since the 29th of June.

The disease broke out at Ferozpur about the 17th of July, and continued to spread steadily to the southwards, reaching Meerut, Meerut, and Bahawalpur, &c. The southern part of the territory, however, though plentifully watered, escaped the average of cholera years.

On the 6th of August and the following days, 17 cases of cholera, all of which were fatal, occurred among the European troops at Meerut Meer; by the 14th of the month, all the regiments in cantonments were more or less affected, and Dr. W. A. Green, Inspector-General of Indian Medical Service, strenuously urged their removal into camp. Unfortunately, it was found impracticable to remove the whole of the troops out of cantonments at once; the country for miles round was under water, and although Captain F. Norman, the assistant quartermaster-general, was as anxious as every one else to see the men out of the station, he found it impossible to select a dry encamping ground for them; besides, the commissariat was unprovided with cooking and other appertinances for a camp of the kind at a moment's call. The military authorities, however, did all in their power to forward Dr. Green's views, and on the 16th of August, three companies of her Majesty's 51st Regiment left the station, at the same time the Artillery marched to Shabhera, on the banks of the Ravi, ten miles to the north of Meerut Meer. Subsequently, one single case of cholera occurred among the men of this party, but among the troops who remained in the station, there were no less than 157 cases and 261 deaths from the disease within the following ten days. In fact, after the 15th of August, cholera increased with such fearful rapidity, that the soldiers in a few days were prostrate and hopeless.

In one regiment, out of a total strength of 1,002 men, 863 were employed as hospital orderlies, and of these, no less than 428 were seized with cholera. In the other European regiment at Meerut Meer, of 204 cases of cholera, 147 occurred among hospital orderlies. It was not found possible, however, to determine at these hospital orderlies were more liable to be attacked than men who had not been exposed to cholera in the hospital, because all the men in the station had been on duty of this kind at one time or the other. On the other hand, we cannot overlook the fact that the medical officers and the whole of the medical establishment, together with the native servants, almost entirely escaped the influence of the disease, although prostrated by the fatiguing and harassing nature of their duties. And what is more remarkable, when it was discovered that the European orderlies were unable to work any longer, some 50 Sikhs of the 31st Regiment were daily sent to take their place in the European hospitals,—not a single instance of cholera occurred among them.

The Government of India subsequently appointed a commission, presided over by a civilian, Mr. J. Strachey, to report on the circumstances of the outbreak of cholera in the Punjab. This action on the part of the Indian Government in 1861 was the first effort they had made since 1817 to gain any information on the subject of cholera among the troops serving in this country. There was no want of material at their command, the records of the disease being full of reports and valuable matter bearing on the subject, and a system of which had been set up by the Government six years before by the Board. But it was not until some difficulties had been got over in India, and after the country had passed under the direct rule of her Majesty, that it was found necessary to attempt to yield in some measure to what probably most Indian statesmen consider the premises of European on the subject of cholera. Hence the appointment of the commission to report on the epidemic of 1861. The first action of the report published by this commission had subsequently to be withdrawn and rewritten, because it contained statements of a partial nature, reflecting on the character of individual officers, and to the revised report, published under the authority of Government, the two most influential members of the four commissioners refused to append their names, the dissenting officers being Dr. Einton, the head of the British Medical Service in India, and Colonel Gawler, of the Royal Engineers.

* Punjab Statistical Series, Vol. No. 2, Ch. 1, p. 100, Indian Press, 1864.

† Dr. J. Murray, Report on Cholera, p. 10, Calcutta at Agra, 1861.

These facts will explain my silence regarding the details and opinions contained in the report on the Punjab epidemic of 1861. And if this work be contrasted with that of Mr. J. Simon, R. Owen, and other scientific men on the cholera of 1851, the difference is very appreciable. The one, evidently the production of men deeply sensible of their responsibilities, the difficulty and magnitude of the work before them requiring their best energies and the concentration of all their faculties, which years of hard labour on these special subjects had ripened into mature wisdom; the other, as far as I can judge, evincing a very different spirit. Besides, I am credibly informed by officers who were at Meeran Meer, and who visited the cholera patients there in 1861, that the account of the hospitals given by the Reverend Mr. Sleggett during the epidemic is, to say the least of it, a very highly coloured picture, and yet this account is the one published by the Punjab Commission as authoritative, and upon which hangs much of their theory as to the hospitals having been the most direct cause of the dissemination of the disease.

Had Dr. Green's advice of the 15th of August been practicable, and the whole of the men removed from the station on the outbreak of the epidemic, it might possibly have saved much of the misery that subsequently occurred at Meeran Meer; but when once the disease had taken hold of the troops, to have thrust them out into tents in the pouring rain would probably have been followed by even worse consequences than befell them, and have been made the subject of just criticism, if not of severe censure.

GENERAL PARALYSIS OF THE INSANE.

BY DR. WISE.

ONE of the most remarkable points connected with insanity among the natives of India is the rarity of general paralysis. In the Patna Asylum Report for 1866, the deaths of two women, aged, respectively, 26 and 35 years, are recorded. With this exception, no other cases are cited in the reports of the Dhulian, Patna, and Moydapore Asylums between 1862 and 1867. In the Dacca Asylum, between 1811 and 1867, I have only been able to discover 3 cases among 1,576 admissions, and 925 deaths. This infrequency becomes more unaccountable when the records of the European asylums are contrasted with those of Bengal.

Calmeil was of opinion that there was one general paralytic in every 15 male patients, and 1 in 59 among women. Foville calculated 31 general paralytics to 334 insanes, or 9·2 per cent. According to Bayle (1855), the proportion of paralytics in the asylums of Paris was 1 in 1; but Baillargier, on the other hand, gives for Biètrre and Salpêtrière together the proportion of 1 in 16.

When we examine the assigned causes of this mysterious disease, the reason of its infrequent appearance in Indian asylums is not explained, as the native is as much exposed to most of them as is the resident of Europe. Intemperance, sexual debauchery, excessive use of tobacco, mental excitement, violent emotional agitation, hereditary predisposition, and concussion of the brain following blows on the head, have either singly or conjointly been pointed to as the causes of general paralysis. The use of ardent spirits is certainly less common among Hindoos and Mahomedans than among Europeans, and this fact corroborates the statement of Guisshin, that general paralysis is caused by the combined action of drink and study, or drink and trouble.

It seems probable, however, that if search is made in the case books of the different asylums, cases will be found classed under the head of chronic meningitis which were really cases of general paralysis. It is the hope that the record of the

following cases will prompt those interested in the study of insanity among the natives of this country to investigate the registers in their possession, and to make known the result of their enquiries, that has induced me to publish the details of the only cases which have occurred in the Dacca Asylum during the last 27 years:—

CASE I.

Ram Kishore Rukhit, Hindoo, aged 15 years, was admitted into the asylum with dementia on the 23rd January, 1850. On his admission, he was in a state of nearly complete mental imbecility. In the following November, his speech became impeded, and the motions of his tongue and free movement of his jaw became impaired. He halted in walking, and he dragged his lower limbs after him. No further details of his case can be discovered. On the 11th December, 1851, he died of cholera.

At the post-mortem examination, a state of general congestion and engorgement of the cerebral circulation was observed. There was serous effusion beneath, and raising up, the arachnoid; also at the base of the brain, and in the ventricles; seated on the corpus striatum, on the right side beneath the living membrane of the ventricle, was a spot of broken down brain, the circumference being about the size of an eight-anna piece. The ragged, degenerated, and softened cerebral substance was of a yellowish colour.

The above are all the particulars that I have been able to discover regarding this interesting case.

CASE II.

A Hindoo mohurrir, aged about 35, was admitted into the asylum in 1850. The following history was given by his friends.—He followed actively his business as a clerk, but was also passionately fond of singing and playing upon musical instruments. Upon the occasion of some festival, he spent the night in the bazaar, performing to a crowd of listeners: from that night he became insane. In October, 1850, while in the asylum, he was observed for the first time to drag his leg after him. On admission, it is noted that he was noisy, but that he answered questions put to him. By January, 1851, he could not be induced to speak, although he was heard to sing to himself at times. The further progress of this case is not to be found. In the report for 1851, it is stated that the issue being to all appearance hopeless, he was taken away at the earnest solicitation of his friends.

CASE III.

Radhā Channarrie, aged 15, a midwife by profession, was admitted into the asylum on the 27th December, 1850, in an insane state. She had previously been an inmate of the asylum from the 5th September to the 27th November, 1850. The cause of her insanity was jealousy on account of her husband living with another woman. On admission, she was melancholic, incoherent, intractable, sleepless, variable, unsettled, and very abusive. She took her food, dressed, and bathed, like a sane person. She was emaciated, and out of health.

In June, 1861, slight tremor of the whole muscular system, without paralysis, was noted. In September, the tremors increased; she had great difficulty in speaking and moving about. Her expression was idiotic, and her mental faculties were impaired. She had to be fed, as she was unable to feed herself. Bowels were regular. By blisters and mild stimulants, she rallied; but about the beginning of November, 1861, she became very talkative and excited, screaming at night without apparent cause, and rarely sleeping. Pulse weak, mental faculties less dull, and the muscular tremors less uncontrollable. On the morning of the 9th November, while eating bread, she suddenly choked and was dead before the native doctor could reach her.

Post-mortem examination. A mass of half-inflated bread, weighing 3 ounces 20 grains, was found lodged in the pharynx.

also congested. It was also seen that about $\frac{1}{2}$ pound of raddish effusion of serum on the pelvic cavity. Brain congested. Vessels of the piameter full of black blood; stomach full of $\frac{1}{2}$ digested rice. Under these circumstances I conclude, that the lady died from the effects of strangulation made by robbers."

N.B.—The above is given in *original*, to show how lamentably and absurdly deficient some Native Doctors are in a knowledge of English, and of the use of medicine. This is by no means an exceptional specimen.—*Ed., I. M. G.*

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

CASE OF HYDATID DISEASE OF THE LIVER; HYDATIDS (ACEPHALOCYSTES PROLIFERE) DISCHARGED BY THE BOWELS.

By J. BROWN, A.B. and F.R.C.S.I.,

Surgeon, in Medical charge, Mussoorie.

On the afternoon of the 24th December, 1868, I was asked to attend Mrs. S., who had been ill since the morning of the 22nd December.

Her husband told me that she had always been a most active person, and had generally enjoyed good health, though he noticed that for sometime past she was getting thin and her appetite had failed. Her friends too, who only saw her occasionally, remarked how very ill she was looking. Her husband also told me that Mrs. S. had an attack of jaundice some ten years ago, and he considers that she has not been the same since then.

On the morning of the 22nd December, 1868, Mrs. S. was attacked with violent vomiting, and told her husband she felt as if there was a bar of iron across her stomach. He thought she was suffering from a bilious attack, and immediately gave her an emetic, which, having a good effect, afforded her some relief. She, however, had to continue in bed, being sometimes better, sometimes worse, and I was asked to see her on the afternoon of the 24th December, as on the morning of that day she had drawn the attention of her husband to a tumour in the right hypochondrium, and which she considered to be an enlarged liver.

On my first visit (24th December) I found my patient, a cachectic-looking subject, suffering from sharp fever, lying on the back, and complaining of pain in the hepatic region. Her pulse was 110, and of rather small volume; conjunctive slightly jaundiced; tongue thickly coated.

On examining the liver I found it to be much enlarged, extending fully an inch below the cartilages of the ribs, and across nearly into the left hypochondrium. There was considerable tenderness of the enlarged liver on pressure, and its surface was perfectly smooth, quite free from any prominences or inequalities, its thin edge could also be distinctly felt.

The urine was scanty, and contained a very copious lithatic deposit.

It is unnecessary, and would take up too much valuable space, to give a daily record of the case; but I shall briefly describe the most prominent and interesting events in connection with it, and which tended to complicate the diagnosis very considerably.

On the 26th of December there was effusion into the right pleura, and a few days afterwards there was some slight effusion in the left one. The pain in the hepatic region was persistent, and she was frequently troubled by sharp pains running, as she described them, through the liver to the back. She could lie, she said, with equal comfort and freedom on either side, or on the back; but as I generally found her at this stage of the disease lying on the right side, I have no doubt but that she was most easy in this position.

On the 2nd of January she was in some respects decidedly better; she was free from fever, and the pulse was 96, but still there was the enlargement of the liver, and the tenderness on pressure. On the morning of the 3rd, I was surprised to find my patient in a very dangerous condition, her countenance was pinched and anxious looking, pulse very weak, and 120,

she was unable to lie on the right side; complained of great pain in the right side, and over the abdomen as far as the umbilicus, and lay on the left side with the knees drawn up; in fact, there were symptoms of peritoneal inflammation.

On examination, I found the belly extremely tympanitic, and generally tender on pressure, but more so in the hepatic region, and over the course of the transverse colon. She was unable to move off the left side without assistance, and even then the movement caused her most intense agony. At this period she suffered for about 72 hours from retention of urine, the catheter being required.

On the 5th January, the tympanitis was in a measure relieved, but the abdominal tenderness still continued, the decubitus was still on the left side, with the legs drawn up; and, in addition, there was a remarkable and rapid increase in the hepatic enlargement, which now extended to the umbilicus, and nearly to the crest of the right ilium; still, the surface of the tumour was perfectly smooth, and at times I fancied I could distinguish indistinct and deep fluctuation.

At this time Mrs. S. began to lose flesh rapidly, and had profuse night sweats.

From the 5th to the 10th January, the abdominal tenderness had become less; the tympanitis had disappeared; but still the hepatic enlargement was gradually increasing, and did not present any sensation of fluctuation more than I have before mentioned, nor was the surface of the tumour otherwise than smooth, though a marked fulness of the right side was visible. Altogether, at this stage, the case looked most unpromising, and a fatal termination of it expected.

On the morning of the 10th, her pulse was 128, and very feebly; she complained of extreme debility, and was perspiring profusely. In the afternoon of this day, her bowels were moved, and her husband was surprised to find that more than half the motion consisted of globular gelatinous-looking substances, and varying in size from about that of a hen's egg to a gooseberry." After this motion she expressed herself as feeling great and immediate relief. During the night and next day, she had some nine motions; the few first containing hydatids, the latter ones only containing the empty membranous sacs of others; and Mr. S., a most accurate observer, conjectured that, altogether, some 500 of these *entozoa* must have been passed. I forgot to mention that on the 7th and 8th Mrs. S. suffered from dysenteric symptoms.

This case presents several features of unusual interest, the most prominent amongst which are, perhaps,

1stly. The apparently sudden and very rapid hepatic enlargement. Mrs. S. assures me that she never had any idea of enlargement of liver until the 24th December, 1868.

2ndly. The double pleuritic effusion.

3rdly. The sudden symptoms of peritonitis.

4thly. The extreme tympanitis.

5thly. The dysenteric symptoms.

6thly. The rapid emaciation and profuse night sweats, symptoms which pointed to the probable formation of an abscess—but then there had not been any rigor.

7thly. The chance selected by nature for the discharge of the hydatids, the rapid subsidence of the hepatic tumour, and the general amendment of the patient after the discharge of the hydatids.

I did not see any of the hydatids till after the rupture of their cysts, as I thoughtlessly asked Mr. S. to keep them in cold water; and I have no doubt but that the cysts became ruptured owing to their over-distension by the process of encystment; however, I am of opinion, from the examination of the empty cysts, and from Mr. S.'s description of them, that they were acapillary hydatids.

I was very glad in being able to avail myself of the able advice and assistance of Dr. Figg, Royal Horse Artillery, from almost the commencement of this lady's illness, and to him my best acknowledgments are due.

A few remarks on some of the most prominent symptoms already mentioned, and on the treatment pursued, as also on the case generally, may perhaps form the subject of a second paper.

P.S.—Up to the present, January 20th, Mrs. S. has been gradually and steadily improving, but is very weak. It all goes on well, she will proceed to England and the Cape in February.

FIBROID TUMOR OF THE JAW.

By J. MARYLENE CAMERON,
Civil Assistant Surgeon.

EMMAS, a Mississauga, aged 15, was brought to me on November 29th by her parents.

They stated that inwards of a year before they had observed a small tumor near the angle of the lower jaw on the left side. It remained tranquil for a while, native practitioners having given her diet and local sprouting of a cure, they had brought her to me to have it removed by operation.

There was a tumor on the left side of the face, rounded, of the size of a walnut. The skin shed easily over it, and at its most prominent part was dusky red, and apparently on the point of ulcerating. The tumor was firm of a fleshy consistency, and seemed equally connected with both jaws. The lower jaw was fixed, the mouth nearly closed, and the girl complained of great pain. In spite of the swelling she had undergone, she felt at first fresh, and the right cheek was plump and rounded.

On separating the lips, I transported as far as possible the interior of the mouth. I observed the ends of two flat bands of a black cloth, which had gone from the tumor into the mouth. On inspecting these somewhat minutely (which was a matter of some difficulty, as she was repeatedly starting back, and complaining of great pain), I noticed certain lines, which seemed to me to indicate either that the bands were pieces of cloth inserted into a cavity in the tumor, or that cloth of some sort had been recently placed in contact with them, so as to leave its impression. I asked the parents if any cloth had been introduced into the mouth, but they asserted that such was not the case, and the girl corroborated their statement.

I now seized the band with forceps, and, using a little force, succeeded in removing it; the girl shrieking loudly, and endeavoring to seize my hand. The band was simply a piece of elastic cloth. On examining the mouth, I saw what was undoubtedly a second piece of cloth, which I also removed, and thus I went on removing piece after piece till every vestige of the tumor disappeared. The girl looked foolish and sulky. The parents seemed satisfied, and could not at once realize that their daughter's illness was pure deception.

They brought her to me again on the following day. There was not the slightest trace of disease. The teeth were sound; the jaws well formed. The right cheek was, as I have said before, plump and round, the left was thin, and hung flaccid and void of expression. The centre of the cheek, which formed the most prominent part of the tumor, was now shrivelled up, like the skin of a withered apple.

The tumor was composed of 23 pieces of cloth, weighing, when washed and dried, 16 ounces.

Monghyr, January 25th, 1869.

A PUNCTURED WOUND OF THE LEG, WITH COMPLETE PERFORATION OF THE TIBIA; RECOVERY.

By HENRY O. WILSON,
Civil Assistant Surgeon, Mysore Singh.

KOLIM SHAM, a strong, robust man about 35 years of age, was admitted on the 24th April, 1868, into the Mysore Singh Charitable Dispensary, with a recently inflicted wound in the upper part of the left leg, just below, and to the outer side of, the outer edge of the patella. Through this wound was protruding, about $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch, the pointed extremity of the iron head of a keesh, or spear used in bundles by the natives for killing fish, the long shaft being made of wood; in the ham were four small punctured wounds, which had healed.

The patient stated that four days previous to admission, a man had thrown at him a bundle of these spears; four of them struck him in the ham, and one of these, penetrating deeply into the leg, broke off where the iron head joins with the shaft.

Immediately after receiving the injury, the man went to an *Adhvaryu*, who, feeling the point of the spear head just beneath the skin in the front part of the leg, cut down upon it, and made several fruitless attempts to drag it out by its point.

When I saw him, I cut down in the popliteal space, and pushed back the spear head by its point, until I felt the other extremity behind, at the spot where it had penetrated the bone; from this position it was easily withdrawn. The spear-head measured two inches in length, its larger extremity having

a diameter of $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch. It had passed from behind forwards, outwards, and a little downwards, forming in the tibia a canal about the size of a large goose-quill.

In this canal, I could feel with a probe a few small loose fragments of bone.

Immediately after the operation, I gave five grains of calomel with a grain of opium, and at night an opiate containing 25 minims of camellina. Cold water dressing was applied to both wounds.

25th.—A little feverish; complains of but little pain in the leg; some small fragments of bone have come away from the anterior wound. Offered a saline mixture every four hours; continued the cold water dressing.

26th.—Some maggots have been coming away from the anterior wound, and a little feverish. Applied to the anterior wound a linseed-oil poultice sprinkled with turpentine; continued the cold water dressing to the posterior wound; repeated the saline mixture.

27th.—No fever. Ordered quinine mixture; wounds dressed as before.

30th.—Complains of very little pain in the leg. Ordered iron and quinine mixture; turpentine and resin ointment to be applied to both wounds.

1st May.—Complains of pain in the kneejoint, which is slightly swollen; no feverish symptoms. The joint to be painted with liniment of iodine; continued the mixture and dressing as before.

4th.—The swelling in the kneejoint has subsided; is free from pain. Mixture and dressing as before.

From this date the man steadily improved. On the 26th of May a small superficial abscess was opened in the cat of the leg. On the 31st May he was discharged.

Remarks.—The attention of the profession has been lately called by Dr. Fayer to the occasional occurrence of osteomyelitis after amputations, and severe injuries to the bones. This case illustrates how serious an injury may, under some circumstances, be inflicted on a bone without this disease resulting. For four days a foreign substance has impacted itself in the articular extremity, and, consequently, in the most cancellated and vascular portion of a long bone. In the first attempts to extract the foreign substance, the bone was subjected to considerable violence, yet the bone was repaired without the occurrence of any abnormal inflammation.

The slight inflammation in the kneejoint was probably only sympathetic; the abscess in the cat of the leg was the probable result of a few drops of pus finding their way down the leg from the wounds before their final closure.

A DISPUTED CASE OF OBSTINATE COSTIVENESS.

By GOPAL CHANDER ROY,
Teacher, Medical School, Nagpore.

A MAN, aged about 50 years, is brought to the hospital with symptoms of obstinate costiveness. The history of the case goes on as follows:—That for the last two years he had been suffering off and on, from irregularity of bowels; sometimes passing 4 or 5 stools in a day, at other times none. At the middle of the night, about 4 hours after his usual meal, he is roused with a pain in the abdomen, which became so unbearable, as to induce him next morning to ask for relief in the hospital. It is seen 8 or 10 hours afterwards with the following symptoms:—Countenance anxious and indicative of collapse; eyes sunk and staring; cold perspiration over the forehead, extremities in an algid condition, pulse barely perceptible at the wrist, respiration thoracic; abdomen tensely bloated and tympanitic. Had two natural evacuations in the previous day, but none since the accident. Thinks he will be relieved if the bowels be moved, and earnestly craves for a purgative. An injection given by the native doctor was returned, bringing away little lumps of faeces, with no relief of urgent symptoms; no vomiting. Passed water, legs flexed and drawn up. Complaining of a tension in the abdomen, but could bear slight pressure over it without wincing. He remains in that condition up to evening, and dies, retaining his consciousness to the last, within 18 hours

from the first appearance of the symptoms. There was no external hernia. The post-mortem examination was refused.

Such being the data of the case, let us theorize on it and try to elucidate its nature. Was it a case of internal strangulation or of perforation of the intestine? The amount of evidence weighs equally in favor of both conjectures; but by signalling one set as primary symptoms, we may expect to come to a definite conclusion. The necessity of determining between the two diseases will be evident when we consider the diametrically opposite treatments that are usually adopted in each instance, for whilst in one the main remedial measures lie in heavy injections, the same treatment in the other will aggravate the patient's suffering, if not actually hasten his death. To begin, we meet with the most prominent symptoms as *collapse*. It is a known fact that collapse sets in earlier in injuries in the abdomen than in any other organs. Hence, the collapse and occasional death in blows over the stomach, in rupture of vessels within the abdomen, in rupture of spleen, kidney, or liver, in perforation of intestine and extravasation, &c., in strangulated external hernia, we meet with a small wiry pulse, if the strangulation is too tight or long continued; but this condition is quite different from what we ordinarily term collapse. Here collapse supervenes as the result of gangrene of intestine, and not otherwise, and then even its symptoms become first apparent in worst cases not before some hours after the accident. Let it be remembered that strangulation external to the abdomen is quite different in its nature and degree from strangulation produced within the abdomen. In the first we have the intestine tightly grasped after its escape through a small resistant hole; in the second, it gets obstructed generally by a loop getting twisted on itself or by passing underneath a band of mesentery during the natural intestinal peristaltic action. To show that in one case pressure is sooner exerted and more intense than the other, I may bring forth the following reasons:—1st, that in strangulated external hernia, the pain from the beginning is unbearable, whilst in the other variety of intestinal obstruction the patient begins to feel pain after a long time, perhaps when the accumulated feces and gas begin to distend the intestine; 2nd, that in intestinal obstruction the patient lingers for some days, when the obstruction is not removed (they rarely die under 3 days; there may be exceptional instances), and after death the post-mortem examination reveals in but a few instances commencing gangrene of intestine; whereas, in strangulated hernia, the intestine generally passes into a state of sphacelus within 24 hours, the late appearance of gangrene being here exceptional. The deductions from the above agreements can be summed up thus:—That owing to a greater amount of stricture in the strangulation of external hernia, the intestine may die within 8 or 10 hours; but in internal obstruction, where the pressure is less acute, it is rare to find in general run of cases death from gangrene and its symptoms within so short a period. It will be preposterous therefore to suppose in the present instance collapse to have been caused by early supervision of gangrene, for although the patient was not seen earlier, and consequently his condition just after the accident was not known, yet there was no doubt of the existence of marked depression in him at the time when he came under our observation. Moreover, the previous history, the age of the patient, the suddenness of the symptoms, and the rapid death, are all favorable to the occurrence of perforation. The typhantic state of the abdomen was due to effusion of gas and feces in the peritoneal cavity through the rent caused in the intestine.

It has been urged by my colleagues that the obstinate costiveness is not observed in cases of perforation, for enough of continuity of surface is still preserved to allow the gas and the fecal matter to find their way from one part of the tube to the other. In opposition to this, I may assert that although this is practicable at the commencement, the effusion and accumulation of gas in the peritoneum afterwards becomes so great as to produce collapse of the intestine, and we can well understand how fluid will entirely run out of a tube through a hole made in its wall when it is made to traverse it from one end to the other, not by a rapid, but by a *slow*, peristaltic action.

As the want of post-mortem examination in the present case has left its nature a disputed point, I would take the liberty to invite the opinion of our brethren in the profession to cite instances in favor of one or of other diagnosis verified by the post-mortem examination.

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

BY S. C. CHATTERJEE, B.A., M.B.,
Sub-Assistant Surgeon, Azimgunge.

CASE I.—OF LINEAR EXTRACTION COMPLICATED WITH PROLAPSUS IRIDIS.

BHOODHIS SINO, a strong-built up-country man, of short make, aged about 55 years, was admitted into the dispensary on the 18th of July last with cataract in both the eyes; the right eye more affected than the left. I selected the right eye as fit for operation. Pupil normal; iris healthy looking; tension normal. No supra or circum-orbital pain. No vascularity of the conjunctiva. An ophthalmoscopic examination ought to have been made previous to the operation, but unfortunately I had no instrument, so I could not make any examination. The patient having been brought fully under the influence of chloroform, I performed the operation called linear extraction, in the way recommended by Dr. C. Macnamara, but without any iridectomy. The cataractous degeneration of the lens was of the mixed variety, a hard nucleus surrounded by soft lenticular substance.

A thin cotton compress and bandage were put on.

19th July.—Slight pain in the eye; wound in the cornea has healed but partially; nearly one-third of it, at the upper part, remaining unhealed, and a bit of the iris separating the two segments. I would have used a saturated solution of calabar bean to contract the pupil (as it was somewhat distorted), but as there was none in store, I applied extract opii round the eye.
Ordered.—Ol. ricini. Pad and bandage.

The cornea was looking hazy; no effusion of blood.
21st.—Eye looking worse; a little bit of the iris protruding through the unhealed portion of the wound; much pain in the eye.

Ordered.—Extr. opii round the eye. Tr. opii, mxv. thrice daily. Pad and bandage.

26th.—Iris gradually protruding outwards; much vascularity of the conjunctiva; pain very severe, specially at night; cornea also ulcerating at the cut edges.

Ordered.—Zinc lotion (gr. ij-3) to be dropped into the eye. Pad and bandage.

I intended only to keep down the inflammation by weak astringent lotions, without any meddlesome interference.

31st.—Ulceration of the cornea and prolapsus; irides quite stationary.

5th August.—Uleer healthy looking; prolapsus not increasing; continued dressing as before.

21st.—Iris gradually receding back; ulcer tending towards healthy cicatrization.

25th.—Much better now; prolapsus of the iris no longer existing; iris has receded, and the ulcer almost cicatrised; slight vascularity of the conjunctiva only remaining. There is slight effusion of lymph into the anterior chamber.

Ordered.—Alum zinc lotion. Bandage.

Patient discharged on the 1st of September. Could see dimly to grope his way about in the room; unable to make out features. In fact, a little better than what he was previous to his admission.

I bring this case to the notice of the profession only because it will be interesting and instructive to those who, like me, have just commenced to perform the operation.

The incision I made through the cornea was, as Dr. Macnamara recommends, "a little anterior to its junction with the sclerotic," nor was it so large as to easily admit of a prolapse.

I am rather inclined to believe that the unfavorable termination of this case was solely attributable to the wretched state of our present dispensary house, both with reference to the accommodation it affords, and the site it occupies; nothing can be more miserable than what it is at present. The rooms are mere cells—dirty, damp, ill-ventilated, and what not! I operated upon another case, in the person of an old woman, outside the dispensary, with the happiest results. In conclusion, I have only to say that this has remarkably manifested the recuperative powers of nature. Every one who saw the case thought, and most reasonably, that the patient would eventually lose her eye.

CASE 11.—TINARI ENLARGED.

Small, aged 40, male, and 74, suffering from... (text continues with medical details)

CASE OF RETENTION OF URINE. PARACENTESIS VESICÆ. RECOVERY.

By K. G. BOSSER, M.D., F.R.C.S.

Reported at the S. S. M. H. S. Meeting, 1868.

AN ANDALUSIAN, 42 years of age, moderately stout, habitually temperate, was admitted into the hospital at 12 o'clock on the 27th September, 1868, on account of urine...

The patient was unable to urinate in any manner for 24 hours, and the abdomen was very painful... (text continues with medical details)

The patient was unable to urinate in any manner for 24 hours, and the abdomen was very painful... (text continues with medical details)

The patient was unable to urinate in any manner for 24 hours, and the abdomen was very painful... (text continues with medical details)

and the patient was unable to urinate in any manner for 24 hours, and the abdomen was very painful... (text continues with medical details)

The patient was unable to urinate in any manner for 24 hours, and the abdomen was very painful... (text continues with medical details)

He died on the 29th December, 1868.

Notices to Correspondents.

Correspondents should send their communications to the Editor...

- Dr. S. ... Dr. N. ... Dr. L. ...

The Indian Medical Gazette.

INDEX FOR 1868.

The above is now ready, and we shall feel obliged by subscribers intimating whether they wish it sent to them, or whether they prefer to return their Nos. for 1868, and receive in exchange a bound Vol. complete with the Index. The cost of binding will be Rs. 2-8.

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"You have chosen the path, not of politics, but of science. Among us, we have proved by what it is and in how own particular department, we find some of the highest ornaments of British history, and I will not avoid the instance of supposing that there is only one among you who would not prefer the reputation of Harvey or the Hunters to that of some ten tentacles of the courtiers and politicians of the periods in which they lived."—SIR BENJAMIN BRODIE.

NATIVE MEDICAL PROGRESS IN INDIA.

It is very much the fashion to cry out against anglicised Bengalees—anglicised, it is too often thought, only to the extent to which they may have imitated the vices of Beau Brummel, or fraternized with the devotees of Bacchus. But they are a little better than this, too. They are profiting as well by the virtues as by the vices of their English models.

There is a society in Calcutta, composed of educated Bengalees, who are endeavouring to introduce annual "national gatherings" in the room of the Churruck Poojah, which is steadily disappearing, as Sir J. P. Grant prophesied it would, under the force of improved native opinion. The committee of this gathering (Choirta mela) have endeavoured to provide an *intellectual* stimulus in the "upper stories" of men, in place of that produced by "hook swinging" in the lower.

They have offered prizes—too small, we fear, considering the objects—for essays and treatises on various subjects; for, amongst others, a treatise on some of the physical sciences, and upon the best essay, in pure Bengalee, on the anatomy of the human form, according to the medical science of this country. The amount offered is only Rs. 100. We venture, however, to enquire what is meant by the "medical science of this country." The anatomy of the human form is unchangeable, whatever the country in which it is developed, and whatever the nature of the medical science that is based upon it. What is the essayist to represent?—Whether the medical science be one that recognizes the navel as the centre from whence forty blood vessels originate, or whether it be in accordance with the views of the eminent practitioners of the nineteenth century,—the human form divine is the same. We presume that the intention is to secure anatomical descriptions of the body as represented by the beautiful models that grew under the chisels of the Grecian anatomists. We can be convinced that any other medical science is intended than that which has been imported from the West. Were it otherwise, the noble example of Modooroodun Goopto would, indeed, have been thrown away.

MEDICAL MISSIONARIES IN INDIA.

It is much to be lamented that the functions of the physician and priest are not more intimately blended than they are, in the persons of missionaries. They were eminently so in Him who visited the world in this feeble capacity—and his example was abundantly followed in the early days of Christianity, when the heathen cried out—"The gods are come down to us in the likeness of men." They had put witnesses in the first instance, on the part of a minister of the gospel performing the duties of the physician. Paul had cured the poor cripple at Lystra of a congenital lameness. Even prior to Christ's advent, medicine was practised by the priests among several of the nations of antiquity; and the medico-theosophists, the Essenes of Judæa, performed the combined duties of ministering among the Levite priests and curing the sick. The instances of the union are

numerous and striking. Now, we see Peter curing the impotent beggar at the gate of the Temple and filling the people with wonder and amazement at his skill; now, restoring to health Æneas, the paralytic, at Lydda, thereby astonishing the people, that, when they saw these works, they "turned to the Lord."

Again, during the persecutions of the Christians at Lyons, one Alexander, a physician and an earnest preacher, became a martyr to his cause, and was destroyed by wild beasts in the amphitheatre. Then Columba, the laborious and much-honoured apostle of the ancient Picts and Scots, now spreading the gospel, and now practising with remarkable success as a physician.

As the world's age increases, we hear of monks whose chief object was to provide physical and spiritual relief for the unfortunate and the outcast; of laymen and ecclesiastics combining to take care of the sick in hospitals; of even Jesuits, making the care of the sick the most prominent of their duties. Three hundred years ago, the Protestant churches sent missionaries to the heathen; but, "during the first 150 years of that time, there is no record of any Protestant physician or surgeon having consecrated his profession to the service of Christ in connection with the preaching of the gospel." But, then, an English general not only set this duty before the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, but nobly provided the means. He bequeathed some West India property to the Society with these instructions,—“That the plantations should continue entire, and that 300 Negroes, at least, should always be kept thereon; and that a convenient number of professional scholars should be maintained there, who should be obliged to study and practice physic, and chirography, as well as divinity, that, by the apparent usefulness of the former to all mankind, they may both endear themselves to the people, and have the better opportunity of doing good to men's souls whilst they are taking care of their bodies; but the particulars of the constitution he leaves to the Society, composed of wise and good men.”

We have quoted these words in their entirety, as they express, to a great extent, what we would wish to say in advocating the cause of medical missions in India.

But General Collington made a fatal mistake in providing for the education of medical missionaries *in the spot*, for, however successfully we may create and adapt the *subordinate agency* in a tropical country, the administrative, or controlling, authority should be *imported*. The requisite zeal and energy cannot be expected in natives of hot climates. It is not said that this was the cause of failure in General Collington's scheme, nor fail it did; but that the circumstances of West Indian Islands were not such as to make any of them fit for the establishment of a school of medicine, even on a small scale; added to this, law suits with the executors and frequent hurricanes helped to bring about the failure. The school was indeed established, containing a president and 12 scholars, and stipends were all well provided, who were assiduous in prosecuting their studies in English, either in divinity, law, or physic.

Superior to this, we hear of Dr. Meuvassat of Germany sending Dr. Hooken, a physician, and Mr. Ruetter, a surgeon, to Persia, and amongst the Ganges, the residents from the Madras, or West India of the East, then of John Thomas, an English physician, who, after two voyages, devoted upon remaining in Bengal to preach Christianity and to cure disease amongst the Hindus in general, and the Baptist Missionaries of the townward

Dr. Carey, who was sent by the Synod of the Father with him, as a colleague, and working harmoniously with these men we hear of Dr. Vanderkemp—originator of the London Missionary Society, as before time an officer in the Dutch Army,—who went so far in his medico-religious zeal that he had proclaimed very questionably the good of marrying one of their women!

That is, we hear of Colman and Phipps in Burmah, intimately associated with Dr. Judson; and of the latter acquiring so much to know as an oculist, that he was demanded by the king to his court.

We now come to the progress of medical missions in our days. In 1822 appeared Cavers' "Hints to Missions," followed by an article, by the same author, on "Missions," in the seventh edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*. So thoroughly in accord with our own views are those expressed by this author, that we cannot refrain from transcribing his own words.

"It, with suitable arrangements, missionaries combined the profession of physic, it would be attended with many advantages, for there is no thing superior in medical skill remaining long in a country without an equally dignified object. The character of a physician has been always highly honored in the East, and would give an easy and unsuspected admission to a familiar intercourse with all classes and creeds. . . . He who is a physician is pardoned for being a Christian, religious and national prejudices disappear before him, all hearts and harems are opened, and he is welcomed as if he were carrying to the dying the chalice of immortality. If, more than any one else, possesses the *facultas temporaria fidei*, . . . In many cases the cure of the body, as in the early miracles, might precede the cure of the soul; but, if not, some positive good is done when science is enriched, diseases removed, and the gratitude and respect of many secured. . . . The employment of physicians as missionaries, which has only very lately and very partially been practised, has been attended, on the limited scale on which it has been tried, with yet happier results than could reasonably have been expected. It has opened a new fountain of humanity in the East, and which breasts of distant nations, to see the strange spectacle of a man, in imitation of his Saviour, 'going about doing good' and healing the sick. Those who are accessible to the disease of the intellect, and with sufficient acuteness the disease of their bodies, and, though missionaries may complain of the want of leisure, a missionary physician has no more to complain of the want of patients, nor has he room to lament the want of success in treating the cases that are submitted to him."

What Mr. Cavers says of the subject of foreigners, without any objection, might be equally, if not more, applicable in a heathen country, will be appreciated by many missionaries in India. Much time has been lost in the former service, and even yet, as of the patients is done among the people, and it is only when they have returned home, that the man of God is vexed what he perceives to be necessary, he does year after year among them in the village, in the same unobtrusive and unostentatious way, that they learn to look upon him as a harmless person. It is evident that when the physician's calling is made to serve as a means of reaching the hearts of the heathen, much spiritual good is the result of affectionate attentions, may as equitably be expected. It must not be supposed that we are of the profession of medicine as a trap for the conversion of the heathen. What we seek is to meet them on

the right ground, and to carry at least at the exercise of medical sciences. At the same time, it is to reap all the benefit, as far as certainly can be, to find that some missionaries may acquire the talent to exercise a liberal and delicate function of healing. We shall continue the subject in our next issue.

Reviews.

NOTE.—A copy of this article, and of others in the foregoing article, may be procured gratis, by application to the University Medical Students' Association, 10, South Street, Edinburgh. Medical Missionary Society, 25, Abchurch Lane, London. Or to the University of Cambridge, on the "History of Medical Missions," Edin. J. M. G.

CULLIBET IN ARTE SUA PERITO EST CREDEDUM

We have received a memorandum on measures adopted for sanitary improvements in India up to the end of 1867, published by order of the Secretary of State for India. The memorandum also contains a most valuable sketch of sanitary progress in the Bengal Presidency previous to 1861, by Dr. E. Goodwin, late of the Bengal Medical Service, who, after perusing the abstracts of the Bengal Sanitary Reports, has made certain suggestions of practical value for their improvement in future years.

With reference to the origin of sanitary measures in India, Dr. Goodwin remarks:—"Should the history of the Royal and Bengal Medical Departments (in India) ever be written, it will be shown that for many years past they have steadily advocated and promoted sanitary improvement in India, and that many individual members of the Royal and Bengal Medical Services, amongst whom must be reckoned that earnest sanitary reformer, Sir J. Rankin Martin, have been foremost in the good work." "It was chiefly, if not entirely, among medical men that any knowledge of the causes of disease existed, and from them that any warning in the matter of prevention could be obtained. Hence the progress of preventive medicine depended upon the progress of medicine itself in India, and upon the attention which medical recommendation could command from the ruling powers. The reports of the Medical Board, and the writings of individuals, show this connection." "Besides official reports, which were not generally accessible, the numerous papers and works on Indian public health, published separately in the medical periodical literature, in the *Cuttack Review*, and newspapers, chiefly by members of the medical services during the last 30 or 40 years, and the influence of their personal representations, have had great effect in educating and moulding both general and professional opinion on sanitary matters." With this notice, only a few sentences of which are extracted, Dr. Goodwin gives a list of the principal measures or subjects affecting the progress of public health, which have been considered and acted on during the last 30 or 40 years, and he remarks on the history of each under their separate headings. We will here simply note the subjects:

1. Vaccination.
2. Reports on the topography of stations.
3. Reports upon special outbreaks of disease, or manifestations of unhealthiness.
4. Selection and improvement of encampments and stations.
5. Improvement of barracks and hospitals.

6. The condition of the soldier, involved in his diet, dress, occupations, and amusements, &c.
7. Conveyance and movements of troops.
8. Hill sanitaris.
9. Health of prisons.
10. Native medical education.
11. Sanitary reform in native towns, villages, &c.
12. Statistics and registration of disease.
13. Sanitary literature.

And in conclusion he remarks:—

“In summing up what has been done in sanitary measures in the Bengal Presidency within the quarter of a century preceding the operation of the permanent (Royal) Sanitary Commission, the present sketch shows that it has truly been a period of progress, and that a large measure of success cannot even yet be claimed for what has been done. The teachings and examples of sanitary reformers in England have been quickly followed in India, but the obstacles in the path of progress have been far greater than at home; in spite of all, however, much has been done, and the ground cleared for future action.”

With the experience thus gained in this century of the value of medical officers and medical knowledge in all works of sanitation, it seems the more extraordinary that, as progress advances, it would appear to be the aim of the Government to take all such questions out of the hands of those in the medical departments most experienced by rank and position, and therefore the best qualified to offer opinions upon them; such an idea is evidently foreign to the judgment of the Home Government, who, while looking at the subject from a distance, judges more clearly perhaps of its bearings, but who have given in to the Government of India, as perhaps not wishing to interfere too much in its manner of carrying out details.

In April, 1867, the Government of India was addressed by the Secretary of State, and its policy “of appointing the principal officers of health under the supreme and local Governments to be deputy secretaries, was questioned;” but in the same despatch the Secretary of State gives his opinion that the Inspectors-General of Hospitals, rather than the Inspectors-General of Prisons, should be the principal health officers whose duties should be consultative only, “and that any measures determined on in consequence of their advice, should be carried into effect through the offices of the several departments of Government to which the subject might most appropriately belong.”

But the Government of India, following the advice of their non-medical (civil) sanitary advisers, reject this apparently practical scheme, and in a despatch of August of the same year, state, “to introduce a really effective sanitary administration, special organisation would be requisite, and that such should be welded with the general civil administration of the country, and be immediately under the control of the chief civil authorities.” The proposed double system was objected to, whereby these arrangements would be partly under the authorities, and partly under the Inspector-General of Hospitals in each province—a system considered likely to create difficulty and delay, if not obstruction! And “it was now proposed that instead of Inspectors-General of Prisons, as formerly suggested by the Viceroy, or Inspectors-General of Hospitals as preferred by the Secretary of State in Council, medical officers, specially selected,

should be appointed for the exclusive duty of principal health officers.”

This is the origin of the present Sanitary Commissioners of provinces—a great and noble step in the right direction, were they but placed under proper authority.

But we cannot agree with the civil, *i.e.* non-medical, advisers of the Government, who directed the movement, and whose opinions are that the question of sanitation, involving as it does the whole science of preventive medicine, should be immediately under the control of the chief civil authorities.

The proceedings of Government itself thus define the duties of the Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India:—

“There is no sanitary authority which can exercise any check upon the recommendations of the local sanitary officers, except the Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India.”

“Possessed of all available information relative to the sanitary condition of the civil population, the native army, and the prisoners in jails, he should always be in a position to give to the Government of India the best opinion regarding many matters of importance affecting the health of the European troops.”

Is it reasonable to expect that the constitution of the present Sanitary Commission could be any real authority upon the last item, involving perhaps the most important part of a Sanitary Commissioner's duties?

There can be no question but that an experienced administrative officer of the medical department should be attached to each local Government, to afford advice on all medical and sanitary matters, to advise and control the local Sanitary Commissioner, who will thus be the executive under his guidance and directions; and following up shortly the administrative detail to its higher branches, we would again put forward that the proper direction of sanitation in general, and the proper authority to afford the most reliable aid to Government, in administering the duties above laid down for the Sanitary Commission of India, would be that, in which the heads of the British and Indian medical departments had a guiding voice.

Any compromise from this involves increase of detail, and questions and replies from one department to the other; this is the case now, when information can only be obtained through the heads of the medical departments; there is thus a waste of power and experience, which no amount of talent gained in other branches of the services can compensate for.

That the present sanitary administration and executive is costly, is proved by the recent expressions of Sir R. Temple in his speech on the budget. The Home Government are reported at the present moment to be devising reduction in every branch of the army, from which the medical department will not escape. The *Lancet* notices the design in the following language, which, by a little verbal alteration, would be just applicable to the present state of the sanitary and medical administrations of India:—

“What can the Government want with a special adviser to the War Office drawing a large salary, when they have a whole army medical department with a Director-General in London at their disposal? If the War Office authorities can discover no one fit to advise them on sanitary and medical matters among the officers of the medical service, the sooner we cease to pay them and abolish the department itself the better.”

wrote, that this fact alone tends to render the book quite unsuitable for translation. Dr. Ewart says—"It would be necessary to have the text-books carefully revised, in order that theories and practices, which have fallen into desuetude, might be expanded from, and new discoveries and improvements be incorporated with, them." He instances the *syphilitic* treatment advocated by Hooper and Harley as one of those practices to be replaced by 'conise directions for the *restoration* management of certain diseases." Not only so. The whole natural history of disease is changed, in a tropical climate; and, moreover, disease exists there which is almost unknown at home. We are at a loss to understand why this antiquated system of translating is again brought forward. We are, however, obliged to see that the local Government has passed before submitting such a system to the Government of India when it is to cost, more over, nearly £8,000 of precious money.

To some of the books we have no objection. Gray's Anatomy, for example, is an admirable work on anatomy, and might be translated, almost word for word. Strange to say, there is no work (standing) on this subject, of any value, translated into the vernacular.

We note that the committee have not recommended the translation of any work on chemistry or on medical jurisprudence. If they were under the impression that, because the "native doctor" classes do not attend lectures on these subjects, therefore text-books would be superfluous, they laboured under a serious misapprehension. The most urgent requirement of the day is a good vernacular treatise on forensic medicine, and on just so much of chemistry as is cognate with it. Indeed, we do not see why native doctors should not be instructed in a complete course of chemistry. As we have before pointed out, native doctors are often employed in independent charges where they must perform post-mortem examinations; and it is notorious that, at the present time, they are singularly ill-qualified to make them. It is a remarkable fact that the "native doctor" classes at the Medical College receive no systematic instruction, either in medical jurisprudence or in chemistry; and we wonder that the committee did not take the opportunity of drawing attention to this great defect in the college curriculum. It is one which has never been fully brought to the notice of the college authorities. They have, therefore, not realized the necessity of educating these classes to a standard higher than that of the mere drudge.

We venture to urge that Fowne's Chemistry—a text-book with the English classes—and an original treatise on medical jurisprudence (why not Dr. Chever's, modified) be translated into the vernacular. The committee have recommended a translation of Babo Burga Doss Kur's book on Materia Medica. But we have now a better book on this subject—Warren's Indian Materia Medica. This and the British Pharmacopœia might be translated. The committee have recommended Druff's Surgeon's Aide-Memoire for the work on surgery. The whole book need not be translated, and, to supply the place of the editions, we would suggest the introduction of suitable portions of Dr. Fayrer's Course of Surgery. Liberal translations would be wide of the mark. A good deal of adaptation would be required in the surgical department of the series. Hence, in this subject we should recommend an original treatise. We have now but physiology, and anatomy, and history. As the last is not at present essential, it might be omitted. With regard to physiology, we quite agree with the committee in thinking that a good can-

dition in English should first be made, and that this should subsequently be translated into the vernacular.

Singularly enough, the important subject of midwifery has received but scant justice at the hands of Dr. Ewart. *The committee* do not notice it at all! A course of lectures for the Bengali classes at the colleges has recently been established, and it is a subject in which these classes take a deep interest.

Dr. Tyler Smith's work on obstetrics is set down as the best book on this subject for translation; but an original treatise would be far better.

The subjects, then, which we urge, should be originally treated are *medicine, midwifery, medical jurisprudence, and surgery*. Then comes the question, who are to prepare the original works from which translations are to be made? Why should not each professor publish his own course of lectures, and submit it to the committee (the constitution of which we suggested in our last article), and who would, in fact, become, in a way, the editors of the whole, whilst they superintended the translations? We do not anticipate any difficulty with respect to the preparation of these lectures. The professors would probably have no objection to even publishing them at their own cost, provided that, by taking a sufficient number of copies, the Government would eventually reimburse them. There is little doubt that the Government would do this, as it has shown great liberality in the case of professional works recently published by two of the college professors. This arrangement would remove whatever difficulty might be experienced in treating with the authors of the English works that had been selected for translation. Medical officers in India do not write so much with the object of gain as some of their confrères in England are compelled to do. There, they write for reputation, and the money which it brings, both in the form of increased practice, and in the actual *honorariis*. Here, men make no money by writing than if they simply lived out their period of service, and avoided getting into trouble! This is one of the reasons why there are, comparatively speaking, so few Indian medical authors. At the same time there is no lack of the requisite ability, as is seen in the books which are occasionally sent into the world by an energetic few, and although there may not be the inducement to write that there is at home, there is no hesitation in a good cause.

Nor do we think that it would be necessary to offer any *donations* to the members of the committee or to any single editor or supervisor that might be appointed, if they or he were in Government employ. Possibly, the best arrangement, after all, would be to entrust the editorship to a single individual, who should be eminent in his profession, skilled in teaching, and a good linguist. He would superintend the translations of the several works. This would be a most important and interesting part of the entire undertaking. If we may venture to give any opinion as to the mode of executing these translations, we would suggest that the following arrangement be adopted. Let each of the native teachers be deputed to make the translation of his own subject into the two languages, Hindi, and Bengali, with the assistance of a pandit. They might receive the amount mentioned by the Secretary to the "Calcutta School Book and Vernacular Literature Society," viz., from Rs. 15 to Rs. 25 per page, out of which they would pay the pandit for his services.

It is well to say a few words on the expense which would be incurred by a great enterprise, say from the sum of Rs. 75,000 to 200,

to have been a fair way to go, and we not say for the day.

1. Original work from the pen of our best professional men, which will probably excite the same lively interest as that which we find in the "Leprosy and Leprosy in the charge of mental derangement, which is not only a study in sight against him, and a study in sympathy with the world of literature."

2. Text-books of real value, which will bring credit to our race in India.

(11) *Continued.*

THE JAILS AND JAIL SYSTEM OF INDIA.

(Continued from page 63.)

The first Jail Manual of the Empire, published in 1858, contained rules which had been more or less in force since the first prison was built in the province; they were simply regulations for preventing "the mingling and mixing" together of all classes of prisoners. A recent manual, published in 1867, follows the classification laid down by the Committee of 1864; but while its principles are admitted, many causes have interfered with the practice being carried out in entirety.

"In Oude all the adult male prisoners have been divided into the four classes of the Jail Committee of 1864, and each class is distinguished by colored badges on their dress." In the Central Provinces, and British Burma, beside the above four divisions, there is an additional classification, according to the nature of the crime.

The only classification female prisoners would appear to be under, is that of sex, and the Committee of 1866 record that from the earliest times such segregation had ever been the practice; the most recent English law "orders that the cells for females shall be in buildings entirely separate from those of males."

In the milder prisons of Bengal Proper, there are few female convicts, and these are only confined for a very short term. For the last ten years, all long term female prisoners have been sent to the Rossingha Penitentiary, in the suburbs of Calcutta, which is exclusively a female prison.

"The whole of the menial duties of this prison are performed by female convict warders, and the wife of the jailor acts as the matron of the establishment." Instruction of these prisoners has not yet begun; they occupy themselves in such "industrial pursuits as native women are accustomed to in their own home," but other and more varied occupations are to be taught them. In the two central jails there will be a separate female compartment where a paid warder will also give instruction.

The same system appears to be in force in all the minor administrations; no man has access to a female ward at any time, except the recognized jail officials and the messengers, and these latter are always supervised by authority; no visitors are allowed, and admission and liberation must be enforced.

In the Punjab a penitentiary* was established at Lahore in 1863 for long term female prisoners. In the other provinces of the Bengal Presidency no separate prisons exist for females, but in all the jails there is most strict separation from male offenders. In Madras, there would also appear to be a penitentiary, and I think that in Bombay, and in the other provinces, the same system is carried out. In Bengal,

The female prisoners above mentioned are the centre of segregation, and therefore are ready for the reception of female convicts, for there is a certain average of this class of offenders regularly in prison; but the provision of other such central prisons has not been thought necessary, for the reasons given by the Committee of 1864. They remark that the number of female prisoners throughout the Continent is small; that the transport to and from the islands, under the charge of police, should be avoided, as rendering them liable to hardship and inconveniences which their sex need not be subject to; that any great change of climate should be avoided also. They therefore recommend improved and increased accommodation for females in the large jails; that they should always be sent to the largest jail nearest the place of their commitment; that the accommodation for them should be improved and increased; that their wards should be as far removed as possible from the male divisions; and that a separate hospital should always be made for them in their own portion of the enclosure.

The English Prison Act of 1865 orders that every prisoner is to be kept in a separate cell by day and night; thus rendering classification unnecessary. "In India more elaborate classification is necessary," and we have seen that in "all the provinces, the separation of males from females, juveniles from adults, tried from untried prisoners, is the rule," besides other subdivisions noted; and the subject may be concluded in the words of the note: "On the whole, it will perhaps be admitted that the proper principles of a logical classification are fully recognized in this country, and are carried out wherever central jails are completed. In the smaller jails, owing to structural defects, the rules are in advance of the system, but even in these jails there is no association between those classes which by universal consent should be kept separate."

6. *Discipline and General Management*.—The treatment of prisoners under trial corresponds with that laid down for the same class under the English Prison Act, 1865, and is thus described: "The object of preliminary imprisonment being simply that the accused shall be forthcoming at the day of trial, all reasonable indulgences compatible with this object, and with prison discipline generally, are allowed to this class. They are permitted to wear their own clothes, to cook for themselves, and to communicate with their legal adviser; fetters are only imposed in the case of desperate characters, and when

* The proportion of female prisoners to male is thus noted throughout the District.

| Year. | Proportion per cent of female to male in jails during the year. |
|---------------------------|---|
| Bengal Proper | 1864 4.1 |
| " | 1865 7 |
| Punjab | 1866 4.9 |
| " | 1867 5.7 |
| Provinces of Madras | No information. |
| N. W. Provinces | 1866 2.7 |
| " | 1867 3 |
| Burma | 1867 2.6 |
| | |
| | Proportion per cent of female to male in jails during the year. |
| Punjab | 1867 3.2 |
| Orissa | 1867 7.4 |
| Central Provinces | 1867 6.3 |
| " | 1867 4.3 |
| Hyderabad A. S. Districts | 1867 7.2 |

* Note the female and male prisoners in jail.

absolutely necessary for security. No labor of any kind is exacted from them, but a rigid attention to cleanliness is insisted upon." Prisoners under sentence form the greatest bulk of the jail population; their discipline has been conducted on various principles for many years past, and still remains unredressed to any settled system. "The primary object of imprisonment is punitive, that it should be a punishment; and the secondary is that it should be reformatory; and the third that a prisoner should by his labor contribute something to the expenses incurred by the state for him; but it is one of the great problems of the day how to make punishment punitive and reformatory, and yet to make the convict pay something for his keep. If you make him acquire an interest in his work and allow him to earn too much, you destroy the effect of punishment, and enable him after his release to compete with, and perhaps eclipse, honest workmen who have never had the fortune to be as skillfully taught; and on the other hand, if you do not make the most of his labor, shown by increased annual profit, your management of the jail will not be considered as productive as others compared with it, and is liable to be called in question. The first experiment of making prison labour remunerative would appear to have taken place at the model prison at Pentonville in 1842 in connection with the separate system. Each prisoner was invited to pursue his former trade, or to learn a new one in his own cell; and from the second report of the commissioner in 1844, we learn that profits effected by sale of the products of labour were very large, although "care is taken that the regular manufacturer is not undersold, the prices upon the goods being fixed at the regular market value of similar articles."

The Italian Jail Committee of 1836 "did indeed look to a reduction of the cost of imprisonment, not from remunerative labor, but by adding so much to the severity of the sentence, as to render a shorter term of imprisonment under the then system a punishment equivalent to a longer term under the old system."

The committee of 1864 desired to introduce such discipline into jails as "to make imprisonment a really deterrent punishment." They lay down that "labor is the principal means of enforcing discipline; from it alone is derived the possibility of insisting upon order, punctuality, and that clockwork distribution of time which is so burdensome to the lawless and irregular."

They point out that stringently imposed labour is peculiarly repugnant to men of the convict class, but, says the note, "Setting aside the question of the propriety of the state entering into an advantageous competition with free labor, it may be remarked that to insist so much upon the remunerative results of prison discipline is quite opposed to the recommendation of the committee of 1836, and to the English prison system as laid down in the Prisons' Act of 1865."

The note then details the system in all the provinces in India, and concludes—"It would seem that in all the Presidencies, and especially in Bengal, the remunerative theory of prison labour prevails to an extent which makes it very doubtful whether the primary object of the sentence—punishment—is steadily and systematically kept before the prisoner." Since the publication of the paper, the Government of India has noted that as the last annual jail reports (of 1867), especially from Bengal Proper and the Central Provinces, show a tendency to make

prison labour so remunerative as to interfere with punishment, local Governments and administrations have been desired to introduce into their jails those particular forms of labor which, while they add much to the severity of the sentence, do, as a matter of fact, contribute also to meet the cost of the prisoner's maintenance.

In Great Britain "it does not appear that any prisoner is remunerative. The net annual cost to the state per prisoner seems to vary from £14 to £69."

The jail codes of the several provinces, acting on the principles laid down by the committee of 1861, divide labor under three classes. 1st hard, 2nd medium, and 3rd light; "the allotment of each prisoner to a class being left to the determination of the medical officer, according to the prisoner's physical capacity." These classes approach nearly to the second form of hard labor contemplated by the English Prison Act, and the first form, which consists of treadwheel, crank, &c, is wisely omitted for the less powerful frames and system of the Indian convict.

We will now note the reformatory agents employed, that is, agents to act as an incentive to good behaviour, in all the provinces of India.

In Bengal the only rewards open to the prisoners are (1) employment in subordinate offices of the jail as work overseers, convict warden, and convict guards; and (2) the grant of intermediate imprisonment. These rewards are open to all classes of convicts, and are accorded for continued good conduct in prison, but no convict is eligible for the former until the expiry of the prescribed term of labor of the first class, or for the latter until he has completed the prescribed periods of first and second class labor, and has discharged, without fault, the duties of convict overseer, warden, or guard.

The indulgence of "intermediate imprisonment" was founded apparently on Sir W. Crofton's system in Ireland, and is stated to be very highly prized; it was allowed in 18 cases in 1867, against 9 in 1866, and 6 in 1863."

(To be continued).

NATIVE BENEFICENCE.

We are glad to hear that Baboo Doorga Churn Laha, of Calcutta, has made over to Government £5,000, yielding Rs. 3,000 per annum, for the foundation of scholarships, to be awarded on the result of the University examinations, and for certain stipendiary studentships in the Government colleges and schools in Calcutta and Hooghly. Amongst others, we observe a *medical scholarship* for a student who has passed the first B.M. examination, and is preparing for the second examination, tenable for two years; and to be awarded every alternate year. Rs. 30.

Whilst we congratulate the promoters of native medical science in India on this laudable, we confess to experiencing great disappointment that so much should have been given to other subjects, and so little,—one-hundredth only of the whole sum,—to medicine. Wealthy native gentlemen cannot do more good with their wealth than in encouraging the youth of the country to cultivate the study of a subject which tends more than any other to amalgamate the races, and to benefit India.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

SELECTIONS FROM OPHTHALMIC PRACTICE.

BY J. B. SCRIVEN,

Principal, Lahore Medical School.

AMONG the numerous cases of eye disease that present themselves at the Medical school hospital, it appears to me that a few are of sufficient interest to deserve a more public record than that of the hospital case book.

I have therefore selected for the present communication, the following three cases of opacity of the cornea, relieved by iridectomy.

This operation was devised by Mr. Crichton, more especially for these cases of central congenital cataract, in which great benefit was derived from dilatation of the pupil with atropine. It consists in making a puncture, with a broad needle, in the sclerotic, just outside the margin of the cornea, introducing either a hook or forcos through a circle of fine silk, previously laid on the conjunctiva, drawing out the pupillary margin of the iris, and tying the silk tightly round it. The silk is prepared thus ∞ for γ g in a half knot, and drawn tight upon the iris by an assistant, with two pairs of ciliary forceps. The result is a displaced pupil, tapering towards the ligature, where it terminates in a point. Such a pupil retains the orbicular form of the natural pupillary margin, so that, on exposure to light, it contracts, not pulled uniformly, but towards the fixed point. The advantage of ties retaining the natural pupil, instead of forming an artificial one, is considerable. An artificial pupil, in which the sphincter muscle does not exist, remains of one uniform size, in all variations of the light, so that, if large enough for a subdued light, the patient is dazzled in a bright one, and *vice versa*. A pupil displaced by iridectomy, in adapting an adaptation to the light, by its contraction and dilatation, is but little inferior to the natural pupil; and, independently of this, by retaining its concert with the ciliary muscle, in the accommodative action of the latter, contributes greatly to the excellence of vision.

CASE I.

Misheer, admitted March 12th, 1868, aged 40: (Hospital Register XI, p. 12.) Right eye blind, bare perception of light remaining. On the left eye there was a leucoma of circular form, extending from the inner margin of the cornea to a little beyond its centre, thus leaving a crescent-shaped portion clear on the outer side. The man could not find his way about, nor recognize his friends. Vision was not altered by a good or bright light. The small amount of vision that remained was for objects at his left side, in which situation he could count the fingers. After the application of atropine the pupil became well dilated, round, and regular, and he could count the fingers in front of the eye. Iridectomy was performed, under chloroform, producing a conical pupil, extending downwards and outwards opposite the clear crescent-shaped part of the cornea. This man was discharged on the 10th of April, on which day I find the following notes: "Can recognize people now, and can distinguish even their features: nose, mouth, &c." His sight is somewhat dazzled by a strong light; he is obliged to bring objects near, in order to see them.

He is a carpenter and says that he has got vision sufficient for his work.

CASE II.

Arora, a Malabedian male, age 20, admitted May 17th, 1868: (Hospital Register XIII, p. 49.)

In the right eye this man had a small nebula, in the centre of the cornea, but a good active pupil behind, and therefore was able to see objects.

In the left eye there was leucoma and synchia posterior. With this eye he could count the fingers, and make out the shape of the letters of No. 8; Snellen. The vision of this left eye was improved by the instillation of atropine, which broke down the synchia, and dilated the pupil evenly and well.

On the 21st iridectomy was performed in the left eye, on the outer side, under chloroform. The result was a conical pupil, opposite the clear part of the cornea, with its angle at the puncture. By this the man's vision was much improved, and he was discharged on June 25th. I regret that the improvement was not accurately ascertained by the test types.

In this case, the pupil being widely dilated with atropine, it was found rather difficult to catch the pupillary margin with the ciliary forceps so near the puncture; the operation, nevertheless, succeeded very well, but the practical lesson was not to operate again on an eye under the influence of atropine.

CASE III.

Glasoeta, aged 35: (Hospital Register XII, p. 172.) A Malabedian male, admitted November 25th, 1868. This man was practically blind. There was leucoma of both eyes. The opacity on both sides was thick and circular, about the size of a split pea; that of the left eye was at the lower part of the cornea, of the right at the lower and outer part. In a subdued light he could count the fingers with the left eye, but not with the right.

After the instillation of atropine, he could count the fingers in the shade, and even in a strong light, with both eyes, and could see persons standing before him, but could not distinguish their features. The margin of the pupil, which previously, in a strong light, was covered by the leucoma on both sides, now became visible on the left side just above the leucoma, and on the right side at its upper and inner margin. By oblique illumination it was discovered that the lower half of the left iris was adherent to the leucoma and immovable, but the upper half free. There was no synchia in the right eye, the pupil being round and active.

Iridectomy was performed on the right eye, on November 29th, the pupil being drawn downwards and inwards, opposite the clear portion of cornea.

On the 14th of December, an artificial pupil was made, opposite the clear inner part of the cornea, in the left eye, a bit of iris being seized with the iris forceps and cut off. The result is shown in the accompanying sketch.

a. Opaquy.

b. Pupil, displaced in right eye, attached in left.

c. Point of ligature of the iris.



I had considerable difficulty in trying this man with the test types. He could not read, and lacked either the will or the intelligence to define carefully the shape of Snellen's figures. He could see all the objects around him, however, and distinguish many of their details. He recognised a tree, seen through the window, as a peepul. The right eye, with the displaced pupil, was decidedly the best, although there had been more vision in the left before the operation. With the right eye he could make out certain figures, which were drawn for him, $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in diameter, at three inches distance; he could do the same with the left eye, though less perfectly; at four feet distance made out No. 50 Snellen, though not very accurately.

The reason of my operating on this man's left eye by iridectomy, when iridectomy had succeeded so well in the other, was that, in the left, the iris was partially adherent; a free pupillary margin is essential to the success of iridectomy.

In the three foregoing cases I used the simple forceps to draw out the iris, as it is much more certain than the hook.

In this operation, no blood gets into the anterior chamber; a mere drop may escape externally from the puncture in the sclerotic. Almost no irritation is set up, and the ligament generally comes away of itself in a couple of days. Chloroform is absolutely necessary to secure a complete quiescence of the patient. Marked improvement of vision, on dilatation of the pupil by atropine, may be taken as a index of its operability, whether in congenital cataract, or opacity of the cornea.

L. L. L., January 25th, 1899.

REMITTENT AND CONTINUED FEVERS.

By T. FARACON, Esq., M.D.

There are the names given to two classes of disease, which in Dr. Bryden's statistical returns are named to include all the forms of fever (except intermittents) to which the army and prisoners are subject in India.

The principal differences between the symptoms of the three fevers are well expressed by their names, and the belief has been generally entertained that they are all of malarious origin, and of a remittent or ague character. This idea is strongly supported by the observation, that remittent fevers, which are certainly produced by marsh miasm, sometimes appear to pass into fevers identical in their symptoms with remittent and continued fevers, and again that, during convalescence from these severe forms, symptoms of ague will show themselves.

These fevers, too, are more or less curable by quinine, the great antiseptic, and at the same time indicators of malarious types of fever.

Dr. Bryden's valuable tables for the last four years, however, give us data on which to found an opinion that these fevers sometimes occur in an epidemic form. They either then assume the characteristics of a specific form of fever, or, under the cloak of the names of remittent or continued fevers, another distinct type of fever is developed.

That a specific fever of a mild type does frequently occur in seasons that preclude from the observation that severe fevers occur so abundantly at those seasons of the year when, from the comparative absence of intermittents, we know that marsh miasm is most dominant.

Take, for instance, and epidemic cholera, this specific fever occurs a particular season of the year, usually the hot or beginning of the rains, at which time it is most freely developed.

Take those fevers that in an epidemic form for only three or four months at a time, though exceptions to this rule are not unimportant. Again, one regiment or body of men at a station is almost entirely, while the rest have comparatively few cases.

Sometimes, again, the disease seems to stick to particular corps, or regiments, remaining thus adherent to them, and a single regiment frequently carries the fever, apparently from one station to another, and, if not removed, will pick the fever up at a station where it prevailed immediately before its arrival.

An instance of this sort was given by H. M. Esq. Foot, who, in 1864, carried the fever to the Depot, Bangalore, in 1865, and 1866, and again at Bangalore, in the latter year, when it occurred in H. M. Esq. Foot, when in 1867 he carried it to the Depot, Bangalore, and in 1868, when in 1868, and after that station had been abandoned in 1870, Bangalore.

Another illustration of a peculiar type of fever is an interesting one, because of the year in which they occur, since the general opinion is that they are only the result of miasm, and hot, and dry weather. In Europe, and in India, it cannot be doubted that the miasm, the abundance and ordinary nature of attacks of the disease, is the same, but, however, the only cause of the

epidemics must be concluded from observing the irregularity of the attacks during which they reach their acme. Thus, in twenty observations, the number of admissions reached its height four times in October, three times in September, and three or four times in June, April, and July. These fevers, again, occur so rarely in any one year, and lightly the next.

The point, however, of practical importance in regard to this fever is the relative numbers of admissions into hospital, from among the different bodies of men under review.

They stand thus:—

| | Per cent. |
|-----------------|---------------|
| Europeans | 7.78 or 10.17 |
| Prisoners | 2.41 or 4.42 |
| Native soldiers | 5.19 or 1.33 |

This remarkable difference between the sufferings of these men is not confined to the year 1867, but is seen to occur many months of the same proportion during all former years of which we have records. It is then to be remarkable, as we see the same classes of men suffering in the very opposite ratio from strictly malarious fevers.

The cause of this remarkable difference must be sought for most probably in the habits of life of the classes referred to. The susceptibility of the European to the effects of miasm, it must not be overlooked, but that something else must be blamed as a contributory factor, for that we see this form of fever among Europeans living in cool hill stations, as well as in the plains, and in the comparatively cool month of October, as well as in May, and *señal*, from the very large disproportion between army prisoners and sepoys who suffer attacks.

The different habits of the three classes are seen generally in barracks, and in common latrines. The latter of these have been conclusively shown in England to be a dangerous element in the propagation of typhoid and typhoid fevers, and it is probably resembling the one we are now noticing. The sepoys, again, on work duty, are not so frequently provided for them at a few of the large stations.

There is, in addition, a great amount of segregation in the case of sepoys. This is independent of military regulations, but peculiar to their habits and caste prejudices, often more binding than any other laws, instances of this need not be enumerated, but on examination they tend to explain the immunity such men have always had from contagious diseases.

The system of leading men together in large barracks, especially in the hot climate by this fever, has undoubtedly a powerful influence, and is strongly supported by the following facts.

The effect of moving the regiments into compound during epidemics of this fever. It was thought that the exposure in tents was not favourable to the development of the fever. On the contrary, the fact of the tents being so generally diminished in number, and the change of the general sanitary effect of an increase of fresh air, and the removal of the barracks.

As the object of this interest is an examination of the difference in the number of the fevers. This reveals the fact that the rate of death, to be more precise among Europeans, varies less than among other classes of sepoys.

The figures for 1867, 1868, and 1869 are—

| | Percentage of deaths in admissions. |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------|
| Europeans | 1.88 |
| Native soldiers | 7.71 |
| Prisoners | 7.77 |

showing that, in the last year, the Europeans died at the rate of only one-seventh of the other two classes.

The records of the three previous years show how this immunity from death is no new feature in regard to Europeans —

| | | | Died per cent of admissions. |
|-------|-----------------|-----|------------------------------|
| 1864. | Europeans | ... | 2.16 |
| | Native Soldiers | ... | 7.89 |
| | Prisoners | ... | 13.26 |
| 1865. | Europeans | ... | 1.86 |
| | Native Soldiers | ... | 8.88 |
| | Prisoners | ... | 14.56 |
| 1866. | Europeans | ... | 1.97 |
| | Native Soldiers | ... | 6.48 |
| | Prisoners | ... | 13.83 |

The first explanation that naturally occurs of this is, that the European is probably more carefully nursed in his attacks of bad fevers than either the sepoy or the prisoner, as also that his more stimulating food enables him more effectually to resist their attacks.

A reference, however, to the preceding years shows that this will not account for the whole of the difference in the mortality. We see that in the jails a continuous high rate of mortality prevailed for three years, 1864-65-66, but fell to one-half in 1867. We are told in a note to Dr. Bryden's tables, that what he calls "Jail fever" prevailed in a number of the jails, especially up-country, and to this he attributes the high rate of mortality.

This so-called jail fever, however, passed as a scourge over the upper provinces among the village population; it had only then to be introduced into the barrack of a prisoner to find a ready means of extending its deadly influence.

The heavy mortality of the sepoys may probably be put down to this fever also, for, from mingling freely with the population, they would readily catch it, as to Europeans, from their mingling so little, they are necessarily cut off to a great extent from contagion, and thereby escape.

Other fevers, as the spotted typhoid and typhus, have shown themselves lately in India, and are a formidable addition in the classes of disease to be combated.

The mortality from the present fevers among Europeans speaks of the mildest type being as yet in their ranks. Even the mortality in prisons in this last year is less than the death-rate of fevers prevailing in England,* but we have the ratios doubtless lessened by the presence in jails of milder types, including the purely malarious.

The conclusion from the above is, that those continued and remittent fevers which during the last decade have sent 122,019 Europeans into hospital, are very serious evils, the prevention of which demands the most serious attention.

At the same time we rejoice to see from the table in the margin, that the general measures adopted during the decade for the housing and improving the condition of the soldier have worked an increasing change for the

better in regard to these fevers; especially is it observable that this last year has had the fewest number of admissions.

From the first half of the decade we see how much the privation and exposure in the field, and in bad barracks, of the large newly-arrived English army, ignorant of the country and unacclimatised, caused attack of severe fevers. The gradual diminution, too, of the British force in the country, and the consequent increased accommodation, must be considered when we account for the reduced amount of "pernicious" fevers, a like result followed the reduction of the French troops in Algeria.

The percentage of deaths to admissions from remittent and continued fevers is seen in the table in the margin; it has varied little, but has been higher for the last four years than in the four preceding.

We learn from all this the necessity for having good barracks, and the value of peace; we see also how many bad fevers must be the result of extremes

of heat, and the necessity there is of keeping the soldiers as cool as possible in their barracks. The question now is whether the very large barrack rooms are the best arrangement for enabling us to keep the temperature in them down to a reasonable degree. The answer to this is, without doubt, that it is far more difficult to cool down, and keep cool, a body of air 35,000 feet in extent, than one of 7,200 feet; the former is the total of the latest built barrack room for 20 men, the other would be this room subdivided to hold four in each division. The smaller rooms would certainly be kept the coolest by the means at present employed, the *tattie*, and would also enable doors to be more closed and kept so, for the doors of large barracks open at all hours allows the building to get thoroughly heated, and thus the soldier lives in a high temperature to which his officer is not exposed.

2nd. On looking over the list of fevers in every month, we see remittent and continued fevers mentioned in each; now we know that some, if not most of these fevers, are exaggerated cases of intermittents. Here we have miasm to deal with, and know that sub-soil drainage is our best hope of freeing the men of this influence.

3rd. Specific fevers, mild and severe, are no doubt in and around our barracks; *segregation* is no doubt our chief means of avoiding these. When they do enter a barrack, the same means on a small scale as are employed in epidemic cholera, are called for here. We have seen the success of moving into camp, unattended by the privation of a campaign. Minor means should, however, be first tried to free the barracks of the contagion before the dispersion of camp life is enforced. Much could doubtless be done by turning the men into tents* for the night, on the parade-ground or a short distance from the barracks, and having these and the spare clothes of the men fumigated with sulphur fumes, while the linen, work, and the walls are washed and whitered. The latrines should also be thoroughly cleansed and fumigated in the same way, and kept under the influence of the fumes while traces of specific fever existed.

A revised and more distinguishing nomenclature of fevers in the medical returns would give a far more correct idea of the nature of the diseases that have to be dealt with, and the means required for their relief. As an instance of this we see in the

Amissions from remittent and continued fevers in the following years:—

| | | |
|------|-----|--------|
| 1858 | ... | 33,829 |
| 1859 | ... | 25,316 |
| 1860 | ... | 17,138 |
| 1861 | ... | 12,734 |
| 1862 | ... | 8,339 |
| 1863 | ... | 5,949 |
| 1864 | ... | 4,348 |
| 1865 | ... | 5,945 |
| 1866 | ... | 4,312 |
| 1867 | ... | 3,518 |

122,019

Percentage of death from fevers.

| | | |
|----------------------|-----|-------|
| * St. Thomas, London | ... | 10.0 |
| St. George's, London | ... | 11.3 |
| King's College | ... | 18.29 |
| Newcastle | ... | 11.54 |
| Nottingham | ... | 12.78 |
| Birmingham | ... | 13.08 |
| Bristol | ... | 9.47 |
| Edinburgh | ... | 11.01 |
| Glasgow | ... | 11.66 |
| Aberdeen | ... | 9.57 |

* I saw this tried in an out-break of fever in the Lahore jail in 1861, while in tents, the men continued to suffer from the contagious fever, because they were huddled very close together. The cleaning of the barracks seemed, however, to stop the fever at once on the return of the prisoner after a few days' absence from the jail.

suffering from all the symptoms of severe shock, and the neighborhood of the bite was red and swollen. A ligature was immediately tied around the right leg, and a good dose of brandy and sal volatile administered. As soon as he had somewhat recovered from the shock, the track of the snake-bite, and the skin, and muscles, &c., extending it to the extent of a quarter of an inch, were carefully dissected out. Strong nitric acid was then well applied to the wound, which was afterwards covered with a linseed meal poultice, to be renewed every three hours. When all this had been done, the ligature around the leg was removed. Ten minimis of liquor ammoniac were ordered to be given every three hours.

After the first twenty-four hours, he had completely recovered from the shock. He then, however, began to pass blood in very large quantities from the nostrils, gums, stomach, bowels, and kidneys. To relieve this, twelve minimis of tincture of the sulphuric acid, of iron were given every two hours, with occasional doses of brandy, well diluted, as his pulse was sinking. A very decided impression was made in the hemorrhage after the first four or five doses of the tincture of the sulphuric acid of iron. On the second day of its administration, the blood was confined to the same, and on the fourth day, it had ceased altogether. He was discharged on the 29th December, but continued as out-patient for weeks afterwards, as he had become quite anemic, owing to the great loss of blood he had suffered.

THE PEKING HOSPITAL.

By R. HARVEY, Esq., M.B.,
Civil Surgeon, Hongkong.

ALLUDES to the remarks on medical missionaries in the last issue of the *Observer*, and to the recent debate on China Missions brought on in the House of Lords by the Duke of Somerset, a brief sketch of the operations of the Peking Hospital, in connection with the London Missionary Society, may be interesting to our readers.

The Hospital—the object of which “is to alleviate suffering by curing disease, to gain the affections and confidence of the people, and to prepare the way for the more extended introduction of Christianity and Western Science”—was established in 1861 by Mr. Lockhart, Surgeon to Her Britannic Majesty's Legation, and has since continued since the beginning of 1864 by Dr. Dudgeon, the present Physician to the Embassy, whose reports for 1864, '65, '66, and '67, are now before us.

Situated at first in the location buildings, it speedily became popular in spite of the suspicions of the authorities; but the original premises being found to accommodate the increasing staff of the Embassy, a temple in one of the leading thoroughfares of the Tartan or Northern City was engaged and fitted up in 1865. The consequence of this removal to a better site in a more populous quarter has been a great increase in the attendance—the number of new patients having risen in 1867, from 1,864, to 8,806 in 1868, and 7,722 in nine months of 1867.

The diseases treated, as shown in the tabular statements appended to the reports, are here almost all of the thousand general stock ailments of the East. The ordinary febrile affections, such as the common cold, seem to be the *typhus*, *dysentery*, *cholera*, *typhoid*, *typhus*, *typhus*, *typhus*, and *typhus*, constitute the majority of the Chinese, joined to the latter of exanthemata, including the erythema, and the chief cases of the prevalent eruptive diseases. Operations for the cure of enteroplegic and other fevers have been both numerous and successful, and several have produced a very remarkable improvement in the patients.

Malaria, or Intermittent fever, which disease is exceedingly prevalent and fatal in the East, and in bad cases, as many as 50 or 60 per cent. of the attacked dying. This is not to be wondered at, when we consider the prevalence of the course of

and ill-ventilated houses, and the total absence of all sanitary measures are considered. It may, in part, be due to the peculiar susceptibility of small-pox said to exist in the dark-skinned races, but we are inclined to believe that this statement has been received on too little authority, and is one of those hasty generalizations which will crumble to pieces when properly examined by the light of reliable statistics.

Vaccination was introduced into China in 1805, by Mr. Pearson, a surgeon in the H. E. I. Company's service, and has been partially taken up by the natives, its advantages being readily admitted. In Peking itself, it was first practised on a small scale, by the Russians, but in 1828, the Prefect Tseng had a tract published, stating its object and the benefits which it conferred, and three vaccine establishments were opened by the Government. These still exist, and appear to be well-conducted. Attendance is given every eighth day, the operations being done from arm to arm with fresh lymph, and a donation of from two pence to nine pence is given on the second visit, as an inducement to the people to attend and thus perpetuate the lymph supply. At the principal station in 1863, 6,039 vesicles were produced from 7,374 insertions of lymph—a fair success in native hands. The apathy and fatalism of the Chinese causes a very general neglect of the use of the prophylactic, and Dr. Dudgeon calculates that not more than from four to eight per cent. of the children annually born are ever vaccinated. The ravages of small-pox are therefore little mitigated, and it is rare to see an adult Chinaman who is not marked with the characteristic pitting. The discovery of vaccination is ascribed to the western barbarian Chan-na (Jenner). Believing that the poison of small-pox resides somewhere near the insertion of the deltoid muscle, minute directions and diagrams are given to show how the counteracting lymph is to be applied. The diet is strictly regulated. “The smells of whiskey, opium, heated kang (sleeping places) and dirty or decaying matter” are to be religiously eschewed. “For at least 100 days after vaccination, cocks, certain kinds of fish, beef, eggs, beans and bean-flours are to be avoided. For three years after vaccination, buck-wheat and cherries are to be shunned, the things enjoined as vegetables, pork, and salted ham. Three days after vaccination they are allowed to eat shrimps with rice, spirit, mongolian mushrooms, and mutton; and only in winter must birds' nests, steamed with sugar-candy, be eaten. The vaccinator at the principal establishment was presented with a crystal button from the Board of Revenue.” Happy vaccination!

Inoculation has been practised in China since the time of the Tung Dynasty, or for 800 years, and there can be little doubt that it was carried across the plateau of Central Asia to Turkey by hordes of nomadic Tartars. Not more than one per cent. die of the inoculated disease.

Fever, especially intermittent, are of rare occurrence. Rheumatism and neuralgia, with coughs and colds, are very common, as might be predicted from the extremes of temperature of the Peking climate. Skin diseases are rare, and are kept up and maintained by the diseases of beggars who, in the winter, huddle together for warmth. They are thought little of, and indeed seem to be rather valued as a means of exciting compassion, and extra contributions, and the beggars often refuse to discontinue from a fear of losing their small chance of a livelihood. Dysentery is the most common of all the *intestinal* diseases. It is to be ascribed to the solitary habits, peculiar food customs, and unwholesome diet of the Chinese. The popular food seems to be principally “raw and pickled vegetables, mung-bean, in-fermentally and badly-cooked meat, sauces, condiments and sweet meats, excessive use of tea and warm water—cold water is unknown as a beverage—and immoderate use of alcoholic liquors, opium and tobacco.” The use of warm instead of cold water to drink is considered almost gross, the people being careless as to the source of their supplies. To this peculiar

are also plausibly supposed to have been propagandists of the new faith, who had adopted the healing art as a blind, or rather as a ready avenue, to the hearts of men. All history teaches us the influence of the physician from the first empires, leading out samples by gross-work, to Sir Samuel Baker, administering his tartaric-acetic to the savages of the upper Nile; and points to the greater utilization of this influence in mission work. That the union of the missionary and the physician will be more intimate in future, we are convinced; and when it is—when civilization and modern civilization have broken down the old barriers of ignorance and superstition—when physicians, gentlemen, shall preach to the *multitudo* with hearts made tender through suffering, and grateful for suffering relieved, the grand truths of Christian equality and love, we shall hear less of grave-diggers and more of healers. Then, and not till then, may we look to see the nations flocking to the Christian fold, from the East and from the West, from the North and from the South.

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

ARM PRESENTATION, VERSION FIVE HOURS AFTER RUPTURE OF THE MEMBRANES.

BY J. N. FLEMING, M. D.,
Chief Surgeon, Nizam.

Case 24. Male, aged 20. Third confinement. The two previous ones normal.

February 4th, 1869.—Called to see her at 12 noon. Was told that she had been in labour from 11 p. m. (10 hours), and that at 7 that morning, on the escape of the waters, a hand had come down. On arrival, found the hand, and flexed forearm at the elbow, extending the forearm brought the hand completely out. Examination showed it to be the right hand; that the shoulder lay across the lower part of the pelvis; and the child lay with its belly anteriorly and head to the right. The waters had completely escaped, and the uterus was firmly contracted on the child, the form of which could be distinctly felt through the abdominal parietes. The pains had, however, entirely ceased, and the patient was free from fever.

Having placed her recumbent on a charpoy (she had, up to my arrival, been sitting on the ground), I succeeded in passing my hand along the child's arm and chest, and in reaching one of the feet. This was, with some difficulty, brought down, but, for a considerable time, the child remained fixed, although steady traction was made. The native doctor was then directed to assist the "version" by external pressure in the direction required, and, in a short time, I had the satisfaction of feeling the child move distinctly, while the hand receded inside the vagina, and the irregular form of the mother's abdomen disappeared.

The patient was now allowed to rest for a short time, and then I let her down with her joints which had returned slightly. In an hour the child was born, in a half breech position, on its back anteriorly. The afterbirth followed almost immediately.

The child, a female at the full time, was dead but not decomposed. The cord was twisted and neck.

February 5th.—Was unable to see the patient again till to-day at 5 p. m. My native doctor had, however, seen her in the morning, and, finding her weak, had administered an ounce of castor oil.

At my visit found her in a high fever; pulse 120; skin hot and dry, and complaining much of thirst. The uterus, however, was not unusually enlarged, and only slightly tender on pressure. Oil had not been given. Ordered her to be taken at once to hospital (she was in a village 4 hat outside the town), to have one ounce of castor oil with four ounces of water administered as early as possible by enema, and afterwards opium gr. j. Pulv. Jacobi, was given.

February 6.—Found her this morning very much better. Pulse 90 (in a. m.) and not tender on pressure. Bowels had been relieved twice by enema, and she had slept pretty

well. To be kept on low diet, and have opium and antimonial powder in half dose at bedtime.

Recovery was now rapid, and on 11th February she was discharged well.

A CASE OF EXTENSIVE INJURIES OF THE HANDS, AND A SUCCESSFUL CASE OF RHINOPLASTIC OPERATION.

BY GOPAL CHUNDER ROY,
Teacher, Naggore Model School.

The following case is presented for publication, to show how, in extensive injuries of the fingers, nature can be relied on with advantage. In fact, the injury was so violent in this instance, that I only deferred the amputation to observe the extent of gangrene, which, I thought, would certainly set in within 24 hours.

N. N., aged about 25 years, was brought to the Naggore City Hospital on the 26th July, with laceration of both hands caused by their being crushed under a heavy loaded wagon while working in the line of the G. I. P. Railway. The accident happened at a place about five hours' journey by rail from Nalgore, and consequently much blood was lost before any surgical assistance was obtained. The injuries by accident were the following:—Right hand—the phalanges of the thumb and the head of the first metacarpal bone were smashed, and the broken bone protruded through a lacerated wound on its outer aspect. Tendons were not divided. There was compound-comminuted fracture of the second metacarpal, and much extravasation of blood on the dorsal aspect of hand, producing a diffuse boggy swelling. Middle finger lacerated anteriorly. Beside it, there was a large lacerated wound on the inner aspect of hand over the hypothenar eminence, dissecting off a flap of skin from the palm, and exposing the palmar branch of vessels and nerves.

Left hand—ring finger was smashed to a pulp down to the first phalanx, and the head of the metacarpal bone of the middle finger comminuted. A lacerated wound over the first metacarpous space completed the extent of the injury.

Except removing the left ring finger with the head of its metacarpal bone, which was irretrievably damaged, I had recourse to conservative surgery. I removed all the crushed detached phalanges of the right thumb by enlarging the wound, carefully avoiding cutting any tendon, and left it bandaged. Other loose pieces of bone were tamponed in the same way. The wound was stitched up to keep the flaps in position, and dressed with oil and carbolic acid. Both hands swelled and inflammation threatened to be gangrenous, the extravasated blood suppurated, but the parts were slowly healing by granulation, when the patient absconded on the 15th August.

At the time of his disappearance it was noted that the mobility of the thumb and fingers were partly retained, and I have no doubt that much of the motion will return in time when the effused lymph disappears by absorption, and the man will have better and more useful fingers in place of no fingers at all.

A SUCCESSFUL CASE OF RHINOPLASTIC OPERATION.

The case is a case of Rhinoplastic operation performed in the person of a woman, named Ankanez, aged 27 years, short of stature, 5th March at the 6th month of her pregnancy, whose nose was cut off by a paramore in a sudden fit of anger. The detached fragments were closely fixed to her nostrils on the bridge of the nose, and in the downward sweep the entire operation of upper lip was sliced off to the nostrils and under the chin. I thought to lose no time in computing the operation, but I was obliged to delay for two days for want of blood, owing to which I kept a flap from the back of the neck, and put it on a flap of the hand on the foot.

I had to stitch in a flap, with an incision in the skin, but, by sewing the two sides of the nostrils, and the flap, by the best sutures. The skin at the tip was cut off, and the nostrils were stitched up at the junction of the nostrils, and the nostrils were closed by sewing a flap of the hand on the foot. After the operation, the skin at the tip of the nostrils was cut off, and the nostrils were closed by sewing a flap of the hand on the foot. August with a good result.

Done, N. City Hospital, 26th September, 1868.

* *Gorgia excolata* Desj., *Gorgia terrestris*, *Acrocalyx baccata* Desj.

HILL STATIONS IN BENGAL.

Our attention has been drawn to a letter from Dr. Beaton, formerly Inspector-General of Her Majesty's hospitals in the Bengal Presidency, published in the *Lancet* of the 13th February last.

Dr. Beaton writes—"When I left India in 1868, the amount of accommodation (in hill stations) was much the same as I found it on my arrival in Bengal in 1863." The sentence expresses truth; but the substance hardly gives the idea of the progress that is going on to establish British troops in the hills, as the result of the conference on the strategical positions of the army that took place in 1865.

We have been at some pains to find out the number of men and families who were in the hills during 1866; we can now show also the number who will reside in the hills during this summer of 1869, and the probable number that will be sent there in the two following years.

In the last weather of 1866, there were 4,256 men and 206 families resident at the different hill stations, including 1,051 men who were employed as working parties on several hill roads.

In the course of the summer of 1869, there will be 5,501 men and 180 families accommodated in the hill stations, including 1,150 men employed as working parties; or, using figures of comparison, in 1866 there were 11.5 per cent. of the troops housed in the hills; in the ensuing summer there will be 18 per cent. And although this only shows an extension of barrack accommodation for 746 men, it does show that increase, and also that there are 271 more families provided for now than was the case two or three years ago.

We can thus summarise the present state of progress:—

At Bancalety, a newly-planned hill station near Nynce Tal, 200 men are to be accommodated this year; but it is believed that quarters for a full regiment, and probably a convalescent depot, will be shortly sanctioned; and it may reasonably be expected that two years hence upwards of 1,000 men will be there provided for.

At Chakrati, another new hill station, three marches from Lunhour on the road to Simla, provision has been made this year to house 850 men and 49 families, while it is understood that sanction has been asked to establish a convalescent depot there also, which, within the next two years, will provide for at least 500 more. At Deogiling, where, from the decay of old buildings, only 184 men and 59 families can be sent this year, new barracks have been commenced to shelter a full wing of a regiment (450 men), and two years hence will see that number settled there. At Dalhousie, barracks are building for 500 men, of which two will be ready before the rains this year, and 150 men will be sent to occupy them; the remainder of the buildings will be completed before the rainy season of 1870; it is also projected that a convalescent depot should be established here as well.

We thus show positively that next year at least 350 more men will be added to the number—5,501—of this year, and that in the summer of 1871 an addition of at least 2,000 men will take place to the figures already given. During the next year also it is very probable that the strength of working parties in the hills will be further increased.

We should like to see this occupation for soldiers more rapidly extended; from the earliest times, soldiers have been utilized in this manner, and always with the greatest advantage; the value of troops so inured to work was illustrated last autumn in the men who, hardened and seasoned by labor and camp life, took their place in the Hazara campaign, and suffered nothing during their exposure in it.

Working parties, who numbered 1,051 in 1866, will number 1,150 in 1869, and there is no reason why a progressive increase should not go on. The present Commander-in-Chief initiated the system when in command of the Bombay Presidency, and he is still well known to be a warm advocate of the practice; the system also is being looked on with more favorable eyes by Government, as the results have proved so satisfactory in regard to the health and conduct of the men, and as the products of their labour has proved to be so profitable.

It has been stated above that 18 per cent. of the troops in Bengal will be accommodated, or employed, during the present year in the hills; and if we take the strength of the army as it at present exists, and calculate accordingly, we shall find that during 1871, 24.7 per cent. will be quartered in them during that year; this figure, moreover, does not include a certain increase in the number of families sent up from the plains, and a probable increase in the strength of the working parties.

The Royal Sanitary Commission at first proposed that at least 20 per cent. of troops should be in the hills; that amount will be exceeded the year after next. More recently, however, that commission considered that not less than one-third of the troops should be accommodated, and that the remaining two-thirds should regularly have their turn. Dr. Beaton's views have ever been "that nothing short of full accommodation for at least one-third of the British force in Bengal will keep that force in good health and in thorough military efficiency;" and, again, "every regiment, I conceive, should spend the first two years of its Indian service in the hills, and afterwards two years in the mountains for every four years in the plains; with such an arrangement, every regiment holding in India might pass through its ten years of Indian service without being seriously impaired in health."

We fear that there are no measures in operation to bring the percentage up to 33.3, or the one-third required by the most competent authorities. No signs are evident of any sites being examined for new stations, or for any such increase to existing ones, and beyond the possible augmentation of working parties in huts or camps, and the probability of more families being provided for, we do not see a prospect of the 24.7 per cent. being exceeded for some years to come.

On looking back, we cannot shut our eyes to the fact of how little use has comparatively been made of our mountain ranges. Authorities in England, and unprejudiced observers in India, cannot understand why, having such climates at our command, we have not utilised them, and kept a much larger force of men there, who could well have been spared from the plains; the only excuse that can be urged is, that they have not understood the financial and political difficulties of the subject.

Tremor has now arrived, however, for seriously considering the extension of hill stations; as predicted by Sir Ronald

for a time removed from the latter." He could not have made a more unhappy statement. During the Suruj and Panjib Campaigns in 1847 and 1848, the finest and most efficient regiments had been quartered in the hills, and he saw only men those regiments, who had been stationed in the Simla group of hills for a few weeks, when ordered down on the breaking out of the malarial in 1857. These started in rude health; on reaching the plains they came into the atmosphere of a cholera epidemic then reigning. The disease, of course, attacked them, they earned it with them to the walls of Delhi, and it never really left them till their onward march after the capture. Is it fair to attribute a illness of such a character to having been stationed in the hills?

He would appear to be an advocate for regiments not going to the hills at all; he instances his own regiment, the 10th Foot, which "landed in India in 1812, and served continuously on the plains until 1857." We should like to know the vital statistics of that regiment; in its 15th year it had been probably recruited nearly twice over; and it is to save such destruction of life and health that residence in the hills, instead of the plains, is advocated.

We must not discuss the subject further. We have shown that the numbers stationed in hill stations have increased since Dr. Beaton left the command, and that the progress of extension is still going on. We have pointed out how little increase in accommodation in the hills has as yet followed the augmentation of British troops in the country, and we have expressed a hope that a matter will still be taken up earnestly.

We could not be feeling that, although so much attention has been paid to sheltering the men in the plains, there has been too little progress in utilizing the climate of the hills; but we must take the facts as they have been shown, and congratulate the army as a satisfactory result that, in the course of two years, 247 per cent. of their numbers will be stationed in good climate, and we must hope that measures will soon be thought of to provide for at least one third of their whole numbers.

THE EAST INDIAN RAILWAY.

PROGRESS up the country in March last, we might ourselves it might be useful to note the state of the line generally, the sanitary and conveyance arrangements in vogue, and the practical conveniences at several stations, with a view to forming an opinion as to the care and attention paid to these matters on the line. The barrack offices for troops, although somewhat improved of late years, are still often found in a very dilapidated state, from want chiefly of supervision; perhaps, but more from the rough utensils provided for their use; in the stations of this rich and great company, however we expected to find the most modern appliances, and a system of complete sanitary in adopting them for use.

We could only the railway stations have every facility for being kept in the highest possible order, at a minimum of expense, and that there should be no one part of the arrangements which could be taken exception to. In regard to "offices" particularly, although there is a rush to them on the arrival of a train, it is very many hours when the places are empty, and moreover there is no excuse for the most perfect cleanliness not being observed.

With this preamble we will proceed to take our place in the "up-express" from Howrah. On the platform here a strict uniform small directs you to the office, so-called, but a partitioned are here ranged against one side of a long passage-like room, very badly lighted, an open iron or zinc tubing, some six inches wide, runs along the whole length of the wall, into which water is constantly dropping in sufficient quantity to cause a small stream, below the tube, on the floor level, is a saw-like stone-drain, the joints cemented apparently with lime mortar. The surface of the drain was thickly incrusting with evaporated silts of lime, and hence the powerful odour which pervaded the place. Griatings were most conveniently placed to stand on, and we must say that, although formerly frequent visitors at the station, it was the first time this state of things had been noticed, it is mentioned now to show that where there is a bad system, its effects must appear some time, and be offensive. Against the opposite wall are enclosed places, each containing a fixed wooden commode, apparently on the water-closet system, but the pans were choked up, no water was in operation, the woodwork of the seats were overlaid with damp and dust, and all was so objectionable that to use them would have been difficult. With the ample command of water at this station, and the facilities of flushing and discharging sewage into that great sewer at Calcutta—the Hooghly—only a few yards distant, it seems extraordinary that the patent inventions of modern times have not been made use of.

Starting about 9 p. m. with the intention of going "through" without stopping, *i. e.*, a journey of 1,155 miles to be performed in about 52 hours, facilities for food and broken-sleep should be afforded, whatever may be the traveller's capabilities for enjoying it; but just, perhaps, as you get off soundly you are waked up at Burdwan, in three hours time, with "tick-to-plow, Sir." We would suggest to the Railway Company that they should institute some system by which "through" travellers could be saved this positive inconvenience, even if injury to health does not ensue, from the loss capability of bearing fatigue, to a broken night's rest occasions in a long journey.

Water-closet.—Reached about 7 a. m.; on the up-platform there was no outward sign, after investigating several directions, the office was discovered. There were compartments, each of which was an iron pan fixed on a light iron tripod, the pans had been used, and were filthy; there was no other convenience, or place set apart, and the state of things made the office better imagined than described.

Wood Seats.—A common earthen *plow* stuck on an iron tripod was the primitive arrangement at this station, an ordinary commode, filthy, dirty, and the woodwork soiled and sordid, was the other convenience.

Seats.—The office is a little distance from the hill side; part of the platform, a structure, a "dinning-s" which, in respect to the entrance, the original patent has six partitions, but the one circular space is divided into four, and completely covered with a grey, coverless, wooden commodes were placed in rows, mounted with sheets of galvanized iron, placed on end. Galvanized iron pins are here fitted into a wooden frame, the seats were most filthy, they were discoloured and sordid, with mildew and moisture, no one could attempt to sit down on them. This office is evidently used by all classes, and the numerous finger marks on the divisions of the compartments gave office.

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through—it is part of their duty to do this, and as performance of it often involves the safety of the train, they should be protected in doing so. Constantly looking to the front without protection, while going rapidly through the air in a Bengal fog, or against a hot wind in the North-Western Provinces, must be a most trying thing, and straining to the eye and sight. In America and England the protection is afforded; why not here?

We fear we may be thought to be cavilling at trifles; but the object has been to point out where present practices might be improved upon. To turn to a pleasanter task, that of finding a better line in the world than the E. I. Railway, from Howrah to Gazeecabad. The sleeping carriage is in itself, we have no hesitation in saying, the best fitted up of any line in the world; there is length and breadth, and a good cushion to lie on, and only those who have made long journeys in Europe and America can appreciate the luxury of having such space all to oneself.

At Gazeecabad, on changing carriages to those of the Punjab Railway, we find the change in comfort at once. On the principle of the P. & O. steamers, which are the worst ventilated ships in the world, though plying in seas where the best and most perfect airiness is required, so, on the Delhi Railway, where for some months of the year, those during which the most travelling would take place, you would be glad of the warmth, softness, and comfort of the Calcutta line, you find the carriage with open cane-work from end to end, so that the wind blows through, and you can see and hear the occupants of the next compartment; the seats also are of cane, each bench having four wooden bars across, to point out the place for four travellers, but to lie down on this is impossible, at least without the pain of many a sore bone in the morning. There is some sort of an arrangement by which planks are pulled out from under one side, and reach across to be fastened under the seat of the other, like the bars of a Calcutta bed, this is for the convenience of sleeping we were told, but it would require six inches of mattress on their top to make them at all endurable.

The small number of accidents on the E. I. Railway has been most creditable to the management of the company; seeing, however, that double the number of people were killed in 1868, to the preceding year, we hope they will not suffer their servants to get careless.

There must be such an amount of sameness in the daily working of small matters, which, if not attended to, might occasion the loss of all the lives in the train, that we often wonder more accidents do not happen under the common apathy of human nature when daily employed in the same routine.

How much now depends on the native telegraph worker under the station-master,—how one misspelling, or a moment's forgetfulness, might, on a single line, cause two trains to meet half way at speed.

The employé's appear to be on duty a long time; eight hours on a stretch is not uncommon, if too much tension of attention is entered, men must come to occasionally, as the Americans say, "letting things slide."

The following table is interesting and curious —

For the year 1867.

| | Travellers. | Country. |
|---|------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 | passenger out of | 108,551 in Prussia. |
| 1 | " " " | 5,600,600 in Belgium. |
| 1 | " " " | 1,790,000 in France. |

| | | |
|---|------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 | Passenger out of | 1,000,000 in England. |
| 1 | " " " | 116,511 in Russia. |
| 1 | " " " | 2,376,234 in E. I. R. India. |
| 1 | " " " | 1,005,201 on the same line in 1868. |

Of America we have no similar account; it is the country next to Russia, where human life is taken least care of, but in the year 1866, 79 persons were killed in the State of Jersey, U. S., on 700 miles of rail only. In that year, the total number of miles open in the States was 51,000, and if the same ratio were persistent, 5,600 people would have been slaughtered.

We should like to hear a medical account of the Viceroy's recent remarkable journey. An express train, filled with the members of Government, travelled the whole distance, 1,155 miles in 41 hours; this included five hours of stoppages—actual number of hours 36—a little over 32 miles an hour, the quickest and longest journey ever performed in India. These officials had had a sedentary and office life for some months past in the enervating climate of a Calcutta winter, and we cannot fancy but that some among them, starting suddenly on such a rapid journey, must have felt uncomfortable present effects, where we hope, however, they will end.

We may, on a future occasion, pursue this subject, and try to find out the physiological action of railway travelling on such long journeys on all classes, sexes, and ages. We are quite sure of one thing, that, but for the comforts and conveniences of the E. I. R. line, the public would long ere this have found out that such travelling could not be performed with impunity.

HEART DISEASE IN INDIA.

In the *Lancet* of the 20th February, Mr. Myers of the Great Western Guard, attacks the subject of heart-disease in the Army, and gives this table:—

Statistics of deaths from aneurism in the Foot Guards and Line regiments at home compared with the Navy for four years.

| YEAR. | ARMY. | | NAVY. | |
|-------|-----------|---|-----------|---|
| | Strength. | Ratio of deaths from aneurism per 1000. | Strength. | Ratio of deaths from aneurism per 1000. |
| 1862 | 49,332 | ·28 | 58,870 | ·11 |
| 1863 | 41,291 | ·47 | 51,020 | ·05 |
| 1864 | 40,539 | ·37 | 53,000 | ·18 |
| 1865 | 42,228 | ·35 | 51,210 | ·07 |

The comparison between the Army and Navy is very suggestive. We have extracted from Dr. Hayden's tables following statistics of heart-disease and aneurism in the British Army in India since the year 1855. Deaths under "heart-disease" occurring under *Morbus cordis* and *Pericarditis* those included for the same being recorded under the latter diseases with *Palpitation* and *Angina pectoris* in adults —

are so frequently resorted to for mere safety, owing to the extreme insecurity of many of the prisons, as to be of little efficacy as a punishment; and as in the majority of the Bengal jails there are no cells, flogging is the only really efficient punishment.* Twenty per cent. of the daily average of prisoners were beaten in 1867; it is reported that the number of stripes never exceed 30, that no permanent injury has ever been sustained, and that it is always performed with the cognizance of the medical officer.

With a view, however, to lessen such an amount of flogging, a system of penal dietary has recently been introduced with the sanction of the Government of India, who directs a report to be made of its action a year hence, for submission to the Secretary of State.

In Madras and the North-Western Provinces, the punishments in use are flogging, extra labour, and double irons, and they have rules for regulating restriction of diet; this latter, when awarded as a punishment, consists of a diminution of the ration by one-third, unless there are medical reasons against it.

Bombay has solitary confinement up to seven days, confinement in the stocks up to 12 hours, and flogging not exceeding 25 stripes.

In the Punjab, Oude, and Central Provinces, the punishments are increased labour, refusal of permission to see relatives, solitary confinement, heavy irons, and flogging in extreme cases, under the regulations in force in Bengal.

In Burmah, a maximum of 40 stripes is allowed, and for the punishment of females, they employ means which do not appear in other jail codes, "placing them in a straight jacket, or handcuffs, or both, and cutting their hair close." In Mysore, extra to all that has been detailed, are "separation in a punishment-yard, punishment exercise, wearing a mask, and two species of solitary confinement."

Education is conducted on nearly similar principles throughout all the jails in the country. A certain number of prisoners are compelled to learn at hours not employed in labour; and the more educated wardens of the convict class are made to overlook them; no paid instructors are employed.

As education spreads among the mass of the population, a different system will rise in jails; but, at present, while the educational efforts of the State can hardly be said to have reached the stratum of the class which furnishes the prison population, it is not thought right to entertain paid agency, or to insist more on the acquiring of knowledge. To discharge men from jails, educated, with the means of thus gaining a higher livelihood, would be a great act of reformation certainly; but an act that would be gained at the expense of elevating a dishonest above an honest man, and would, in fact, hold out a premium on crime.

In Bannah, where it appears that "seven-tenths of the prisoners are able to read and write their own vernacular, the form of education that has been introduced is to teach English;" and this arrangement has very properly been cavilled at, because teaching a prisoner a remunerative employment, which he can make use of after his discharge, is not a deterrent punishment.

The views of the committee of 1856 on this subject were

* It is this which calls forth the ire of the Editor of a Bengali newspaper, when he says in a late issue—"Prisoners not having English education, and in their terms, are subjected to the lash?"

against instruction of the criminal population, as giving them advantages that honest men could not obtain; but "at the present day Government will probably be prepared to admit the obligation of finding elementary instruction for all juvenile prisoners, and for all long-term prisoners in central jails, by convict agency if possible, if not, by paid agency."

It still remains a question whether the systems of labour and punishment in force have any deterrent effect on the native of India; his want of shame or gratitude, his apathy, his disregard of provincial or family ties, his own conscience unawakened by civilization from its dull and blunt state, the absence of religion to form motives of action, and his caste, which frequently comes in to teach the son what the father and his former progenitors have done before him, all combine to make him a being not easily to be acted on through his intellectual qualities; so that it cannot yet be said that jail discipline in India is really satisfactory, either as a reforming or deterrent agent.

The local authorities of each province, says the note, hold such contradictory views on the result of prison discipline, that no satisfactory statement can be made. The committees of 1856 and 1864 both note the increase of the convict class, but hope that the effect of improved knowledge and discipline will in future years diminish their numbers; firstly, by educating the masses outside, and secondly, by making punishments inside a jail really punitive. The Inspector-General of Bengal asserts that prison discipline under him is not deterrent; the Lieutenant-Governor of Punjab asserts that prison discipline in that province is.

In the North-Western Provinces a statement shows that there were 16,576 prisoners sentenced in 1861, against 28,451 in 1867, and re-convictions have increased almost in a like ratio; "but in the absence of authentic statistics of the increase of population, of the effect of a more vigorous and searching administration, of the operation of the codes that during the last few years have come into force, and of the greater efficiency of the re-organized police, any inference would be very untrustworthy. And it will be remembered that even if complete statistics for a sufficient number of years were available in any province, they would prove but little as regards any system of prison discipline, because no province can be said as yet to have any fixed and complete system of prison discipline at all. Every year sees changes and improvements, and, pending the completion of central jails, prison discipline must remain in a transitional state."

(To be continued.)

THE FURLOUGH RULES OF 1868.

A RECENT "Indian Public Opinion" has an interesting article on the present uncertainties of furlough rules, as regards to staff and regimental and civil appointments, leaving or awaiting them on leave, &c. in relation to the medical service, and we fear it gives rather a true picture, but its conclusions on private affairs are for the present not available, owing to the paucity of medical officers in the country, the question at issue will probably be settled before that service is supplied, if it ever reaches it. This for the article.

deserving regimental mate to succeed the hospital mate. But, although the most ample encouragement is hereby given to merit, it must yet be understood that seniority, where merits are equal, is to have the first claim to promotion."

The records are in good preservation: they are written on thick demi-voilé paper, in good, plain, legible hand-writing, better, indeed, than is often employed at the present day, and in ink which, though here and there discoloured by age and damp, is still quite distinct and legible; they are bound up in yearly or half-yearly volumes.

The first volume for 1787 opens with "A meeting of the Hospital Board" held at Fort William, the 2nd January, 1787; Messrs. Ellis, William, and Fleming being the members, and Surgeon A. Campbell the Secretary.

The Board held weekly meetings every Tuesday; their first work was to read and approve of the proceedings of the former meeting. They then considered letters addressed to them, letters they addressed to Government, corresponding direct with "the Right Hon'ble Earl Cornwallis, Governor-General in Council," and to members of the service under their different titles.

One of the first letters is addressed by the "Head Surgeon, Campore, dated 23rd December, 1786, to James Ellis, Esq., Physician General, Ac., Member of the Hospital Board."

He advises the board to sanction provision of quarters for the gentlemen who attend the general hospital at the station, and recommends the purchase of a house (for Rs. 1,500) well situated between the European and Native hospitals, so that they could give the earliest attendance in either hospital on cases of emergency.

The post must have been well arranged; for on 2nd January the board reply that "as the surgeons in the field are on the same footing with the officers," they deem your request inadmissible.

The first appointment of a surgeon to the medical charge of a jail would appear to have taken place about this time under a Board's letter to the Governor-General in Council of 11th January, (replied to by Government on the 15th January,) "as we think the charge of visiting the sick prisoners in the jail (at Futeelghur) would be better executed by a person particularly appointed for that purpose than by the hospital nurses in turn, as is the case at present; we further request your Majesty's permission to recommend Mr. _____ to be appointed to do that duty under the direction of the Head Surgeon."

A week later may be noted as the origin of medical certificates. E. Hay, Secretary, writes from the Council Chamber, Secret and Military Department, by direction of the Right Hon'ble the Governor-General in Council, to the "Physician General and other members of the Hospital Board," "that I am also to intimate to you a resolution passed by the Right Hon'ble the Governor-General in Council that, in future, any application of surgeons or assistant-surgeons to proceed to sea, or out of their health, will not be admitted unless accompanied by the testimony of a surgeon at the place of their residence, showing the necessity or expediency of it; or, if no such testimony can be had, owing to the circumstance of no surgeon being on the spot, that you are to send in such evidence in support of the application as will justify an absence in it."

The Surgeons of Artillery represent to the board that there are six companies of Lascaux attached to each of the battalions of European Artillery, and that as the hospital allowance has recently been restored to the surgeons of the sepoy corps to supply them with leazar medicines and other necessaries, so some proportionate allowance should be granted for the Lascaux; this to the Board on the 29th January, and the Governor-General replies to the Board on the 31st January, that, on their recommendation, the sum granted for each company of corps of Artillery Lascaux shall be twelve rupees a month, to include all medicinal charges except doles.

A surgeon at Jinnapoor on being appointed to the 40th battalion of Europeans at Dinapore writes to the Board that, as his present appointment hardly admits of subsistence for his family, he had entered into concerns of a private nature, "of which he may remain for twelve months more at his old station. This arrangement (without pay) is eventually sanctioned by the Governor-General.

The surgeon of the "new Fort" (the present Fort William) forwards a list of the Engineer corps employed on the works—

Exclusive of 18 European officers, it shows—

| | | | |
|-----------------------|---------|------------------|---------|
| Lascaux | ... 110 | Caulkers | ... 3 |
| Coolies | ... 110 | Sawyers | ... 3 |
| Carpenters | ... 31 | Plumbers | ... 2 |
| Bricklayers | ... 36 | Grass-smiths | ... 2 |
| European Supernumera- | | Iron-smiths | ... 2 |
| ries | ... 4 | European Writers | ... 2 |
| Draftsmen | ... 4 | Bleechies | ... 12 |
| Painters | ... 3 | | |
| | | Total | ... 241 |

Additional (10 Lascaux & 10 Coolies) in the rainy months.

A petition from two assistant surgeons, representing a preference of twenty-four of their body, here takes up 27 pages of the demi-voilé paper, on which the Board's proceedings are written.

A list of surgeons, dated 1st March, 1782, gives the Bengal complement at—

| | |
|--------------------|------------------------|
| 1 Surgeon-General, | 51 Surgeons, |
| 2 Surgeon-Majors, | 31 Assistant-Surgeons, |

The following is perhaps the first instance of the substitution of sanitation or of all events provision for the sick being mooted. The writing is a copy of the original, from Mr. Hamilton, Head Surgeon at Futeelghur, to the Board, dated 3rd March, 1787:—"The sick at this station are placed in one of the cavalry ranges which is only tiled and not above 9 feet high; in the warm season from the lowness of the roof and retaining heat of the tiles, it will be as close and hot as an oven, which will render their situation extremely unhealthy, and increase their fevers, and prevent the cure of disorders in general. Another great inconvenience attending the hospital being there, is that the other Europeans are converted into barracks which makes it almost impossible to keep the sick from mixing with the other men and getting drunk, the fatal effects of which are too well known; besides the place it off is equally as unhealthy as a fixed camp, from the filth, &c., occasioned by the great number of people necessarily around it. From hence permit me to represent to your consideration the urgent and indispensable necessity of a hospital, with other conveniences being built on a healthy situation, and walled in for the reception and preservation of the sick."

The next letter more immediately concerns sanitation of British and native troops. It is from Mr. Ross Munro, Head Surgeon at the city of Madras. He reports the accommodation provided is unfit for sick Europeans, and that there is no provision whatever for native sick, and begs the Board to represent to Government that both from motives of expediency and humanity a set of proper buildings should be erected. Many of the European sick are obliged to be attended in tents, the others are lodged in a very low-roofed, confined apartment round the burial place of a large mosque, and it is equally incapable of being rendered a comfortable location in the cold, or a well-ventilated one in the hot season; and he goes on to say, this "building in which many disorders have already put on putrid appearances is so inconveniently placed at the eastern extremity of a mountain, near seven miles long, that the wind must blow on it with the accumulated heat which they will have acquired by passing over a range of rocky hills of several miles to the westward, the encampments, and the fort, so that the air within must be almost insupportable to the patients during the hot months."

(To be continued.)

Review,

Insects and Disinfection, by R. A. SMITH, P. D., F. R. S., Edinburgh, Edinburgh and Douglas.

This little volume contains a record of Dr. Angus Smith's experience in attempting to obtain results by cytoeth method hitherto untried. Most of it, the author tells us, has already appeared in print in his report to the Cattle Plague Commission, and in articles contributed to different journals.

After a short introductory history of disinfection, the author, under the head of "the dangers to be averted," gives such information as is necessary to make the general reader acquainted with the modern theories of epidemic disorders in their relation to the part played by decomposing animal and vegetable substances, and the extraneous introduction and development of the seeds of germs of disease respectively. The chemical and

in theories of Lebig and Pasteur, are readily touched upon, and the retention of the subject of acidobacteria is also briefly explained. The author then proceeds to consider, separately, grass and vegetable acids, including the derivation of them from their bases, malic, succinic, lactic, malonic, oxalic, and citric acid.

The comparative power of acid stains, when water is used, the preventive use of alcohol in a histology, and the relative values of different acid-fastness as decided by using the method of von Thomsen and the principle of the subject of the results of experiments, which are given in a tabular form, with a text of commentary, and in a paper written originally with special reference to the plager, the author affords a summary of his reasoning on the use of disinfectants. A short appendix contains a very useful enumeration of the reagents in their application to various diseases. The book is clearly written, and may be considered a valuable treatise by the general as well as the professional reader.—*Lancet*.

NOTICE OF REMEDIES.

We have received from Messrs. Barthelemy & Co. a bottle of Norwegian Cod Liver Oil prepared solely by Peter Møller of Christiania, member of La Société de Pharmacie, in Paris, &c., &c., author of the pharmaceutical section of the Pharmacoopœia Norwegica.

A printed sheet accompanies the bottle with information as to the origin of Cod Liver Oil as a medicine, the fisheries established on the Coast of Norway for obtaining it, the common mode, and his own peculiar way of preparing it. This is prefaced by a short account of the evident estimation the process is held in by his countrymen.

Reports of its purity, freedom from unpleasantness of taste and smell, its efficacy, its easy assimilation by delicate persons and children, without creating nausea or disgust, is borne strong evidence to by Dr. Hassel, professor of Botany at Christiania, Dr. Abbott Smith, the Norwegian Medical Society, the *Lancet*, Dr. Creighton, and Dr. D. Bosche, Physician in ordinary to His Majesty the King of Sweden and Norway.

The estimation, it is evidently of high, by these high authorities, is a sufficient guarantee for its excellence.

In its impurity, clearness, and delicacy of taste and smell, it is superior to any we have ever seen.

Local Correspondence.



TO THE EDITOR OF THE "INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE."

DEAR SIR.—Will you please insert, for the benefit of your numerous readers, the answer to this important query?

What are the conditions or qualifications upon which the transfer of rank from Sub-Assistant Surgeon to that of Unattached Medical officer depends?

Yours,
CONSTANT READER.

A Sub-Assistant Surgeon must have spent at least six months in a Medical Officer's appointment, and must have completed his course, he must possess a certain amount of theory, a certain practical skill, and must be a gentleman. There are several conditions in the Indian Act, *Ind. M. G.*

Extracts.



NEW AND GIANTIC PLANT.

WITHIN the last few days, living specimens have been forwarded to England from Sicily, of one of the most gigantic plants of the vegetable kingdom. It is closely allied to the arum (or "phorus and haberdashery") of the hedges, and, until the present time, has wholly escaped the notice of our travelling botanists. It grows, but only in Sicily, in length, reported on a stalk 10 feet long, the stem of the flower is a foot in circumference, the petals are over 200 long, purple-blue in colour, with a cream-coloured var. As this remarkable species of Arisaema quite new to science, it has not yet received a name.—*Dr. H.*

SOUR BREAD

Last year's growth of wheat is so good that bakers have found it impossible to use with their best flour a certain portion of aged and sour mill, as bakers have used too much of the old flour left on the mill, and the result is, that such bakers are now giving their customers with sour bread. The result is, of course, the poorer designation, for the best bread made from sour is kept in a cool damp place for a short time, but the process should be mellowed, attributable to the use of mellow flour which is not only unwholesome, but poisonous.—*London City Press*.

THE LOCK HOSPITAL SYSTEM IN MADRAS.

Up to the last report, 750 women have been registered as prostitutes, and of them 630 have been sent from time to time to hospital for treatment.

It is roughly estimated that there are at least 1,200 pagoda women, but of these the health officer has no power to bring them under the Act.

Madras, to carry out the Act, is divided into six districts, in each of which there is one hospital, and two or more apothecaries attached.

"Every registered prostitute has, under certain police penalties, to appear of once a week at the office in the district in which she resides, and brings with her a book in which her freedom from contagious disease or the reverse is registered. If, in good health, she receives a green ticket, in doubtful health, a ticket with a qualifying report is given her; while, if decidedly ill, she is sent off at once to hospital.

Dr. Stanborough, the health officer, has exhibited great activity in organizing the department."—*Indian Daily News*.

Dr. Stanborough, the health officer, has exhibited great activity in organizing the department."—*Indian Daily News*.

AGRICULTURAL AND HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF INDIA; MEETING 17TH MARCH.

The Society at their last meeting held that Dr. Francis Watson of London had despatched nine different kinds of quinoa seed from Atteppa. Messrs. A. Gibbs and Sons write with these samples:—"We understand that all the kinds contained in the small bags are commonly used in the Sierra as an article of food, but the *Quinoa* as a medicine only, both internally as an emetic, as a substitute for quinine in the case of ague, and externally as a poultice for cancer, granulations, contusions, &c., its chief property for the latter purpose being its great astringency." We are informed that though the *Quinoa* plant flourishes at altitudes where no ordinary cereal can be cultivated, and even higher up than the potato, it is, in some respects, rather delicate, requiring a good deal of moisture, but unable to stand any great degree of frost. In the Sierra, it is sown about the beginning of the rainy season in September or October, and harvested from January to March, according to season and locality.

BARON SHAM CHERN MATHUR has, we understand, given another instance of the liberality and enlightenment for which he has been so long noted, by bestowing a gold medal to be annually competed for by the students of the Medical College.—*Englishman*.

SELF-ACTING PUNKAH

The *Madras Athenæum* says that a self-acting punkah, on the principle of the clock pendulum, has been invented by Captain J. Jennings of the 3rd Regiment Palamcottah Light Infantry. The machinery is simple in the extreme, consisting of a few cog wheels and an arrangement of some-what novel construction. In this latter the merit of the invention consists. The machinery is now working at the Arsenal at Fort St. George, and without standing that it has been made and put together in rather a rough manner, as must be the case in most first attempts, its action is satisfactory and practical, when made on a large scale, to meet every requirement. One advantage is the extreme portability, as both punkah and machinery can be packed away in a very small compass. The motive power is derived from the weight, and the punkah is intended to work by daylight, for each revolving cog.

HYPOSULPHITE OF SODA IN AGUE.

Mr. SAOORN, Surgeon to the Convalescent Hospital, Leafeord, writes to the *Lancet*:—

"The theory of the cause of ague and typhoid fever being due to the germs of a fungus having entered the system, appears to me proved by the following cases:—

In the spring of 1868, I had a very intractable case of ague in a boy eleven years of age, which resisted all the remedies usually employed in the treatment of that disease—these being given until the boy said his stomach could not bear any more. Following out the fungus theory, I gave the patient a scruple of the hyposulphite of soda, three times a day, which, in a very few days, got rid of the ague, and he has never had it since."

In the autumn, three sisters, and the mother of the last became the victims of a very bad tertian ague, which resisted the administration of emetics, quinine, bechicine, and arsenical solution, but gave way to a very few doses of the hyposulphite of soda."

Short Notices of Recent Books.

Atlas of Venereal Diseases.—By M. A. CULLERIER, translated from the French by F. J. BUNSTEAD, M.D., Professor of Venereal Diseases in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York. Philadelphia, H. Lea, 1868.

Dr. Bunstead, who had for some time contemplated producing an atlas of venereal diseases of his own, was prevented by the great cost of labour in America. He, therefore, determined on translating the splendid atlas of M. Cullerier, and this he has now done in the work before us. The distinctive character of the translation being that the plates are executed by chromo-lithography, instead of being done by steel engraving and hand-coloring as in the original. This work is certainly the most luxuriously got up and elaborate thing of the kind we have ever seen. It extends over 326 pages of 4to., and contains ten handsomely colored plates, embracing nearly a hundred figures of different forms of the disease. In most cases the line of the integument reveals the general features of French plates rather of the real texture, but the diseased portions of skin are brought out with considerable truthfulness. The illustrations of the Syphilides being in general remarkably life-like. The Editor and Translator has appended numerous notes of his own, and on those points on which he differs from the Great French Authority, he expresses his divergence of opinion, distinctly and emphatically. Dr. Bunstead believes in two distinct forms of syphilitic poison, and gives very cogent reasons for his belief. The historical portion of this fine work is especially good, and indeed altogether it is comprehensive in its treatment of a most difficult subject. We look upon it as a work of reference which every medical man, Physician, and Surgeon should possess, and while we must compliment the translator on the manner in which he has discharged his portion of the task, we must also thank the publisher who has been enterprising enough to undertake the production of so large and costly a work.

L'Origine de la Vie.—Par Le Docteur GEORGE PENNETIER, 2d edition. Paris, Rothschild, 1868.

This little volume is professed by M. Pouchet to the great champion of the doctrine of spontaneous generation, and is written by one who has done good work in the sphere of science, and is very well illustrated with woodcuts, scattered through the text. As might have been expected, it deals with the different experiments carried on by M. Pouchet and Pasteur to determine how low vegetable organisms come into existence. M. Pouchet says that moulds and bacteria and other organisms are formed of the molecules which proceed from organicising animal matter—he is the leader of the Heterogonists. On the other hand, M. Pasteur maintains that even spores of their organisms exist spontaneously in the air, and being not decomposing infusions of organic matter, find their materials and a proper medium for their complete development—he is of the orthodox or Panspermist school. The book under notice is, of

course, to be read with this qualification, that it is written by an acknowledged supporter of M. Pouchet's views. But it must also be borne in mind that both Professors Owen and Dr. Huxley Bennett, of Edinburgh, are convinced of the force of M. Pouchet's opinion. M. Penetier, however, it seems to us, has not given too much force to his leanings, arguments, and in stating the experiments, he alleges facts which are unquestionable. We therefore urge our readers to take up this little volume, and read it for themselves. In the present state of the controversy, it would be out of place for us to express any opinion on either side.

Cases of disease of the nervous system in patients... the subject of inherited Syphilis. By J. HUGHES JACKSON, M.D.

In this brochure, Dr. Jackson reprints a paper read before the St. Andrew's Graduates Association. The author gives cases of extreme interest to prove that by working out family history, we often come upon syphilitic taint as the cause of nervous disease, where otherwise we should never have dreamt of associating the nervous disease with anything like venereal poison. Dr. Jackson is working in the Ed. opened up years ago by Hutchinson, and with very excellent results.

Conservative Surgery in its general and successful adaptation in cases of severe traumatic injuries of the limbs. By ALBERT G. WALTER, M.D. Pittsburgh, U.S. Johnson, 1868.

This is a very remarkable work by an American Surgeon. It details a new process of dealing with injuries and amputations, and gives a multitude of cases which, as their records show, were most successfully treated by this new method. The basis of this method, so far as we can comprehend it, consists in exposing the wounded part, and making deep incisions to set free discharged blood, and then poulticing the parts. He gives a suppositious case, that of a limb very much injured by machinery. It is of the utmost importance in cases of this kind, he says, that "free vent be given by long and deep incisions for the escape of effused blood confined under the fascia, between muscles, and in the cellular tissues of the skin, and that all attempts to bring the soft parts together, when lacerated or cut, by stitches, be strictly and absolutely discarded." "A limb thus injured should be placed without delay in its whole length on a well-cushioned sheet iron or tin splint, and the detached pieces of bone removed. The wound should then be freely enlarged or if no breach of surface exists, a free incision on the long axis of the limb should at once be made through dermis and fascia," etc., etc. The author who is rather thorough in his description, then proceeds to state that poultices should be applied to the parts or fontanelles, and he says that, under the general influence of these, benign suppurations commence, and healthy cicatrization takes place.

A Practical Treatise on Peritonitis and Parametritis.—By J. MATTHEW DUNCAN. Edinburgh, Black, 1869.

Dr. Duncan has given us a very elaborate little treatise on two of the most serious affections of the womb, and by adopting the very useful terms which form the title of his book, and which we believe originated with Virchow, he has done something towards exactness and precision. He thus defines those two expressions:—"Peritonitis, then, will strictly imply inflammation of the uterine peritoneum. Parametritis will imply inflammation of the cellular tissue in connection with the uterus." The symptoms and diagnosis of the two affections are shortly but very clearly described under the separate heads of "Pain, Tenderness, tumour, fluctuation and fixation." But we do not find that the writer states anything more than is to be found in recent treatises like Howarth's and other works. The chapter on treatment is perhaps the best in the work, and yet it strikes us as singularly deficient in detail. For instance, we find not a line of suggestion of the value of opium and stimulants in these affections. But on questions of poisoning and bleeding, the author gives much advice. In reference to the effects of Iodo-tincture of Potassium from the leg or foot, he states that the position in Great Britain have lost all faith in this treatment as well as in the corresponding doctrine, "the ordinary venous system of the upper extremity in the superior part of the head. But he says, "enough remains in the well-known and it appears to me, well-founded belief in the medicinal efficacy of the potassium in central affections of the venous system as from regarding these therapeutics as absurd." He also says, "nothing especially, and however that form be

* A simple attack of ague and generally was not out in a very few days. Each, at all events, is the history of a most and first attack in India.—Ed., I. M. G.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

ON PUNCTURE OF THE KNEE-JOINT IN THE TREATMENT OF SYNOVITIS.

By J. FAYRER, M.D., C.S.E.

WOUNDS communicating with the cavity of the knee-joint have always been regarded as extremely dangerous, as they are so frequently followed by destructive inflammatory changes which result in excision, amputation, or death.

The access of air to the opened synovial membrane is regarded as a great source of danger, as it is almost certain to set an irritation, followed by inflammation, which, passing into the suppurative stage, rapidly induces disorganization of the tissues that enter into the formation of the joint, and gives rise to constitutional disturbance, the precursor of surgical fever, which, if amputation be not performed, either wears out the patient by hectic and exhaustion, or destroys life more rapidly by the toxicæmæ changes due to osteomyelitis or other sources of pyæmia.

Notwithstanding the danger of opening the knee-joint, it has long been resorted to as a surgical operation for the removal of foreign bodies, such as loose cartilages from its cavity; but the opening has been made in a valvular form, and with every precaution to exclude the air. It has, moreover, been found necessary to prepare the patient for this operation by rest and confinement to the bed or couch, for it has been observed that, when the operations were performed without taking these precautions, dangerous and even fatal inflammation has followed. Some surgeons, to avoid actually exposing the cavity of the joint to the chance of the entrance of air, have effected the removal of the cartilage by a double operation. The first fixing it by a sub-cutaneous incision to the parietes of the joint, the second performed after the first wound had healed, removing it altogether. In the so-called hydrops articulari of the knee, a form of chronic synovitis, the joint has been tapped like a hydrocele, and a solution of one part of tincture of iodine and four parts of water injected, with similar results to those with which the same method of treatment has been practised in hydrocele, the excretion of a moderate and modified form of inflammation, and the consequent absorption of the fluid.

The chief source of danger, however, appears to be the access of air, or perhaps, according to more recent views, not so much the air itself as the organic germs that pervade the air, and that if this can be avoided, the risk of destructive inflammatory change is much diminished. If such be the case, the use of carbolic acid, on the antiseptic principle, seems likely to be of service, and to render a wound of the knee-joint a less formidable accident than it has hitherto been considered.

That the method of treating effusions into the joints by puncture and the injection of iodine is a good one we can understand from the analogy of hydrocele, and it is fortunate that this particular agent, iodine, seems to have comparatively little tendency, even when causing severe inflammation, to cause suppuration. For still we must not forget that it is attended with great risk, in the case of an important organ like the knee-joint, and as yet I have not ventured to test its merits. My experience, however, enables me to speak with confidence of simple punctures of the joint in the treatment of inflammation, and as I believe it is capable of affording great and rapid relief from pain, as well as of effecting recovery, I have no hesitation in recommending it, but it must be borne in mind that the operation is to be performed with the greatest care, and that every precaution be taken to exclude the air. I append notes of some cases in which I have found it to be of benefit, and in which I believe not only was relief effected, but recovery effected.

That the knee-joint may be opened and perfect recovery take place has been amply proved in many cases. Though such accidents, even when caused by sharp, cutting instruments, do in many cases give rise to flagrant inflammation, rapidly terminating in destruction of the joint and often of the patient. A wound of the cavity of the knee-joint must ever be regarded as an accident of the most serious character, and the prognosis of a doubtful character. It is satisfactory to know that, as in the cases here recorded, recovery may occur, and the joint retain its functions. Therefore, with whatever anxiety we regard a wound of the knee-joint, we know that it is our duty in the first instance to try, by careful management, rest, and the exclusion of air, to procure union of the wound, and obviate destructive inflammation of the articular cavity. It is not less important to keep a watchful eye on the patient's condition, that we may recognize and deal with the earliest symptoms of those inflammatory changes which, beginning insidiously, are apt to extend, and end in destruction of the joint.

CASE I.

Sharno, a Hindoo female, aged 32 years, was admitted on the 24th May, 1868, with sub-acute idiopathic synovitis of the left knee, of one month's duration. Had had gonorrhœa about three years prior to admission. At the time of admission, there was general fulness and swelling of the joint, with a good deal of pain, most troublesome at night. Fluctuation at the upper and outer part of the joint distinct. Patella quite loose, motion of the joint impaired; it was in a semi flexed position. The limb was put up in a *Maisoture's* splint. Bowels opened by a dose of castor-oil, quinine and iodide of potassium in five grain doses, administered three daily, and a blister applied above the upper and outer part of the joint. On the 28th May, the knee was tapped at its upper and outer side with a small trocar and canula, and three ounces of sweet oil-coloured fluid let out, puncture sealed by gutta-percha. A day or two after, the knee began to inflame, attended by febrile disturbance. On the morning of the 31st May, the knee having been swollen and painful, the gutta-percha was removed, and the joint was again tapped in the same place, and six ounces of thin puriform fluid drawn. The canula was kept in for a time, and the discharge allowed to drain away freely. Since this opening has been made, the joint has gradually improved, the discharge diminished, swelling subsided, and wound had healed by the 22nd of January. In the course of the treatment, the patient had a large abscess at the upper and outer part of the left thigh, and a severe attack of diarrhœa; the former was opened, and the latter was checked by astringent mixture. From the day of tapping, that is, from the 28th May, up to 1st July, 1869, daily record of temperature and pulse were kept, the range of the former varying from 99 to 100 in the morning, to 102 in the evening, and that of the latter from 81 to 116. Internally quinine and iodide of potassium were given; subsequently astringents when she had diarrhœa, lixivious gargles. As regards external applications, cold lotions were applied during the existence of inflammatory symptoms after tapping, and subsequently when matter formed in the thigh, carbolic acid injection and dressing. The patient was discharged on the 15th October, 1868, much improved in health, but with the knee partially ankylosed, and some thickening about the joint; embrocations were ordered to be used twice.

CASE II.

Tajmahal Hossain, aged 25 years, poleman, admitted on the 24th July, 1868, for serotinal elephantiasis and double hydrocele, of five years' duration. This was removed by surgical operation on the 29th of July, and he did well after the operation; the wound cicatrizing gradually, until the 16th September, when he began to complain of pain in the left knee. On the following day, both knee-joints were affected, and on the 18th, a collection of fluid had formed in the knee-joints. Purgatives were given at a tincture of iodine applied to the joint; a dose of

mass on was administered, and under this treatment, the left knee recovered. The right, however, remained distended with fluid, and was painful. The nature of urine was again as before, and a little of potas. administered. On the 20th September, the swelling still remaining, and there being no fever, the right knee joint was tapped with a small trocar and canula, and nearly four ounces of yellowish and somewhat viscid fluid drawn off. The puncture was made valvular, and the opening having been carefully protected against the access of air, was closed by lint soaked in a solution of gutta-percha in chloroform. The removal of this fluid gave great relief, and no unpleasant consequences followed.

On the 14th October, it is reported that both knees are nearly closed, neither fever nor inflammation subsided followed. There was no re-secretions of the fluid, and the swelling did not recur. He continued to take the iodide of potas., and for some days the knee was kept at rest. Some stiffness and weakness of the joint that remained were gradually removed by friction with empuhriment. He was discharged cured on the 5th January, 1869. The knee had perfectly recovered in November, but he was detained until the complete cicatrization of the operation wound, which was not complete until January, 1869.

CASE III.

Kally Doss Sircar, a Bengalee, aged 32 years, was admitted on the 31st January, 1868, for pain, swelling, and injured power of motion in the right knee, of four months' duration. For the last four years he had been subject to similar attacks, for which he had undergone a variety of treatment. There was no history of syphilis.

The joint was found to be distended with fluid, and was contracted. The limb was extended under chloroform, and placed on a splint, and the extension gradually maintained. Iodide of potassium was given, and blisters applied in the vicinity of the joints. Strapping of the knee was subsequently tried. He made slight improvement under this method of treatment, but soon fell back again. On the 2nd May, no real improvement having taken place, I tapped the knee-joint, and withdrew 3iv of fluid of a thin sanguinolent appearance with flakes of lymph floating in it. The opening was in the first case made valvular, and immediately closed against the access of air by lint soaked in gutta-percha and chloroform. The knee was then placed at rest on a splint, and the iodide of potas. continued. The swelling and pain were much relieved by the operation, and on the 14th he could bear his weight on the limb, which had so long been completely crippled and contracted.

Some swelling still remaining, either from re-accumulation of more fluid, or some of the old not having been removed, I again, on the 26th, drew off about 3iv more fluid just like the first. The wound was closed, and the same precautions observed as before. He was again relieved, neither pain nor inflammation followed. The knee was subsequently strapped, and on the 7th June he was able to walk, and I bend the knee in doing so. On the 27th June the strapping was removed, and I impacted oil rubbed in. On the 13th July, he was discharged, able to walk and much improved in all respects. The joint is still stiff, with some thickening of the surrounding tissues.

CASE IV.

K. C. Mookerjee, aged 30 years, was admitted on the 9th April, 1869, on admission, with chronic synovitis of the right knee. The iodide of potassium with the usual quantity of opium was prescribed. On the 10th the knee was tapped, and about four ounces of viscid puriform fluid drawn off. The wound was closed in the usual way, and the knee placed at rest on a splint. He was much relieved by the operation, and the improvement was permanent. On the 14th the joint was tapped, and on the 17th he is reported as much better. On the 20th the puncture is made valvular, joint rather stiff, but much

diminished in size. He is now nearly well, and walks without much difficulty.

CASE V.

Absojan, a Mahomedan girl, aged 26, admitted with synovitis of the left knee, and also in a slighter degree of the left ankle-joint. This came on about two months ago, after an attack of fever, and for which she had been treated with blisters before admission. The knee was much distended with fluid. There was little or no constitutional disturbance. On the 21st March, 1869, the day after admission, the joint was tapped on the outer side, and about eleven ounces of straw-colored fluid drawn off. The wound was closed in the usual way, the limb placed at rest on a splint, and lint lotion applied. There was no fever in the evening, but pain came on for a short time. On the 1st April the pain and swelling had subsided. On the 4th April the knee was strapped, and she has since been gradually recovering, having been somewhat thrown back by an attack of diarrhoea. She can walk fairly with the aid of a stick, and the swelling and pain in the knee are almost gone.

These cases all prove that the knee-joint may be punctured without severe inflammation being a necessary result, and that in a moderate degree of synovitis should happen, it may be relieved by ordinary phlogogonic remedies and perfect rest. A certain amount of inflammation, indeed, seems to have the beneficial effect of so far modifying the condition of the synovial membrane as to prevent a re-secretion of the fluid.

It is with this object, as in hydrocele, that 'trepan of joint' has been recommended, and even used by some surgeons; but I confess I should feel no little anxiety in thus introducing with so delicate and important a cavity as that of the knee-joint. I should note that, in the closing of the puncture made into the joint in these cases, gutta-percha dissolved in chloroform was used by saturating the lint applied over the spot, thus forming a protection through which no air could penetrate. The wound, if it did not immediately close, was subsequently dressed with carbolic acid in the usual way.

The result of these cases has been so far satisfactory as to encourage me to repeat the same treatment in future cases of synovitis.

In chronic effusions, no doubt it could be resorted to with the greatest impunity; but in acute synovitis it may equally be practised, and with the greatest relief, although probably with more risk.

SELECTIONS FROM OPHTHALMIC PRAXIS.

By J. B. SCHEVIER.

PRESENTED BY LAKHORE MEDICAL SCHOOL.

Congenital cataract.—The following three cases are, I think, worth recording first, because congenital cataract, though by no means rare, is much less common than other forms; and secondly, because the variety about to be described seems to occur in England only in one eye. See Mr. Crockett's paper in the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital Reports of July 1863, page 188.

If I have not misapprehended, there certainly are exceptions to this rule in India, for, in these three cases, the cataract was in both eyes.

CASE I.

Abul Durr, a healthy boy, aged 22, (Hospital Register IV, page 274) I first met at the age of 16; his sight was sufficient for ordinary purposes, although, from his earliest childhood, he could not see many objects, such as the letters, A, distinctly, without requiring to be assisted with the left eye. About five years previous

to admission, he began to find his vision getting worse: when he looked with the right eye, objects appeared double, though still distinctly defined. After about two and half months, objects became indistinct, the light of a candle appeared as if surrounded by stars, and, at last, the flame itself appeared as if divided into stars, and he could not see any distinct line of demarcation between the sunshine and shade. The left eye began to fail at the same time as the other, but for about five months the effect was that, to see minute objects, he had to squint more and more. At the end of the five months, however, this eye also became dim, so that he could see the circumference of objects, but not their centres.

When admitted on April 9th, 1867, both pupils acted well to light, but were each occupied by a dense white cataract. With the right eye he could see persons standing before him, but could not count the fingers: with the left eye he could count the fingers, and find his way about in the evening, though not in the day time. Both eyes were in a state of continual involuntary motion. There was no strabismus. When the pupils were dilated with atropine, he could count the fingers with the right eye, but he denied that there was any improvement in the left, with which, however, he was now found to have a very imperfect perception of some Persian letters, equal in size to about XL Snellen: to examine these he brought them within three inches of the eye. The left eye was therefore the better of the two. The appearances, now that the pupils had been well dilated, were as follows, copied nearly verbatim from the case-book.—The right pupil was occupied by a dense, white, nearly circular body, which did not fill its entire area, but left a dark clearing around it: it was of a bluish white colour, the circumference being much more opaque than the centre, and a dense yellowish spot was observed just outside the centre, joining the circumferential part.

Beyond the white circular mass, very fine radiating lines could be seen, with concentrated light and a magnifying lens, extending from its margin into the clearing around it. The white body itself also appeared as if made up of radiating lines. The anterior chamber was very deep, probably from there being no lenticular substance. There was no perceptible tremor of the iris.

The left pupil was occupied, at its upper and inner side, by a dense white mass, becoming thinner and bluish at its upper part. A large crescent of clear pupil was left below. Two small dense white fragments were seen somewhat anterior in position to the larger mass. The anterior chamber was as deep as on the other side, and the iris of this eye (left) was tremulous. On the 12th of April I operated on the right eye, under chloroform. Two shouldered needles were introduced through the cornea, and the opaque mass that occupied the pupil was completely detached from its connexion. An opening was then made at the outer margin of the cornea, through which the canula forceps was introduced, and the membrane drawn out. Some small fragments remained, which were removed by a spoon. Considerable irritation followed, but, by the application of leeches, fomentations, and atropine, this gradually subsided, and he left the hospital, with considerably improved vision, on the 20th April, 1867.

In May, 1868, he came again, with the view of having the left eye operated on. In this eye, as the opacity extended right up to the upper margin of the dilated pupil, and probably under the iris, I was afraid to adopt the same proceeding as in the other, lest I should fail to remove the whole of it. Chloroform having been administered, I therefore proceeded in the ordinary method of scoop extraction, making the upper section, about one-fourth of the circumference of the cornea, and removing a portion of iris; I then passed the point of the picker round the opaque body, in order to separate it from its connexions, and afterwards introduced Bowman's scoop behind it; I was surprised to find that only the posterior capsule came away, the

anterior capsule which remained, I drew out with the iris forceps. There was evidently no lenticular substance. No vitreous escaped. The pupil now remained perfectly clear.

A little pain and irritation followed this operation, and was subdued by the same remedies as before. The corneal wound healed favourably. On the 13th of July it is noted that this man had a perfect recognition of persons, with both eyes, tried separately. Could distinguish the individual features, but said there was a slight mistiness of the left eye. The involuntary movement of the eye balls remained, but nearly ceased when he looked at any object.

With the right eye he could read No. XX. Snellen at seven inches, with the left at five inches; with No. 1 convex glasses he could read the same type at thirty-two inches, and ordinary Persian type at five inches and a half; for this purpose he used the right eye, but when this was closed, read the Persian type with the left eye at a three inches and a half.*

He was discharged on the 14th of July. He came again in November for a pair of spectacles, which I had procured for him from England. Both pupils were quite clear, and the vision continued as at the time of his discharge; the involuntary movements of the eye had greatly diminished.

Thus the eye, which originally had least vision, became the best after operation, because, I imagine, the pupil was central and intact.

CASE II.

Devee Dial, aged 24, (Hospital Register XIII, page 159.) admitted on January 18th, 1869, on account of excessive distension of the left eye with fluid, which rendered the cornea very prominent, and had altered the shape of the whole eye-ball. This was of about six months' duration, but it was obvious that, in both eyes, there was a dense opaque capsule, occupying the inner half of each pupil. The depth of the anterior chamber of the left eye was fully half an inch, and both iris and lens were tremulous. The right eye had a decided internal strabismus.

It was found that there was very little difference between the vision of the left and right eye. He could see the hand in front of him, but could not count the fingers. The left (distended eye) was slightly more misty than the right. He said that his vision had been the same as long as he could remember, but he now complained of pain and smarting in the left eye, which induced him to come to hospital.

Both eyes were in a state of continual involuntary movement, and there was a good deal of photophobia, in consequence of which examination was exceedingly difficult.

A section of the cornea was made in the left eye, with the view of relieving the tension, removing a portion of iris, and extracting the cataract. Bleeding, however, came on from the fundus of the eye as soon as the section was completed, and nothing further could be done.

CASE III.

All year, aged 50, (Out-patient Book, March 6th, 1869.) Blind from birth.

With the right eye he could barely count the fingers; with the left eye he could not do so. Had slight internal strabismus, sometimes of one eye, sometimes of the other. Eyeballs in perpetual motion. Pupils acted well. On dilating them with atropine, the following appearances were noted.—

The anterior chamber in both eyes was very deep. The cataract in the right eye consisted of densely white capsule, occupying the greater part of the area of the pupil, but leaving a narrow crescent below. This crescent was comparatively clear, yet appeared to have a thin membrane, like a bit of gauze, at one spot in its inner half, marked with several small white spots.

* On examination by means of a prism, it was found that the angle of the top of the nose was visible, and I learn that now (1868) he has a slight external strabismus of the left eye, the same eye that, according to his own account, used to squint internally.

of the moon. Many experience return of fever at these times, other feelings of uneasiness or *malaise*, but not amounting to actual ague, and this predisposition to become periodically affected may remain for months, or even years, and may recur at uncertain periods, the intervals being passed in perfect health." Lastly, Dr. Peet, who, in 1813, published a *resumé* of the subject, besides mentioning several of the various author's opinions as above referred to, quotes also, "report on the diseases of the *Indus Flotilla*," by Mr. Floyd; "a statistical report on Sukkur," by Mr. Jephson; another report on Sukkur, by Mr. Edwards; a report on the 46th Regiment, by Assistant-Surgeon Dhean; Dr. Bankier's work on cholera; Dr. Murray's account of the Mahabeswar Hills; in all of which evidence in favour of lunar influence is stated to be forthcoming. Dr. Peet also mentions that, in 1839, the following conclusion was drawn from cases watched at the European General Hospital of Bombay: "that, in intermittent fever, a modification of the symptoms, chiefly by exacerbations, does occasionally take place about the period of the principal lunar alternations." Thus, it must be admitted that, however ridiculous the subject may to some minds appear, there must be at least some cause for a belief so common among the general public, and shared more or less firmly by so many eminent members of the medical profession.

But, as a matter of course, the supposed lunar influence on malarious disease has not been permitted to remain without contradiction and doubts. Dr. Peet informs us, the first attempt to decide the question by proof was made by Dr. Stokes, of Dublin. But the fevers watched were the funne or relapsing fevers of 1817. These Irish statistics, therefore, neither relating to malarious disease nor to tropical climates, may be regarded as worthless. In a report drawn up by order of the Madras Government, respecting the fever prevailing in 1809-11, the authors remark: "with regard to the moon producing relapses of fever we cannot speak with much confidence." But the most telling material brought forward by Dr. Peet is a statistical table, arranged by the late Assistant-Surgeon Crookshanks, of cases of malarious fever occurring in China, the conclusion being, that neither in the first attacks nor relapses does the moon seem to have exerted any perceptible influence. On this negative evidence, which would certainly appear weak in comparison with the wide-spread belief, Dr. Peet, in 1843, decides against the influence of the moon, and more than twenty years afterwards reiterates his opinion.

But, notwithstanding Dr. Peet's able enquiry into the subject in 1843, the impression that lunar phases influence certain forms of disease remained much as before. This is evidenced by the later writings of Martin, Moorhead, Day, myself, and others, previously quoted. And among the general public, especially among Anglo-Indians, the belief even became more confirmed. Among natives of the better class also the idea extensively prevailed. Accordingly, with the view of authoritatively deciding the question, His Excellency Sir W. Mansfield, when Commander-in-Chief of Bombay in 1860, directed that records of paroxysms should be kept in every medical charge in the presidency. At the end of the year, records of 56,175 paroxysms were made to Dr. Girard for report. The conclusion arrived at by this officer, was a balance of 618 against the theory of lunar influence.

Dr. Girard, moreover, proceeds to argue that, as the once repeated influence of the moon on plague, asthma, insanity, periodical hæmorrhages, and cholera, is not now entertained, the idea of connection between lunar phase and malarious fevers, should also be discarded. As exemplifying the strength of popular fallacy, he remarks that, although the astronomers Arago and Airy deny any connection between the lunar phase and the weather, people still predicate changes from the moon's age, just as they habitually connect the latter with fever. The springs

are said to be noted periods, and therefore the recurrence of fever at such times is presumed to be more recollected than when it happens on other days. Hence the popular belief. The following simile is also given. People in Bombay generally entertained the idea that the English mail came in oftener on a Sunday than any other day, simply because Sunday being a marked day its events were more noticed. Lastly, Dr. Girard quotes Bacon, to the effect that "men mark events where they are fulfilled; but where they fail, though this happens much oftener, neglect and pass them by."

But Dr. Girard's ingenious arguments did not suffice to prevent objections being advanced to both the statistics, and to the manner in which they were manipulated. While some observers classed all their cases of intermittent fever under the head *primary attacks*, others classed theirs as *secondary*, the latter only being supposed to be influenced by lunar agencies. The statistics were almost entirely formed from cases among soldiers, in whom debauch, exposure, fatigue, or other conditions incidental to military life, must often times have induced recurrence of paroxysm. Also the practice of administering quinine as a prophylactic was more prevalent than now, and this must, if there be any truth in the generally accepted opinion regarding the powers of quina, have interfered with the natural periodicity of the disease. Lastly, Dr. Girard made the periods of the springs to extend from two days before to two days after the date of the new and full moon. Thus, ten days in each month was assumed as the time in which lunar influence exists. But it was objected that this interval is too long, and that 36 hours should have been the limit.

Under these circumstances, the belief in lunar influence remained pretty much as before among the non-professional public; and, as far as I am aware, few medical men, previously admitting lunar agency, changed their opinions on the subject. Holding in mind the many disturbing agencies in operation against all statistical evidence on the point, individual testimony must be regarded with respect, and of this we may meet with instances almost daily. My attention has long been directed to the matter, and, on first arriving in India, no one was more incredulous. Observations of individual cases soon, however, changed my opinions, and, as I wrote in 1862, "practice in the tropics will convince the most sceptical that individuals who have suffered from malarious fevers are more or less affected at the full and change of the moon." So I now believe; and thus, notwithstanding that my own statistics, now recorded, do not support my views. As officiating general superintendent of the Raj Dispensaries in Rajpootana, I asked for and received* daily records of fever cases from twenty-six institutions for six months, and from twenty-four for the whole year 1858. Reports from several dispensaries were not included, as I felt some doubts regarding their correctness. The total number of cases recorded is 15,973. From enquiries, which need not be here detailed, I have reason to think that 80 per cent. of the natives of India suffer from one or other variety of malarious fever before the age of puberty, or say 15 years. The number of children presenting at the dispensaries was 20 per cent. to the total treated. It is therefore obvious that the great majority of the fever cases reported must have occurred in adults, and were, therefore, *secondary attacks*, or paroxysms coming under that description (afterwards more particularly referred to), not due to malaria, but to atmospheric vicissitudes consequent on lunar changes exciting malaria already present in the system, into renewed action. But an examination of the daily statement for twelve months shows that no connection is to be traced between the phases of the moon, and the greater prevalence of

* I take the opportunity of expressing my obligations to the Medical Officers who are credited to the several calling for daily fever reports, viz., Dr. Hays, Dr. Bichpoo, Dr. Barn, Jeypoo, Dr. Cunningham, Ootpoo, Dr. King, and Pooor.

then, is the true source from which cattle become cyst infected, whether they receive the eggs from the water or grass; since the human body is the host for the mature parasite. If an enquiry should be instituted, I would expect to find full-grown tape-worms amongst the population in the towns and districts which furnish cyst-infected cattle, and there also a particularity in the water used by the latter.

As our knowledge of the natural history of this class of parasites or entozoa is tolerably perfect, it enables us to suggest plans for their destruction, before they arrive at the cysticercous stage—

First.—Find out the districts which supply the cyst-infected cattle, and let there be a thorough examination for tape-worm amongst the inhabitants of those districts.

The mature worms, when found, should be expelled from their hosts by some powerful anthelmintic medicine, and the ova destroyed.

This plan, if properly carried out, would be most successful, and the propagation of the disease would thereby be entirely prevented.

Second.—Examine microscopically the water, &c., of those infected districts, for the ova of the tape-worm, so that, if it is found to contain them, it should be avoided when practicable.

Third.—Establish a system of latrines in every village, under the superintendance of the chief zemindar, who should be accountable for the general sanitary condition of the whole neighbourhood. By such a plan, at all events, attended with little or no expense, there would be less tendency for the ova to pass into the water or food used by the cattle, or to be washed by the rains over the whole district; but, on the contrary, the ova would be localized, and, perhaps, be destroyed in a short time by slight decomposition.

It has been suggested to organize cattle farms under the management of the Government, and thus insure a supply of good, well-fed cattle for the use of the troops; but it might be rather difficult to carry out, and would certainly be attended with great expense, besides checking, in some degree, the trade of the country, and preventing local enterprise. Neither would such a system produce low cyst-infected cattle, if the sanitary arrangements already proposed were to be neglected.

REPORT ON THE MEANS ADOPTED TO STAMP OUT SMALL-POX AT UMBALLA, 1869.

By SURGEON T. E. TISON, M.D., F.R.C.S.

Chief of Staff Surgeon.

The following measures were adopted at Umballa, during the time that small-pox was raging at Delhi, and other surrounding stations, and I have endeavoured to bring forward the subject, as it appears to me, in conformity with the suggestions made by Sir James Simpson, to stamp out small-pox on its first appearance, are most important.

I think the results of the precaution adopted at Umballa are as instructive and successful as the results were satisfactory, and the detection of it at this fatal disease may in a measure be warranted, at least in part.

When the disease threatened to become epidemic in the station, I instituted the full vaccination of the troops, and by personal supervision took care that they were thoroughly carried out, and, with the aid of good and able assistants, the duty was properly performed. The disease never gained ascendancy, and although a few cases occurred from time to time, still it never became epidemic, which was the result I was most anxious to attain—

1st.—Carefully segregating patients affected.

2nd.—Disinfecting the houses where small-pox patients were taken from, with sulphurous acid, McDougall's powder, and by relaying floors.

3rd.—Instating vaccination throughout cantonments, officer's compounds and those of other residents, and having a staff of vaccinators to operate through the Melroe Bazaar. All children and adults were vaccinated without delay, who were in an unprotected state.

4th.—All patients affected with the disease were at once conveyed to the Small-pox Hospital, and those patients belonging to different regiments were carefully kept apart in tents, and no intercommunication allowed.

I would wish to draw attention to the beneficial influence that McDougall's powder exercised by sprinkling it on the floor of the Hospital, and also on the patient's bedding and clothes. All bad smell was avoided, and the patients appeared to me to recover quickly.

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

CLINICAL NOTES OF CASES RECENTLY TREATED IN THE GENERAL HOSPITAL, CALCUTTA.

By W. J. PALMER, M.D., F.R.C.S.L.,

First Assistant, Presidency General Hospital.

In these days, when so much intellectual energy is expended on the study of what is called the "natural history of disease," when the more obtuse details of chemical and spectroscopical analysis are rigorously applied to the discovery of alterations in the fluids of the body, both healthy and diseased; when the highest magnifying powers of our microscopes are zealously applied to unravel minute pathological changes; and again when the thermometer, the ophthalmoscope, sphygmograph, the laryngoscope, &c., &c., are rapidly becoming recognised as aids to correct diagnosis, not less necessary to us in our day than the stethoscope was to our fathers, it is not surprising that the one great end of all our learning, *viz.*, the cure of disease, or the alleviation of suffering, should appear to be somewhat overlooked and forgotten; a visit, however, to the wards of our hospitals will suffice to reveal that many new and valuable discoveries are constantly being made and applied to the treatment of disease, and also afford strong evidence that therapeutics is not less successfully pursued than any other branch of medical study. A few examples in illustration may not be considered unworthy of publication.

Bromine and the bromides were scarcely known as therapeutic agents, until the last few years, during which time bromide of potassium has gained a great reputation as a nervous sedative, its marvellous influence in some forms of epilepsy has been amply discussed, and fully brought to notice, but very recently the emative effects of this salt, in cases of delirium tremens, or acute alcoholism, have appeared so remarkably and worthy of observation, that I am desirous to bring to notice the results of its action on some cases of that disease treated in this hospital, during the past few months.

The first case was that of a well-built muscular young man; he was brought to hospital only one morning in February, in such a violent condition, that it was considered advisable to place him at once in a room fitted with non-lath-doors, which is left for such patients. He shouted and screamed incessantly; tore the clothes on his back into tatters, and broke every breakable article within his reach. His arms, face, and legs soon became burnt and excoriated by rough contact against the bars of the doors; in short, he behaved generally in as wild a manner as is ever seen. He could at any time be subdued and made quiet for a few seconds by the influence of a commanding eye and voice, but he again relapsed into his former wild and unmanageable condition.

His medical history was never made out quite satisfactorily, there was reason to believe that he had not been in the habit of indulging to excess habitually, but having become suddenly deprived by misfortune, he had drunk deeply to drown his cares.

In addition to the usual treatment of fluid poiss he was

Case I.—The child, about 1 year of age, came in a very bad way, with a fever, dry hard pulse, and a very dry tongue. The child at this time was unable to swallow, and the bowels were not moving. The pulse was 140, the temperature 103° F., and the tongue was so stiff that it could not be drawn out. The bowels were not moving. This was a very bad case of the disease of the bowels.

Case II.—This was a large male patient, aged 30 years, who had been ill for 2 weeks with a fever, dry hard pulse, and a very dry tongue. The child at this time was unable to swallow, and the bowels were not moving. The pulse was 140, the temperature 103° F., and the tongue was so stiff that it could not be drawn out. The bowels were not moving. This was a very bad case of the disease of the bowels.

On the first night 8 or 10 drops of only two others were given, and on the following day the dose was increased to 15 drops. The bowels were not moving, and the pulse was 140. The temperature was 103° F., and the tongue was so stiff that it could not be drawn out. The bowels were not moving. This was a very bad case of the disease of the bowels.

The remaining 8 nights were treated in a similar manner, and the bowels were not moving. The pulse was 140, the temperature 103° F., and the tongue was so stiff that it could not be drawn out. The bowels were not moving. This was a very bad case of the disease of the bowels.

2. The beneficial effects of belladonna where large doses of opium have been taken.

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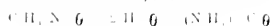
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some complication of paraplegia and stricture, called purulent-urine.

Till within the last few years, the tedious and troublesome process of washing out the bladder daily with weak acids, by means of the double catheter, was the most effectual known mode of treating these cases. A real improvement in the treatment was made, when chemists proclaimed that benzoic acid given by the stomach was converted into hippuric acid while passing through the system, and also that this acid was excreted through the bladder; this indirect supply of acid to the urine was found to be much more effectual in preventing the formation of pus than any mineral acid previously given had been; still, however, it was only in very mild cases that it controlled the formation of pus entirely; some more powerful remedy was still a desideratum, and this has, within the past year, been found in the alkaline hypophosphites. The first case in which I had an opportunity of observing this treatment was so remarkably striking, that it is worthy of mention here, though it occurred in London. An old man, who had been paraplegic for years, was nearly worn out from bed-sores, and the constant drain of from six to ten ounces of pus from the bladder daily. Half a dram of hypophosphite of soda was administered to him every three hours; after continuing this for six days, his urine became clear, and quite free from pus or putrescence. This result appeared so marvellous as to be scarcely credible; the urine, however, continued to be free from pus; the remedy was now stopped, and after four days there was again as much pus in the urine as ever. This appeared to be good evidence, that the remedy had caused its disappearance in the first instance; if its re-administration again arrested the formation of pus, this evidence would be conclusive. Similar doses were then again ordered and with similar results, *viz.*, a total disappearance of pus after four days. The patient was fast near death to be materially improved by this treatment, still it would appear that, if the remedy had been administered at an earlier stage, his life must have been prolonged.

No case so favourable for trial as this has occurred in the general hospital. One man, however, was admitted in January last, suffering from three strictures in different parts of his urethra: these caused so much impediment to the passage of urine, that pus was formed in the bladder to the extent of from four to six ounces daily. Half-drachm doses of hypophosphite of soda were given to him every three hours, and the strictures were treated by gradual dilatation. The amount of pus in the urine decreased rapidly, in five days it had entirely disappeared, though it was six weeks before the patient made a perfectly free stream of urine. What is the *rationale* of this treatment?

The researches of Pasteur and others have shown, within the last few years, that a drop of sulphurous acid would cause the immediate arrest of fermentation taking place in a mixture of yeast and sugar. If this particular kind of fermentative action is so suddenly arrested, it is not improbable that other kinds are also similarly prevented. It was previously known that although a pure solution of urea in water would not form carbonate of ammonia, yet if a little mucus or other putrescible matter were present, this decomposition would take place. In urine, whether inside the bladder or out of it, putrescible mucus is at all times present and ready to initiate the anomalous fermentation never prevented; it therefore appears that the presence of sulphurous acid, or a hypophosphite, in the urine is sufficient to arrest this action. All who have experienced the tediousness and inadequate results of the old mode of treating these cases, will be able to appreciate the great advantage of such an addition as this to our therapeutic agents.

CYSTIC TUMOUR OF THE LEFT LABIUM.

By DR. HUTCHINSON,
Civil Surgeon, Palua.

GORTIEN, a prostitute, applied for relief at the dispensary early last month. States that, a year ago, she suffered from primary syphilis, and was cured. Three months ago she first noticed a swelling of the left labium, to which her attention was drawn by the intolerable itching, and for it she was leeches and cupped, but without benefit. She then applied to the dispensary, and the sub-assistant surgeon, diagnosing elephantiasis of the labium, treated her with iodine applications.

On seeing the case, there was certainly from the appearance of the tumour, which was about the size of a hen's egg, a ground for the idea about elephantiasis; but on careful examination, I detected fluctuation, and passing an exploring needle, let out two ounces of an extraordinary fluid, exactly like milk and cream, a glairy fluid of a rich brown colour, and irritant to the mucous membrane, but which, when exposed to the microscope revealed nothing but pigment granules with a few epithelial cells here and there, whence came the strange colour of this secretion? I thought it might be a disorganised hæmatocele, but certainly never heard of the brown colour being assumed. Was the colour due to an abnormal collection of the ordinary pigment of the skin? if so, why should a strange locality be chosen for the freak. I confess I am non-plussed and unable to explain the phenomenon.

FLEPPRANTIASIS OF THE BIG TOE, LEFT FOOT.

Lal Bahari Koondoo states that, four years ago, he noticed a pea-like swelling on the lower aspect of the toe; this gradually and steadily increased until it has attained the present dimensions, which are those of a child's head, the circumference of the mass being 1½ inches. The leg rests upon the heel; and the tumour, the lower aspect of which is tender and vascular, bleeds freely on any irritation. As the cellular tissue of the big toe alone was involved, I removed the mass with the two phalanges, and finding sufficient material for flaps, did not cut through the head of the metatarsal bone. The tumour weighed 25 oz.

DEATH CAUSED BY SWALLOWING NATIVE TOOTH-STICK.

By G. A. WATSON, Esq.,
19th Bengal Cavalry.

The following case is interesting, as showing the careless way in which natives sometimes clean their teeth, as well as the necessity of proper precautions being taken in selecting the wood, from which their tooth-brushes are made. In this instance, the man was not content with scrubbing his teeth and twigs with his dantim, but was in the habit of thrusting it back into the pharynx, in order to clear away any phlegm that might have collected there, and to excite the act of coughing to clear his larynx. The wood generally preferred by natives for cleaning their teeth is the root of the pebaso (salivadora), or branches of the labar, or neem tree, but when these are not at hand, almost any tree that may be most readily procurable is made use of. In the following case a branch of the common willow was used, the wood of which is very brittle.

Jhunda Singh, Sowar, 19th Bengal Cavalry, aged 23, came to hospital on 23rd July, stating that, whilst cleaning his teeth with a piece of wood, it had broken in his mouth, and that he had swallowed a portion of it. At first he complained of some difficulty in swallowing, but it was evident that the wood had passed into the stomach, and on the following day, as he appeared to be suffering no inconvenience from it, he was discharged to duty. On August 15th, he was re-admitted into hospital suffering from fever, and complaining of pain in the right hypochondrium. When questioned about the piece of wood, he did not attribute his present sufferings in any way to it, but said that he had digested it, "hazm ho gaya." He continued to suffer from fever, together with increased pain and tenderness over the region of the liver, and a tympanitic condition of the bowels, until the 25th August, when decided symptoms of jaundice showed themselves. On September 6th, the tenderness over the liver was much increased, and a distinct hardness and slight swelling was felt there. During the same day he passed a large quantity of blood from the bowels, and he died at 6 A.M. on the 7th September, forty-six days after he had swallowed the piece of wood.

A *post-mortem* examination was made, and a piece of stick of the willow, six inches in length, and about one-fourth inch in diameter, was found lodged in the duodenum, one end of it was projecting through the coat of the diaphragm into the under-surface of the liver. The liver was inflamed, and some puru-

The Indian Medical Gazette.

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THE CO-OPERATION OF THE PROFESSION THROUGHOUT INDIA IS EARNESTLY SOLICITED.

"You have chosen the path, not of politics, but of science. Among those who have preceded you in it, and in our own particular department, we find some of the brightest ornaments of British history; and I will not do you the injustice of supposing that there is any one among you who would not prefer the reputation of Harvey or the Hunters to that of nine-tenths of the courtiers and politicians of the periods in which they lived."—SIR EENJAMIN BRODIE.

AFLOAT OR ASHORE.

It is reported that immediate steps are to be taken to begin the building adjoining Prinsep's Ghat, which is to be used as a "River-side Dispensary."

We have not space to review the whole question, but we would wish to state, as shortly as possible, what we consider are fatal objections to such an institution.

It is officially stated that the object of the building is not to be in the form of a Hospital, where the patients can permanently remain; but "it is to be a Dispensary for out-door patients from any ship, and a receiving house only for cases of cholera and sunstroke, &c., where men can at once be treated, and kept until fit to be moved to one or other of the hospitals."

The utility of such an Institution for "out-patients," is very questionable; but we will leave that subject for the more important part of the matter.

The two diseases of urgency, for which the building can be of any use, are Sunstroke and Cholera: let us take a case of the former, occurring on boardship during the heat of the day; a man is struck down at work, would he be hurried off to the River-side Dispensary?

There are directions on board every ship for such sudden attacks, and every officer knows that flushing with cold water, air, and quiet, are the means to adopt until the medical aid of the ship can arrive.

To move a man while under the "stroke," or even while he is partially recovering from it, would be murder.

For Cholera, the building would be of use as a place for

early reception; but, what then? grant that you have the experience and appliances of a real hospital, which, under the present scheme, you would not have at this "out-ward," and the patient is to be moved to the main hospital itself, as soon as it is cool enough; at a stage of treatment, perhaps, when any motion would be dangerous, or at all events could not fail to be hurtful.

Thus the institution will practically be a Cholera Hospital, which is going to be placed on the "Course," next to a much frequented "Ghat," and amidst a crowd of passers-by, on land and water; the place is so public, that the latrines and conveniences must actually be placed inside the building.

In fact, you place on the strand shore a very focus of the disease, for which you endow an Institution to treat curatively.

When the question was formerly referred to the head of the Medical Department, he set his face against the temporary nature of the scheme: but his letter was not understood, and he was deemed to be against the plan altogether.

What he did mean was, that if you have not enough accommodation for your sailors, give it them by all means, but do not adopt measures which only temporize with the whole question.

It appears to us, therefore, that no adequate good can be gained by the expense about to be incurred. The building is not wanted for cases of Sunstroke, and it is very doubtful whether it should be permitted in such a central, public, and crowded position, for cases of Cholera.

There is, no doubt, but that more hospital accommodation is required for the sailors of the port. Applicants for admission are often refused at the main Hospitals, and the question as to the best way of providing more wards, is not answered by the provision of a River-side Dispensary.

We believe the answer to be a floating "Dreadnought"—a hulk for instance, like the old *Erroz*, moored to swing in the stream at the most convenient point; if this was found to answer, a second might be established, which would then render the accommodation approachable in every tide and weather.

The tendency to death is rapid in all severe tropical diseases; it is of essential necessity to get a patient settled, as soon as possible, in his hospital bed, and under the surgeon who will likewise have the after-management of the case.

In this River-side Dispensary, neither of these important objects will be obtainable; the patient may have to be moved at a critical stage of the disease, and he will not have the advantage of the best advice on his admission.

But, we think, the question is answered by the establishment of a Floating Hospital, and if we had more space at our disposal, we would enlarge on all the details of the scheme.

EDUCATION IN NATURAL AND PHYSICAL SCIENCE.

We have reason to believe that the Asiatic Society of Bengal are endeavouring to move Government to provide facilities for the teaching of natural and physical science in the school and college set apart for general education in this country. This movement must, if successful, result in raising the qualifications and status of the native *admirals* of Indian medical

of the reluctance or inability of our *alumni* to go up for the highest medical degrees, the university has it in its power to bestow. Be this, however, as it may, we have the extraordinary fact staring us in the face that, at the end of 1868, out of 119 medical graduates borne on the rolls of the University of Calcutta, 93 are *Licentiates of Medicine and Surgery*, 11 are bachelors of medicine, and 4 are doctors in medicine, and out of these 4, one (Dr. Carter) is a distinguished member of Her Majesty's British Medical Service. These figures are striking in the extreme to anyone who understands their real significance. They plainly prove that the absence of primary instruction in natural and physical science is absolutely fatal to the student's success in obtaining the highest degrees of the university in medicine, excepting in a few instances, which may be viewed as the exceptions going to prove the rule. The bachelors of medicine is a step towards the M. D., and it is in every way doubtful, whether, for the reasons we have already assigned, one of the eleven bachelors will ever venture to encounter the ordeal of an examination for the doctorship in medicine.

Many of our readers at a distance may, by this time, be curious to know in what this *Entrance Examination in Arts*, the passing of which is a certain passport to the Medical College, consists. If any of them expect that it contains stringent provisions for testing candidates in the truths and rudimentary principles of natural and physical science, we at once prepare them for disappointment. At page 56 of the calendar it is laid down as follows.—“At the Entrance Examination, every candidate shall be examined in the following subjects—

I.—LANGUAGES.

English and one of the following languages—

| | |
|----------|-----------|
| Greek | Bengali. |
| Latin | O-riya. |
| Arabic | Hindi. |
| Persian | Urdu. |
| Hebrew | Burmese. |
| Sanskrit | Armenian. |

Any other language may be added to this list by the syndicate.”

II.—HISTORY.

Ancient History, History of India, General Geography, especially of India.

III.—MATHEMATICS.

Arithmetick.—“The four Simple Rules, Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, Reduction; Practice; Proportion; Simple Interest; Extraction of the Square Root.”

Algebra.—“The four Simple Rules; Proportion; Simple Equations, Extraction of the Square Root; Greatest Common Measure; Least Common Multiple.”

Geometry.—“The first four books of Euclid with easy Deductions.”

This is all. Not one qualification is exacted in natural and physical science properly so called. Yet it matters not what career or profession a youth may select at or after *sixteen*, no other portion of educational training is more calculated to expend the intellect to cultivate the mind, to sharpen the faculty of observation, to train the mind to utilize facts according to the inductive and deductive methods, and to invigorate and

strengthen the memory. These remarks are generally true in regard to every profession or occupation which demands, in its pursuit more than ordinary intellectual development and cultivation, but they are more demonstrably so, in respect of a profession like medicine, which rests on a profound knowledge of several important branches of science—exact and inexact. Even the *Last Arts Examination* which these students must pass, who intend to go up for the M. B. and M. D., only demands so much of *Mechanics*, as relates to the “Composition and Resolution of forces; Equilibrium of forces at a point in one plane; the Mechanical Powers, and the Centre of Gravity.” The knowledge required to pass either of the Arts Examinations would appear to be arranged with special reference to the exclusion of any particular acquaintance with natural and physical science. The knowledge demanded is one of books, and not of things. The memory is overtaxed beyond all conception at the expense of the reasoning powers, of the faculties of observation, induction, and deduction, and of the intellectual power of assigning to surrounding phenomena the proper place to cause and effect. The truth is that the parrot system of the university encourages book learning, and places practical learning at a discount. The power of memory may accordingly be said to become gigantic at an early period, because it is highly exercised; whilst the other powers of the mind and intellect become proportionately dwarfed, because they continue disproportionately unemployed or unexercised. The result is, as far as the medical colleges in India are concerned, that instead of these institutions being flooded with students possessed of an overflowing abundance of practical knowledge of “Common Things,” as in Europe and America, they are swamped by a supply of talented backwoods endowed by nature and art with long memories, but with the other faculties of the mind and hands in a most rudimentary and incipient state of existence and development.

And all this is attributable, *not to the students*, but to the university and an imperfect system of preliminary Education. The idea of admitting students to study medicine up to the *Licentiate*ship, without any previous training in natural and physical science, seems to us so monstrous that we wonder why attention has not been attracted to the subject before. It will not do to say that it is unnecessary to convey this instruction in the schools below, because it can be given at the medical schools above. The impracticability of combining primary and secondary education in science, of uniting the school-master and the professor in one individual, has already been demonstrated in this article. We know of nothing, not even mediocrity of intellect, which interferes so much with a thorough system of medical education as deficient primary training in the natural and physical sciences lying at the foundation of medicine.

In drawing this article to a close, we would venture to indicate the urgent necessity for appointing a teacher of natural science, in all the important schools and colleges. This will be expensive no doubt. But if the great efficiency and the greatest economy, the measure will eventually repay an expenditure laid out on it. Almost any reasonable amount of money put in converting the *present backwoods* of the university into *practical men*, would be well expended. We would require the teacher of natural and physical science to *give us examples of popular instruction*, by *lectures, lectures, and lectures*, by illustration and experiment, in Botany, Zoology, Comparative Anatomy, Mineralogy, Hydrostatics, Pneumatics,

The charge made by the Egyptian Government for the special train which the P. and O. service obtain, is just about double the ordinary rates for the passenger going from Suez to Alexandria; it would, therefore, be but a small boon for that Government to grant to the P. and O. that, on the recommendation of the medical officer on board the steamers, all invalids should be supplied with room to lie down at full length. This could readily enough be granted, if one or two of the present second-class carriages were made over for the purpose, as in them the seats are padded, and there are no divisions as in the present first-class. If, however, carriages like those in India, with the folding-up bed, were used by the Egyptian Government, the difficulty would be got over without much trouble or expense. This subject should be taken up by the medical authorities in India, as many invalids are now sent round the Cape often merely to avoid this part of the homeward route.

At Alexandria, through the kindness of Dr. Mackie, Surgeon to the British Consulate, I saw all the hospitals, or most of them, both European and Native.

It would repay medical travellers through Alexandria, to visit these, and see what is being done professionally.

One of the most interesting diseases here, to us in India at least, is "hepatic abscess," which is unusually frequent among some portions of the community, especially the Greeks, who form quite a colony of foreigners in this city.

In a small Greek hospital, I saw three cases doing well, that had been operated upon successfully, and so common is the disease, that in the autumn months, 50 per cent. of the cases under treatment are hepatic abscess.

What particularly struck me was the freedom with which operations on the liver were talked of and performed. Dr. Mackie told me that, some three years ago, on reading a paper on hepatic abscess, in the *Lancet*, by an Indian surgeon, he was impressed by the remarks there made, on the immunity from evil effects, that followed surgical interference with the substance of the liver. The paper insisted on the safety and necessity of early operation in abscess of the liver. Immediately after, some favourable cases presented themselves, and were successfully operated on by Dr. Ogilvie (Boy), his late colleague, and himself. Since then numerous cases have been operated on, and they have established the practice in Alexandria of proceeding to evacuate the matter immediately it is believed to have formed. Their experience has led them to conclude against the advisability of waiting till fluctuation is distinct, or the occurrence of the abscess pointing externally, before putting in the knife. Indeed, they believe that, at such a stage, operation is little likely to be successful in saving the patient.

Dr. Lancaroli, a Greek physician, has made some valuable statistics on this subject, which he proposes publishing shortly. Some of these are that, out of cases operated on, 50 per cent. are lost, while of those not operated on, 85 per cent. die.

His observations on the rate of mortality on the abscess bursting into the lungs is singular, and certainly are not in accordance with my Indian observations; he states that only seven per cent. of these cases prove fatal. It would be a great matter if this should turn out to be a true statistical fact also, of what occurs also in Indian practice, as it would give some clue to the cause of death after operation; to theorize upon it, it strikes

as if the antiseptic character of the air in the lungs acted as a poultice of the external atmosphere, and would lead to an extension of the practice begun in Calcutta of opening such abscesses under the influence or syringing out with carbolic acid.

As liver abscess is shown to be one of the most fatal diseases in India by Bryden's Tables, and one in the cure of which we have made no progress of late years, the subject is surely peculiarly interesting.

The opportunities in India are but too numerous of studying the disease, especially in the European army. This mode of attempting a cure is also essentially belonging to India: it was originally essayed in that country by Dr. Murray, Inspector-General of Her Majesty's army, and it has been successfully and largely practised by his nephew, the present head of the Bengal Medical Department, who, over a long series of years, has been most earnest in inculcating his opinions and practice.

In Alexandria the disease is by far the most common among one class of people, the ill-fed Greek population, who are addicted to "Rakki" the native liquor of the place; the better class of Greeks do not suffer; nor do the Greeks of the lower orders suffer in Corfu, and the other Greek islands, which are close to Alexandria. There is plenty of malarious ground near Alexandria, but there is the same in Corfu; drink and malaria appear, however, to be the two grand combinations best suited for the generation of abscess of the liver in Egypt; it is not so also in India.

Spleen disease is rarely seen when the liver is enlarged in Alexandria, and most of us have witnessed the same fact in India.

VACCINATION IN THE PUNJAB.

DR. GARDNER, the Superintendent-General of Vaccination in the Punjab, states in his report for the year 1868—

The total number of cases vaccinated by the Punjab vaccine establishment and dispensary vaccinators was 2,333,862, of which 203,881 were successful, at the cost of each successful case of two annas seven pie and a fraction.

It is worthy of remark that the percentage of successful cases is increasing year by year, and that, too, under more efficient superintendance.

An assistant, Dr. Newton, having joined Dr. Gardner's November as Superintendent, "the inspection of work done is now much more satisfactory," and, again, "the work of all the vaccinators can now be inspected, which before was often impossible."

The whole report is very interesting, but we have not space for details. During the summer, the hill territories of Chanda, Pangi situated on the further side of the snowy range, and numerous villages bordering on Lalool were visited, and the inhabitants vaccinated.

We are glad to note the success of the operations on the Trans-Himal Frontier line, and the increase that steadily goes on there year by year.

Dr. Gardner says, "on several occasions I tried to inoculate infants with small-pox matter; the Hindus, however, always objected to its being done, and I did not attempt to procure any more."

Dr. Gardner and J. Murray, M. D., F. R. S., and M. A., M. D.

Official Selections.

EXTRACTS FROM THE RECORDS OF BENGAL MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

(Continued from page 119.)

of the patient's condition. The patient's condition is very poor. The patient is very weak and is unable to walk. The patient is very weak and is unable to walk. The patient is very weak and is unable to walk.

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NEW WORK ON ANATOMY IN OORDOO.

Mr. S. P. Jours, Sub-Assistant Surgeon and Lecturer in anatomy in the Agra Medical School, proposes to bring out an illustrated work on the above subject.

The work originally suggested I sent to him by finding his names printed for the use of his pupils only, sought after by students in many parts of Northern India, and the work has now grown to some 300 pages.

It is to contain illustrations copied from the last edition of Quain's Anatomy, and he hopes to be able to sell the work about six annas per volume.

There is no objection that a work of this sort would be of great practical value to the native student and practitioner, if it comes up to the standard required. We will await its completion before saying more on the subject.

PROFESSOR SYMES' RECENT ILLNESS.

With the view of expressing sympathy for the distinguished Professor of Surgery in Calcutta, his former pupils at the Presidency have agreed to contribute to him.

The list of names is being fifteen British and 1 Indian medical students have been invited on the 1st of May, to save delay.

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In April, 1877, a contract was entered into for building an hospital for 500 patients in the Government. The dimensions of the building are 18 feet wide by 14 feet high, clear of timber in walls 27 feet thick of brick, 10 feet wide by 14 feet high. The roof is of the gambrel type, the gable end covered with a *chappur* of bamboo and straw. The hospital is situated in the Government of Calcutta, the estimate for it was Rs. 5,000.

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shall not exceed the rate of Rs. 70 per mensem for every twenty men.

Contingent bill to include petty repairs of building and articles for use of the sick, stationery, lamps for the wards, keeping necessaries clean, and carrying away the soil, &c., no sum can be fixed for; but every surgeon must be responsible to the board that his charges are not exorbitant.

11th September.—By letter dated 27th March, the Court of Directors advise the Governor-General of their having sent out 50 tractors of the Royal Humane Society, and two drags and apparatus for Bengal and Fort St. George, and recommend the said institution to the particular notice of each Government.

As far back as this year (1757), the Court of Directors enquire the use of indigenous drugs, and the tinctures that can be made from them (24th September).

Separate "nurses" allowed for infirm patients at Chunar by the head surgeon, and sanctioned by the board.

A G. O. by Earl Cornwallis, dated Fentyghur, 13th October, "Mr. Fleming (Junior Member of the Board) is ordered to inspect the hospitals at the different stations of the army, and to report to the Commander-in-Chief the state in which it appears to him that the business of the respective hospitals has been carried on" (7th November).

22nd October.—Assistant-Surgeon of Berhampore hospital reports that the expenditure of peruvian bark has been very considerable for some days past, and indents for more.

(Year 1788.)

4th January.—The Hospital Board is ordered to assemble about this date for the examination of European invalids, of whom there are about 100, so that "they may be in readiness to proceed to Europe in the ships now under despatch."

Mr. Purveyor Birch addresses the Hospital Board about adjustment of account and details. "The wine used during the last month of the rains exceeded the regulations (six dozens per mensem for twenty men) by 13 dozens in September, and by 3½ dozens in October;" this would seem to show that treatment by alcohol, or rather keeping up the system at the most depressing season was not neglected at this date.

8th February.—Mr. Dick, the Surgeon of the Lunatic Hospital, writes to the board to sanction expenditure for clothing, coats, and other necessaries for the use of the sick and among other articles detailed are 12 iron chains for the legs with jointed hoops to go round the waist, and shackles to confine the hands at Rs. 3 each.

He gives a list of officers and men in the insane house at this date. The numbers were—

Officers of the Army, 3; of ships, 2; not in any service, 4; soldiers, 14, sailor, 1.

The monthly charge of soldiers were defrayed from their pay and batta; for gentlemen Rs. 50 a month was charged, for which they are allowed "tea, bread and butter, and wine twice a day." One sergeant and four private soldiers were allowed to attend the insane patients, and that they might "do their duty" with diligence and humanity" an allowance of Rs. 10 a month was granted, and for every insane patient one cooly was authorised at Rs. 4 a month.

The Brigade Major of Artillery, dating Camp Dum-Dum, 29th February, writes to the Board—

"I am directed by Colonel Pearse, commanding the troops at the Presidency, to acquaint you that the Right Honorable the Commander-in-Chief having authorised the inoculating of the men belonging to the corps of artillery and infantry in garrison, who have not had the small-pox, at Dum-Dum, under the surgeons there, a bungalow has been built for the reception of the whole, to prevent the expense of separate establishments;" and concludes by requesting the surgeons may be supplied with what medicines and necessaries as may be requisite.

It was a matter of will, apparently, on the part of soldiers whether they would undergo it or not, as those who wished for it were to give in their names, they would be struck off duty, "and are not to pay stoppages out of pay or batta as is usual for other sick."

About this time (4th March), the Government had sent to the Board a comparative statement showing the different cost of soldiers in hospital per mensem at different stations, and require explanation of the difference. The Board, in a long letter of six pages, go into the whole subject, and give the following broad views of the treatment of the sick:—"Although we deem economy a most important point in the management of a military hospital, we are far from judging it the only, or even the most important consideration. One of still more consequence is the proper treatment of the sick, and the taking care

that they may not be deprived of, or even supplied scantily with, any article essential to their welfare and speedy recovery. And they deny the system of comparative statement as being liable to make a Surgeon in charge cautious, and they deplore that "the sole test of the good conduct of the surgeons" who have charge of the sick, should be lowness of the monthly charge for patient." "Were such a principle admitted, it might tend to operate in a manner that would give your Lordship the sincerest concern, by tempting persons, in the management of hospitals, to endeavour to make the dear purchase of character for frugality and economy at the expense of tenderness and humanity to the sick."

In April, Mr. John Peter Wall, a assistant-surgeon at Chunar, forwards to the Board a scheme for a Medical Library. It is a long letter of six pages, employing arguments for its utility to the Surgeons of the Establishment for the purchase of recent publications on professional subjects, and the collection of the most approved of the ancient and modern authors on medicine, surgery, and chemistry.

The Board (24th April) return a very curt reply disapproving of the plan.

On May 21st, the Secretary to the Military Board requests the opinion of the Board (by order of Governor-General) "whether fumigation in barracks is conducive to the health of the men," and if so, to point out the best articles for use.

The Board on the 23rd submit a memorandum on the subject, thus:—"although the practice of fumigating barracks may, in some particular cases which we shall afterwards point out, be of service and even indispensably necessary, we are of opinion, that where the buildings are sufficiently dry and properly ventilated, where too many men are not crowded together, and where proper attention is paid to cleanliness, fumigations are altogether unnecessary, and that the expenses of them may very properly be saved. Of these circumstances, the last as it is the most in our power, so it is by far the most essential; where cleanliness is neglected, other preservations will avail very little, where it is observed they will in general not be necessary." When necessary, they recommend a red-hot bar of iron put into a bucket of tar. Steam of boiling vinegar, for using which a machine had been recently "invented by Mr. Day of Maidstone, and which is now much used in the gaols and hospitals in England." "Upon the principle of absorbing fixed air depend the good effects of washing the walls and ceiling of hospitals and barracks with lime—a practice which is found highly beneficial, and which ought, therefore, to be used very frequently."

(To be continued.)

The Annual Meeting of the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association,

The annual meeting of the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association was held in the theatre at the Masonic College on the 16th March, 1899.

DR. NORMAN CHIVERS in the chair.

Dr. Chivers said that, before resigning his appointment as President of this Association, he could not but speak with regret of the falling off in attendance, which has occurred—especially during the latter part of the year. The members had been well, but gradually had ceased to attend, and latterly there was scarcely any meeting at all. The younger members of the association were chiefly in fault, the seniors attended more frequently. The object of the Society was, that young and old should meet for the free discussion of various interesting medical points.

He resigned the chair as president with pleasure, to one who was so duly qualified to fill it as his successor, in Mr. Dr. Ewart, who, whom he never entered on any friendly discussion of professional matters without improving his own knowledge.

Dr. Ewart having taken the chair, addressed the meeting as follows:

GENTLEMEN.—I regret that I have had no leisure to come in to prepare a written address assuming the honorary presidency of this Association, but I am about to do so, and I will do so in the most concise manner. I have, however, to propose to you, as a preliminary matter, a few observations. I am about to do so, and I will do so in the most concise manner. I have, however, to propose to you, as a preliminary matter, a few observations. I am about to do so, and I will do so in the most concise manner. I have, however, to propose to you, as a preliminary matter, a few observations.

It was not until the late '70s, when continuing depression had become a permanent feature of our country, that the Government of India, under the able leadership of Mr. Norman Ling, Secretary to Government, began to consider the possibility of a national museum. The Government of India have been doing their utmost to assist the various provincial governments in the same line.

The Government of India have also been persistently urging provincial governments to have established a museum for the purpose of collecting and preserving the objects of the human mind. With that end in view, the Government of India have been sending various parties of officers to the different provinces to visit the provincial museums. One of the main objects of these parties is to see that the objects of the human mind are properly preserved. The parties are also to see that the objects are properly preserved. The parties are also to see that the objects are properly preserved.

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Many of the objects of the human mind are of great value, and should be preserved in a museum. The Government of India have been doing their utmost to assist the various provincial governments in the same line. The Government of India have also been persistently urging provincial governments to have established a museum for the purpose of collecting and preserving the objects of the human mind.

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authority. It would be optional to each practitioner to register his name or not as he may deem expedient. But the protection of the law would only be extended to him, who had secured for his name a place on the register.

With regard to the hereditary indigenous practitioners of the country, the same principle might be adopted as was done with the established practitioners in England, at the passing of the Apothecaries' Act, and the Medical Act. If so, then every *Koheran* and *Haldeem* would be entitled to register; but the class exhibiting his qualification would plainly show the class of practitioners to which he belonged. It is from among the sons of these men that many of our students now studying at the colleges, are really recruited. But even if it were not so, I would not hesitate to give the present generation of these gentlemen, a place in the medical register, on the payment of the prescribed fee, whatever that might be fixed at.

In seeking from the Legislature, "A Medical Act for India," the Association would not be asking for anything unreasonable. On the contrary, the liberal and broad views which the association would enunciate would, if practically carried out, benefit the public more than the medical profession. We should ask for a measure, the whole expense of which would be borne by the profession—a measure which, while conferring great advantage upon the people, would tend to harmonize, unify, and consolidate the medical profession in India.

At the late convocation of the university for conferring degrees, it was truly to be marked by the Chancellor, Lord Mayo, that a time existed when, among an influential people, it was considered right that the natives of this country should not be educated on too liberal a scale; but that now all doubt had been dispelled, and Government had determined to educate the natives of this country on a scale of magnitude and liberality not exceeded at home. Now, gentlemen, whatever doubt may have existed among politicians as to the propriety of imparting the general knowledge of the West to the teeming millions of British India, I can bear witness from a conversance with the records of medicine in the East, that no such doubt ever existed among the disciples of Esculapius. They have always strangled manfully to disseminate the principles and practice of Medicine to their brother Aryans in India. How could it be otherwise? Medicine is the personation of liberality, generosity, and charity. It is cosmopolitan in its aims for doing good and relieving the pains and pangs of suffering humanity. The true physician and surgeon lays open to the whole of his profession everything new which promises to be beneficial to mankind. He has no secrets. His knowledge once in print becomes the common property of all. Need I cite examples of these truths? If so, let me point to the discovery of quinine, morphia, ether, and chloroform; all of which have conferred vast advantages on the human race either in mitigating the consequence of disease, or in altogether preventing pain being felt, during the most heroic and appalling surgical and obstetric operations.

As a consequence of the catholicity of sentiment, which has ever characterized a preponderating majority of the medical profession, we see the spread of medical education going on not only in our colleges and schools, but in every hospital in the country from Peshawar to Ceylon, from Rangoon to Bombay. The progress being made is rapid. It is also successful. This is greatly facilitated by the immense advantage which the country enjoys. India, as regards medicine, (and it may be said as regards other things also,) is now reaping the benefit of the culminated results of progress extending over eighteen centuries and a half. We are endeavouring to transplant the medical knowledge of the West, which has taken eighteen hundred years and upwards in arriving at its present state of advancement into India. Hence, the unparalleled rapidity with which medicine is spreading among the learned *doctores* of our colleges and schools. And hence, the urgent necessity for organizing the followers of medicine by legislative enactment on the principles embodied in the English Medical Act; but yet in so modified a form as to embrace all the practitioners of legitimate medicine, and so tabulating their names that their qualifications may be open to the inspection of the public and the profession in the *Indian Medical Register*.

In concluding my remarks on this subject, I would wish it to be understood that in drawing the attention of the members of the association to this subject, I have only alluded to a few leading principles; and that should the Legislature be disposed to entertain the proposition for an Indian Medical Act, all the needful details might afterwards be collected and arranged without difficulty. Whatever may be the result of these considerations, one thing is certain, that India cannot wait much longer, with-

her indigenous imported medical profession is placed before the law, the public and themselves, in a position analogous to that which their countrymen enjoy in Great Britain and her other great dependencies.

Before bringing these desultory remarks to a close, I am desirous of briefly approaching another question of great interest to our profession. I have already pointed out how much India can be made to benefit by the transplantation of the work of 18 centuries of western civilization in a comparatively short period of time. It is owing to this extraordinary start, if I may so use the term, that, out of the three coroners at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, two are medical gentlemen. Prior to the writings of the late Mr. Wakley, the founder, proprietor, and editor of the *Lancet*, himself the first medical coroner in Great Britain, this post of coroner—one the prime object of which is to ascertain the cause of death in all cases of suspicion or foul play, was invariably filled by a non-medical authority. The influence of Mr. Wakley's writings and example, as a coroner, have created a revolution in this respect; for, in almost every case, where the profession are invited and true to themselves, a medical man is selected to fill the post of coroner, whenever that office now falls vacant in England. The time is approaching when a coroner unhampered, unfettered with judicial or ministerial work, a knowledge of which has nothing to do with such a medical education as would assist in the elucidation of the cause of death in cases of suspicion or sudden death, will be required for every station and town of importance in India. And until this is done, that full measure of security to life, which can only be afforded by having a medical coroner in every important station, will remain comparatively in abeyance. When, however, that time does come round, the fact that, out of three coroners now in the Presidential cities, two are medical gentlemen, augurs well for the chances of success by our brethren, in any other coronerships, which may be created, in the interior of the country.

Finally, gentlemen, I beg to thank you most heartily for conferring upon me the distinguished honor of electing me to be your president for the ensuing year, and to promise that no effort of mine shall be wanting in endeavouring to promote the interests of the association, and through that, the profession of medicine in India.

Dr. Cockerbush then rose and proposed a vote of thanks to Dr. Ewart for the very excellent address with which he had favoured 4 the association.

Moulvie Tameez Khan, Khan Bahadur, presented a specimen of the Lall Chittra which was taken from the uterus of a woman after death, having evidently been introduced for the purpose of causing abortion. It was situated in a common cavity made by the sloughing of the posterior wall of the uterus, and the anterior wall of sigmoid flexure of the colon. The piece of wood was covered by an incrustation of the phosphates and carbonates of lime, and throughout the substance of the wood, there appeared to be crystals of the carbonate of lime. It evidently had been in the body for some time.

Dr. Chevers also presented a very interesting and instructive specimen of aneurism of the arch of the aorta illustrating the possibility of cure of aneurism of the arch. He considered it the best specimen he had ever seen of perfect cure of aneurism of the arch of the aorta by the filling up of the sac with an organised clot. The patient had been for a long time under observation; his first symptoms were those of pressure on the right bronchus by an aneurismal tumor, but under treatment, the symptoms of pressure disappeared, and the symptoms of aneurism after a time became nearly quiescent. He died from chronic dysentery combined with a low form of pneumonia. The aneurism after death was found situated at the arch of the aorta involving all the large branches given off. It was filled with a firm organised clot, but the channel of the aorta was quite free, as also the orifices of the various branches given off by the arch, and the whole of the artificial canal thus formed had a polished membrane-like surface.

The particulars of this case will be published hereafter.

15th April, 1869.

Extracts,

PARADISE AND THE MONSTER CO.

MANY YEARS have passed away since Paradise was discovered by the children of Adam, and the monster that was slain therein, which is now the cause of our growth.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF SNAKE POISON, AND ON THE INJECTION OF LIQUOR AMMONIÆ INTO THE VENOUS CIRCULATION AS AN ANTIDOTE.

BY J. FAYRER, M.D., C.S.I.

SINCE my last report on the subject of snake-poison, I have received a communication from Professor Halford of Melbourne, whose researches have already thrown so much light on this interesting pathological question. In a paper of which he has kindly sent me a copy, read before the medical society of Victoria, he strongly advocates the injection of ammonia into the circulation; he also details several interesting experiments as well as cases of snake-bite in which the results were satisfactory.

This mode of treating poisoning not only by snake-bites but by chloroform, hydrocyanic acid, and other toxic agents, among which prœmia is mentioned, and cholera suggested, has evidently been received with much confidence in Australia, and the matter is fully and ably discussed in the paper in question. The subject also of the structural changes in the blood to which I have frequently alluded in former papers, and which were described by Professor Halford in 1867: *Trile British Medical Journal*, July 20th, and December 21st, 1867,* is also referred to with some further explanations, and which

British Medical Journal July 20th, 1867, Page 43.

* When a person is mortally bitten by the cobra-di-copella, molecules of living "germinal" matter are thrown into the blood, and speedily grow into cells, and as rapidly multiply, so that in a few hours millions upon millions are produced at the expense, as far as I can at present see, of the oxygen absorbed into the blood during inspiration; hence the gradual decrease, and ultimate extinction of combustion and chemical change in every other part of the body, followed by coldness, sleepiness, insensibility, slow breathing, and death.

The cells which thus render in so short a time the blood unfit to support life, are circular, with a diameter on the average of one seventeen-hundredth of an inch. They contain a nearly round nucleus of one two thousand-eight-hundredth of an inch in breadth, which, when further magnified, is seen to contain other still more minute spirales of living "germinal" matter. In addition to this, the application of magenta reveals a minute colored spot at some part of the circumference of the cell. This, besides its size, distinguishes it from the white spars, or lymphocorpuscles.

Thus, then, it would seem that, as the vegetable cell requires for its growth inorganic food and the liberation of oxygen, so the animal cell requires for its growth organic food and the absorption of oxygen. Its food is present in the blood, and it meets the oxygen in the lungs; thus the whole blood becomes disorganised, and nothing is found after death but dark fluid blood, the fluidity indicating its loss of fibrine, the dark color its want of oxygen, which it readily absorbs on exposure after death.

Let it not be thought that microscopic particles are unable to produce such great and rapid changes. It is well known, and I have frequently tried it with my class, that a tea-spoonful of human saliva, well shaken with a like quantity of decoction of starch, convert the whole of the latter into sugar in a little less than one minute. If ptyaline, the active principle of saliva, exerts this power at most in a few minutes, then surely the active principle of the secretion of the serpent's poison-gland may exert an infinitely greater power in as many hours. It results, then, that a person dies slowly annihilated by deprivation of oxygen, in whatever other way the poison may act, and so far as the ordinary examination of the blood goes, the *post mortem* appearances are similar to those seen after drowning and suffocation.

I have many reasons for believing that the *venereal murex* of cholera is a nearly allied animal poison. If so, may we not hope to know some thing definite of the poisons of hydrophobia, small pox, scarlet fever, and indeed, of all zymotic diseases?

British Medical Journal, December 21st, 1867, Page 563.

The following was the result of numerous experiments on dogs and cats. Blood soon drawn from an animal bitten by a snake contains a larger amount of nebulous or finely granular matter than is usually seen. After the lapse of one hour this nebulous matter is much increased in quantity, lying in the intervals of the red corpuscles, and presently it breaks up

so far, as I can understand it, modifies the views as at first expressed by Dr. Halford. In the paper to which I have referred, Dr. Halford says of those corpuscles, "he had never seen those cells before death, but he believed the organic germinal matter of the serpent's poison to be the efficient agent, and the *post mortem* changes in the blood to be in some way connected with a metamorphosis of the fibrine of that fluid which so far as coagulation was concerned, appeared

into small masses, out of which the cell is gradually evolved. In two hours after the bite, the cells may be seen in great numbers, but very indistinct. From this time every further microscopic observation shows them in great abundance; and from the sixth to the twentieth hour they may be seen in perfection, macula and nucleus included. What this is taking place the nebulous matter disappears; the nebulous matter must, therefore, be regarded as the germinal matter out of which the cells are formed. At this time the cell-wall is extremely delicate, the macula very plain as a bright particle, and the nucleus either single, reniform, double, triple or multiple.

It would appear that the cells are now increasing in number by division of their nuclei, and the minute particles, having the vibratory movement of molecules in fluid, may be seen between the nucleus and cell-wall. On one occasion we watched for upwards of half an hour a constant revolution within the cell of a particle corresponding in all particulars to a macula. This particle passed regularly round the nucleus at an uniform rate, revolving both in the direction of and against the current of the fluid in which the cell was flowing, reminding one of the movements seen in valisneria, &c. Twenty-four hours after the bite, the cells attain their greatest size, and, supposing the animal then dead, have probably ceased multiplying, and are simply living or perhaps growing, the nucleus being usually single, the macula extremely distinct, and the cell very large. It is not uncommon at this time and later to see a cup shaped hiatus in the cell-wall from which the macula has escaped. The cells may be seen in the blood for many days, their presence seeming to be preservative against putrefaction. Where they have most room, as in the venæ cavae, cranial sinuses, and cavities of the heart, they attain the greatest size and most circular form. In every instance the cell-wall is very elastic, and accommodates itself to surrounding pressure.

To ascertain how soon after inoculation these cells appear, is a matter of some difficulty. It is not necessary to suppose that at first they are very numerous; and, in order to detect them so early, it might require fifty or a hundred microscopes and observers at work at the same instant. Still, from their having been seen two hours after the bite, and from all we know of the rapidity with which new formations occur, both in health and disease, it is doubtless extremely soon. Of one thing we are sure, viz., that the nebulous germinal matter from which they spring is within a few minutes diffused all over the body; for supposing an animal to die in five minutes, and hence all circulation stopped, the cells are as readily seen in its blood a few hours after death as if it had lived as many hours as we say minutes. The macula is, doubtless, a particle of germinal matter; but, whether it is to be regarded as that from which the whole cell has sprung, or whether it has been detached from the nucleus and is destined for independent existence, it is difficult to say. The fact that it is almost invariably large when the cell is small, and small when the cell is large, favors the first view. Perhaps the most important point must be left still undecided. Has the blood limit up these cells, directly or indirectly, from the germinal matter of the serpent? The answer to this question the professor would endeavour to give at a future meeting; but in either case the result was the same, storing up of force in the new growth, at the expense of the nutritive properties of the blood, and by perversion of those chemical changes necessary to the maintenance of the life of the injected animal.

That the germinal matter exists in a state of extreme minuteness, the following experiment shows:—A cat, being with young, was inoculated with the poison, and, dying in three hours, her four kittens were removed from the womb. They were dead, and the blood of all contained the foreign cells, as did that of the matter. To pass from the cat to the kittens, the germinal matter must have penetrated the delicate membrane covering the tufts of the fetal vessels. If the poison of serpent-kind thus readily be traced through the body, and from parent to offspring, why should not the path of all infections be tracked? Some months ago, it was stated that it was conjectured that a child had been bitten by a snake. No doubt need ever exist for the future; a drop of blood will always furnish the necessary evidence. He trusted the subject would not be left fall to the ground in Victoria, for it would assuredly be taken up at home. It had been to him a matter of surprise that, while this colony very properly appoints men to survey her coasts, explore her skies, and the ground beneath her feet, no one systematically explores her diseases, a subject in which the rich and poor, the living and those about to live, are equally and deeply concerned, and in comparison with which many other subjects that excite her people are trifles.

1-6.—Stands, but is unsteady, head hanging down, and with salivation.

1-11.—Staggers in his walk.

The dog had only one bite, and the poison is now evidently taking effect: so 40 minims of the Liquor Ammoniac were carefully injected with the hypodermic syringe into the jugular vein, the greatest care being taken not to admit any air with the fluid. The dog was immediately convulsed violently, fell over, was quite unable to stand; the convulsion passed into rapid jactitations of all the muscles.

1-15.—Perfect muscular exhaustion, hurried breathing.

1-18.—Injected twenty minims more of the Liquor Ammoniac into the vein. Convulsive movements again became universal, pupils dilated, involuntary micturition, twitching of the mouth, lips drawn up, exposing the teeth, lips pallid, breathing catching and slow.

1-20.—Dead.

In this instance unusual care was taken to perform the experiment with exactness. No air was allowed to enter the vein, and the ammonia was most carefully injected with the hypodermic syringe. The steps of the operation were most carefully carried out by Dr. Ewart and myself.

The dog was bitten only once in the fore-leg. The poison did not manifest its effects so quickly, or in so marked a manner as in dogs bitten twice or thrice in the muscular part of the thigh, and this was purposely done that we might watch the progress of the action of the poison, and inject the ammonia at the right time. The ammonia was injected at 1-13 p. m., or in 18 minutes after the bite. Convulsions came on immediately, and these were followed by complete muscular prostration; at 1-18, or five minutes later, twenty more minims of the ammonia were injected into the jugular vein; a repetition of the same phenomena followed, and the dog died, completely exhausted, at 1-20. That is two minutes after the second injection, or seven minutes after the first, or in 25 minutes after the bite.

There can be no reasonable doubt that the injection of Liquor Ammoniac into the external jugular vein in this case hastened, if it did not cause death; and whatever other deduction may be drawn from the experiment, this is inevitable that the proceeding is a dangerous one. In this case death occurred, in the first experiment the animal's life was in peril. The result is very different from that obtained by Professor Hallford in his experiments, where he injected Liquor Ammoniac not only into the jugular vein but into the heart itself, though I must at the same time confess that I cannot regard the latter experiment at all satisfactory or conclusive as to the beneficial effects of the ammonia. It proves the absolute necessity for many and most carefully repeated experiments, before one can come to an absolute decision on a subject where there are probably several sources of error to be encountered.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

The following experiments were made with the view of determining the influence of one poisonous snake on another. I have already made many experiments on this interesting question, and though so far the weight of evidence is in favor of immunity of the poisonous snakes to the poisons of their own species, and those of others, yet I cannot regard it as a matter settled, but one about which there is still doubt. I must have further and more convincing proof before I can accept as a fact what I even now hardly believe, that a venomous snake, whilst it has the power of quickly destroying innocuous snakes, has no power over its own, or the other poisonous species. Of this, however, there can be no doubt, that the effect of the poison is much less active on a venomous snake, than on an innocent one.

A Bungarus fasciatus about six feet in length, was bitten about a foot from the tail by a tall grown fresh and powerful cobra, at 3-15 p. m. Again, at 3-19; a third time at 3-20 p. m. All the bites were within a foot of the end of the tail. The object of selecting this part of the Bungarus was to avoid the possibility of death being caused by injury to the viscera. The Bungarus was then put into a cage.

4-10 p. m.—It seems quite well.

9 p. m.—Appears sluggish; the part of the tail below the bites appears partially paralysed; on pressing the tail with a sharp pointed instrument but little sensibility is manifested,

30th May, 6 a. m.—Very sluggish; skin contracted into a longitudinal crease along either side of the body.

9-10 a. m.—Dead.

The Bungarus was a very large specimen; it was molting at the time it was bitten; but still I think its death must be attributed to the influence of the cobra poison.

EXPERIMENT No. 7.

A full grown spectacled cobra was bitten within a foot of the tail, by a Daboa Russellii, about half grown, but which was said to be fresh, and had been brought that day by the snake-men. There was some difficulty in making the viper insert its long slender fangs into the tough skin of the cobra, but it did so, finally, in several places. No evil result followed, and on June 3rd the cobra was quite well.

EXPERIMENT No. 8.

A Daboa Russellii was bitten by a fresh cobra near the tail, about the same time as that of the last experiment; the bites were several, and fangs well inserted. But no evil result followed, and, on the 3rd June, the viper was unaffected.

EXPERIMENT No. 9.

Some cobra poison, taken from the poison-gland, several months ago, by Mr. Seeva, had been kept, and had coagulated in the glass-tube in which it was kept, into a white caseous-looking solid mass, with an intensely fetid odour. Some water was mixed with this in which it was only partially soluble. Ten drops of the opaque fluid were injected with the hypodermic syringe into a pigeon's thigh, at 4-20 p. m. No immediate result followed.

4-25.—Ten drops more of the same fluid injected as before.

9 p. m.—No apparent change in the bird.

May 30th, 6 a. m.—Lying down; wings drooping.

10-5 a. m.—Dead.

This experiment shows that decomposition and coagulation of the poison, does not, even after a long time, deprive it of its poisonous properties.

EXPERIMENT No. 10.

5th June, 1869, at 3-2 p. to the right external jugular vein of a healthy dog was hid bare. Chloroform was then administered until the dog was insensible, though still whimpering with a peculiar cry. Forty drops of Liquor Ammoniac sp. gr. 950 were carefully injected into the jugular. Immediate restlessness followed; limbs convulsed; howled loudly as though it felt acute pain, and when placed on the ground was unable to stand, the legs being powerless.

3-16.—Lying quiet.

3-17.—Pawing his mouth and face in a semi-paralytic manner; makes unsuccessful efforts to stand.

3-18.—Lying prone; unable to rise on his legs; paws the face; when put on his feet cannot stand; seems quite sensible and intelligent.

3-20.—In just the same condition; crawls, but is unable to stand on his legs.

3-21.—Sat up, but fell over again.

3-23.—Forty drops more were injected. It was doubtful, this time, whether the ammonia entered the vein, probably into the areolar tissue about it.

3-25.—Forty drops injected this time certainly into the vein; the dog at once passed into a state of violent convulsion, and from that into a state of general tremor.

3-27.—Able to rise, and stagger a few steps.

3-30.—Recovering; the dog is and has been for some minutes profusely salivated.

3-33.—Running about the room; seems to be intelligent, but has peculiar nervous twitchings of the mouth and face.

4-30.—The dog had perfectly recovered; the crustal vein exposed, and forty minims of Liquor Ammoniac sp. gr. 950 injected, almost immediately succeeded, by violent convulsions.

4-33.—Howling as if in pain or fear, legs paralysed; struggles in the prone position, but cannot stand.

4-40.—Breathing hurried; puffing of buccinator muscles; twitching of orbicularis.

- 1-12.—Can walk but with a very shaky gait.
1-15.—His eyes shut as usual.

In this case the animal recovered. For such instances of anæmia was followed by violent convulsions muscular tremors and other paralysis, such an extent is remarkable as to appear that life was in extreme danger.

The effect of the 1 was unsatisfactory, and suggestive rather of longer than of safety.

EXPERIMENT N. 11.

3-57 pm.—A large dog had the right external jugular vein laid bare; at 3-42 it was bitten in the right hind leg by a spectacled cobra, that had been in confinement a long time. The punctured leg and the neighbouring parts were lubricated with the snake's saliva.

3-47.—Sitting down; rises and walks with rather a tremulous gait.

3-48.—Lies down; deep perspiration; breathing hurried.

3-55.—Symptoms of poisoning not at all pronounced—there is reason to doubt the vigour of the cobra.

4 pm.—Bitten again by a viper's cobra in the same place; the leg immediately partially paralysed.

4-1.—Uneasy; licks the wound.

4-2.—Whines, and is very restless.

4-3.—Head drooping.

4-4.—Breathing very rapid; (100); tongue hanging out; whining; an eye; lies down; is restless.

4-5.—Walks about whining; drops his head, and lies down; still strong on his legs.

4-8.—Can walk but is evidently under the influence of the poison; staggers, pants, and drops his head.

4-10.—Forty minims of the Liquid Ammonia '959 injected into the jugular vein; vomited; micturated violently whilst passing into a state of violent general convulsion.

4-12.—Stood up; breathing was hurried; is salivated.

4-15.—Shows weakness in the hind legs; lies down; is purged.

The symptoms of snake-poison becoming more marked.

4-17.—Injected forty drops more into the jugular vein; staggers, micturates, and falls prone with the legs spread out.

4-20.—General paralysis; pupils widely dilated; tries to vomit; twitching of muscles.

4-22.—Twitching of all the muscles.

4-23.—Gasping, completely paralysed.

4-24.—Catching respiration; involuntary micturition.

4-25.—Dead.

HEAT APOPLEXY.

By W. K. WALLER, M.R.C.S., &c., F.R. U. C.

THE mortality from heat apoplexy, as shown by Dr. Bryden's returns, has averaged in the 19 years, 1858 to 1867, 51-37, or more than half the cases attacked. The proportion of deaths from cholera is little more. It is not my intention, in the observations I propose to make, to enter into the causes and pathology of this disease. It has been discussed in the pages of the *Tribun*, *Annals of Medicine*, and by Marshall, Arken, and Maclean, to their pages I refer you. My object is to direct attention to a mode of treatment hitherto apparently unknown, and I shall subjoin a list of cases occurring between 1850 and 1867, the majority of which were treated by the method I propose to speak of.

It may be thought that the result, judging from past experience, of cold or that slight or doubtful cases have been taken. It is not so. The object has engaged my attention for years, and every case of apoplexy that occurred. Only those fatal were treated otherwise than by this.

The simplicity of the means and the result shown should commend the method to be resorted to in treating this severe disorder. I am certain that who ever tries it will corroborate my statement, and that its utility will not longer show over 50 per cent. of deaths.

The treatment proposed is simply large doses of quinine by the mouth, given liberally, if the patient is unable to swallow. Probably the hypodermic method may prove to be the best and most convenient means in all cases, it is at least applicable to all in any stage.

I am enabled, through the kindness of my friend Dr. Hall, R.A., to give a case of recent occurrence in which its success was most marked. The precise means of applying the remedy will appear from the case cited. I have as yet said nothing of cold affusions. I use it in almost all cases where there is great heat of surface; that it is not absolutely necessary is seen from Dr. Hall's case, and another which I shall give from my own experience. In cases of the cardiac variety, with cold and moist skin, it is of course inadmissible. Cold affusion is a valuable aid, but the remedy pure and simple is quinine. I give two cases of the cerebro-spinal form.—

H. B. Gunnor of the *Galconda*, admitted into the P. & O. Hospital at 4 pm 6 P.M.

26th May, 1869.—He had fallen from his seat whilst at tea. The surgeon who was called to see him, applied ice to the head, leeches to the nape of the neck, and gave a powerful purgative which took effect. I saw the man almost directly after admission. He was speechless, his skin burning hot, pulse running, hardly to be counted, he could still swallow. I gave him 3j of quinine at once, and ordered 10 grains to be repeated every hour till he spoke. I considered him a most unpromising case; after the second 10 grain dose he spoke; nevertheless my apothecary continued the quinine, so that, by the time I paid my early morning visit, the man had taken 70 grains. He was then cold, sensible, able to sit up or even walk about, could speak, and complained of headache; the quinine was continued in five grain doses, at gradually increasing intervals, and the man was discharged on the 30th June to his duty. The *Galconda* sailed for Suaz that morning, the man had been kept in hospital, though well some days before, as a matter of precaution on account of the great heat. For the following case I am indebted to Dr. Hall, R.A., whose notes I liberally quote:—

T. B. Drayer, R. A., being in the hospital for ague, and being treated for this disorder by cinchona, was attacked at 5-30 P.M. on the evening of May 15th, with heat apoplexy. Dr. Hall found him perfectly comatose, pupils rather dilated, (a sign of approaching death), skin burning hot, pulse full, 134, convulsive movements of arms and legs, grinding of the teeth, and gurgling in the throat. Three grains of quinine were at once injected under the skin near the deltoid, one and half grain into each arm; in half an hour the convulsive movements were less, and he seemed better. In an hour he was able to swallow, and had 10 grains quinine given in water. At 8 P.M. he had 10 grains more, the convulsive movements had then ceased, pulse about the same. At 10 P.M. 10 grains more. He was then conscious and said he felt better. At 11 A.M. he was sleeping quietly. On the 17th, says he feels all right, has no headache, is to have five grains of quinine three times daily.

27th.—Up to date no bad symptom, no return of ague, is quite well, and discharged to light duty.

Now both these cases are remarkable, because in them the quinine was the only remedy used. In both cold water was very partially employed, but in no such manner as could be classed as cold affusions. Quinine and that only saved these men. The three grains hypodermically injected may be taken to represent 12 grains given by the mouth.

I will now briefly give two cases of the cardiac form of insolation, in which the remedy was equally successful.

In March, 1866, the 2nd Officer of my ship *Nepos* went on shore at Galle with the Captain to take sights by means of the artificial horizon. He was on shore about two hours, exposed to the early morning sun with a small cloth cap only as a head-dress. Returning on board, he went to his cabin, and sent for me. He complained of intense headache and inability to get up or stand, his pulse was slow and laboured, his skin cold and clammy, he was very pale. I gave him 10 grains quinine at once, and repeated the dose in two hours. He was quite relieved by the afternoon.

Again, an artilleryman marched with his comrades from the artillery station at the Mount into Madras for embarkation on board the *Nadia* in January, 1858. The march took place between 3 p. m. and sunset. The men were all in thick cloth clothing and forage caps. This man was brought to me at once on coming on board. His symptoms were identical with those given above. He had ten grain doses of quinine at an interval of two hours, and was well the following morning.

How does quinine act in these different forms of illness, produced by the same cause, the direct application of the sun to the human body? Whether is it a direct nervous tonic as has been suggested to me by Dr. Chevers, or does it first act by relieving local congestions about the lungs and medulla oblongata, and afterwards exert its influence on the nervous system? * I confess, I do not feel competent to explain this; but that my inability to do so need not, and ought not to lead to the rejection of my proposal without enquiry, may be granted, when we reflect that "the *modus operandi* of iridectomy in glaucoma is not yet understood; but it has proved the remedy by which the largest number of patients suffering from glaucoma are relieved." "Bader on the Human Eye," preface page 7. Then, I say, in any case try the remedy, give it boldly, confidently, and I have no doubt that all who do try it will be as gratified as I am with the results.

The following cases, given in a tabular form, have been treated in the Hospital of the P. and O. Company, in Garden Reach, chiefly by myself, and, except the fatal cases, on the principles I have proposed:—

| | Rank. | Date of Admission. | Date of Discharge. |
|----|--------------------|-------------------------|---|
| 1 | 2nd Officer ... | 12th September, 1856... | 30th September, 1856. |
| 2 | Clerk ... | 31st December, 1856 ... | 5th January, 1857. |
| 3 | Boiler Maker ... | 8th June, 1858 ... | Admitted 4-30 p. M., died 8 p. M.; Dr. L.'s case. |
| 4 | Steward ... | 23rd April, 1859 ... | 26th April, 1859. |
| 5 | Moulder ... | 16th May, 1859 ... | 23rd May, 1859. |
| 6 | Steward ... | 7th July, 1860 ... | 15th July, 1860. |
| 7 | Steward ... | 9th April, 1861 ... | 16th April, 1861. |
| 8 | Plumber ... | 24th June, 1861 ... | 27th June, 1861. |
| 9 | Boiler Maker ... | 2nd October, 1861 ... | 12th October, 1861. |
| 10 | Quarter Master ... | 21st April, 1862 ... | 27th April, 1862. |
| 11 | Fireman ... | 31st April, 1862 ... | 3rd June, 1862. |
| 12 | 1st Engineer ... | 9th September, 1862 ... | 13th September, 1862. |
| 13 | Carpenter ... | 25th September, 1862... | 29th September, 1862. |
| 14 | Engineer ... | 8th June, 1863 ... | 15th June, 1863. |
| 15 | Boatswain ... | 1st July, 1863 ... | 17th July, 1863. |
| 16 | Carpenter ... | 24th June, 1864 ... | 27th June, 1864. |
| 17 | 4th Officer ... | 3rd May, 1865 ... | 5th May, 1865. |
| 18 | Gunner ... | 26th July, 1865 ... | 8th August, 1865. |
| 19 | Gunner ... | 2nd May, 1866 ... | 9th June, 1866. |
| 20 | Engineer ... | 30th May, 1866 ... | 3rd June, 1866. |
| 21 | Steward ... | 8th June, 1866 ... | 15th June, 1866. |
| 22 | Plumber ... | 5th September, 1866 ... | 9th September, 1866. |
| 23 | Steward ... | 26th May, 1867 ... | Admitted 6-30 p. M., died 11-20 p. M., not seen by me, treated by cholera and eructon oil. Dr. H.'s case. |
| 24 | Steward ... | 29th May, 1867 ... | 2nd June, 1867. |
| 25 | Engineer ... | 18th August, 1867 ... | 23rd August, 1867. |
| 26 | Gunner ... | 2nd September, 1867... | Admitted 6-5 p. M., died 6-30 p. M., no quinine given. Dr. M.'s case. |
| 27 | Steward ... | 25th May, 1868 ... | 3rd June, 1868. |
| 28 | Steward ... | 28th July, 1868 ... | 30th June, 1868. |
| 29 | Engineer ... | 26th June, 1868 ... | 30th June, 1868. |
| 30 | Fireman ... | 20th March, 1869 ... | 23rd March, 1869. |
| 31 | Steward ... | 2nd April, 1869 ... | 22nd April, 1869. |

These cases are put down in their order of occurrence; there have been other instances of less importance, which I have not noticed. The above were all true cases of insolation, chiefly from exposure, or working in close stifling atmospheres; the treatment of all was uniform—cold douche and quinine.

The three fatal cases I did not see at all. In concluding these brief remarks I urgently and earnestly ask my medical brethren to try this great remedy for this terrible disease. Can you doubt that your success will equal mine? I hope not, I think not, try it and time will show.

* Dr. Headland considers its first action is on the blood; see his book on the Action of Medicines, p. 147, also op. cit. Article, Quinine.

POST PARTUM HÆMORRHAGE; DEATH FROM SHOCK.

By J. FAYRE, M.D., C.S.I.

ON Sunday morning, 23rd May, 1869, I was sent for to see Mrs. ——— whose expected labour (primipara) had commenced. I found that she had been suffering more or less since the previous evening; the pains were irritating and fatiguing, and had disturbed her rest throughout the night. I made an examination during one of the pains, and found the os uteri high up and pointing towards the sacrum; it was not dilated sufficiently to admit the point of the finger. The bowels were confined, so I ordered a dose of castor oil, and an enema if necessary. I saw her again later and made another examination; the pains were continuing as before, there was no change. The oil had caused sickness; the enema had proved effective; the bladder had also been emptied. Her pulse was natural, her skin cool and moist. The tongue was moist but slightly coated in the centre. I saw her again during the day, little or no progress had been made, by evening, in the dilatation of the os which was rigid, with its margin thin and tense. There was no change in the position of the head which presented, and was as high as ever. She complained much of the fatigue and worry of the incessantly recurring pains, but constitutionally she was unaffected. Her pulse, tongue, and skin were all as they were in the morning. The passages were moist and cool. The fetal heart was distinctly audible and there was no indication of constitutional disturbance of any kind. During the day she had been sick after the oil, and had vomited some bilious matter. She had taken a sufficient supply of fluid nourishment, and a little wine and water occasionally. To give rest, I ordered, after the bowels had acted, liq. opii, min. xvj. It was repeated at bed time, but she had, on the whole, a restless and disturbed night. I found her on the morning of the 24th looking tired and anxious, but all her symptoms were good, pulse about 86; tongue moist and clean; skin cool and moist. The os uteri was now found to have dilated to about the size of a shilling, and was rigid. I prescribed small doses of nitro-m., ʒiij to be given every hour with the view of causing relaxation. After taking three or four doses, she was sick, and it was discontinued; I also put her under the influence of chloroform for a few minutes, on two or three occasions. During the day she took an ample quantity of nourishment; the bowels were relieved, and constitutionally she was as well as ever. Towards evening I became rather uneasy about the non-dilatation of the os uteri, and I expressed my intention to her husband, if, by 9 p. m. more satisfactory progress was not made, to have a consultation. At 9-30, I made another examination, and ascertained that some progress had been made. The os was now about the size of a rupee. She had slept at intervals, and her pulse kept steady; the tongue clean, and the skin was cool and moist. I saw her frequently during the night, as I remained in the house, and was satisfied that progress, though slow, was being made. At 10 A. M. of Tuesday, the 25th, the os had dilated to the size of the rim of a wine glass. As all her symptoms, beyond the delay, were favourable; the pulse under 100, tongue clean and moist, skin and passages moist and cool, fetal heart vigorous; interference was unequalled for. The pains continued, but, perhaps, with more rapid succession, and by 12-30 the second stage of labour had commenced. The head was now well down, and the character of the pains changed. The expulsive efforts continued at regular intervals, and at 5-40 p. m. when partially under the influence of chloroform, she gave birth, with little difficulty, and without the least laceration of the perineum, to a large male child.

The infant was partially asphyxiated, having the cord twice round its neck; but on releasing the cord, using artificial respiration, and dashing cold water on the face and chest it soon breathed and cried vigorously. The cord was then tied and divided. The uterus meanwhile had contracted firmly, and in from fifteen to twenty minutes the placenta was spontaneously expelled; up to this time she had not lost an ounce of blood. I should have noted, that the membranes ruptured at about 10 A. M., and that the liquor amni trickled away with each pain, but there never was any protrusion of a bag of membranes to aid in dilatation. Soon after the placenta had come away, the uterus being firmly contracted, the pad

at the water were applied. She was toiling and looking well, and was much delighted at the birth of her child. Her pulse was peculiarly great after the first term. It could not be remarked how well she bore the second stage of labour, her strength which had fallen slightly during the course of the first stage returned, the restlessness passed away, and her pulse which had quickened throughout rose over 112, and was at the normal standard. I then left the room at about 6.5 P.M., when the nurse arranged for her bed and dress. In a few minutes I went into the room again, and found that all was right but not quiet. Whilst I was speaking to her she said she felt uneasy, and that she went upon her back. This was not out thirty-five to forty minutes after the birth of the child. I put my finger on her pulse, and found the pulse had suddenly quickened. I immediately had the bander removed, and found that the hemorrhage had ceased. The uterus had relaxed, and was distended with blood. I immediately removed the clots, with the right hand, grasping the womb with the left, applied a small *leech* of cold-water externally, and injected cold-water into the uterus. I gave liquor ergot, 5grs., and power I kept her shortly, and applied the magnetoelectric current, the instrument being brought immediately. The child was also put to the breast. With these measures the uterus contracted firmly, and remained true to the last. The quantity of blood lost could not have exceeded two pounds. She was considerably depressed, but did not at this time lose the red colour of the lips and eyelids; the pulse was rapid and irregular, but her voice was good, and she seemed free from alarm, when in reply to her query she was told that the bleeding had been controlled. She did not faint, neither did she manifest, at this time, the usual symptoms of dangerous hemorrhage. She was quiet, and spoke calmly and cheerfully about herself. I gave her brandy and water freely, beef-tea, and brandy mustard poultice over the heart, solar plexus, and on the back. Brandy was also given in the form of cream, and hot bottles were applied to the extremities; but her condition did not improve. The pulse became weaker, and more rapid, and irregular; she was restless, and the surface of the body bedewed with a cold sweat. The countenance began to change, and signs of collapse rapidly set in. These symptoms did not make their appearance for fully half an hour after the hemorrhage had ceased. I had, meanwhile, sent my carriage for assistance, and Dr. Chevers, who was the nearest, came at once. There was no return of hemorrhage, the womb remaining firmly contracted, and not parting with the smallest quantity of blood. During the application of the magnetoelectric battery, and whilst other measures were being taken to ensure uterine contraction, she was in great spirits, held the wine with her own hand, and laughed at the nurse who held the other wine. But when never properly set in, she seemed to have no power of talking, and notwithstanding every effort, she gradually sank. The pulse occasionally rose slightly, giving a delusive hope of reaction, and for a few moments she slept; but at last the breathing became hurried, as though pulmonary obstruction was taking place from a coagulum forming in the right side of the heart. She had become entirely insensible, talked for a short time incoherently; and then sank and died quietly, at about 9.30 P.M., three hours and fifty minutes after the birth of the child, and about three hours and a quarter after the occurrence of hemorrhage.

The remote source of infection to be considered in a review of this and interesting case. The patient was a young English lady, age 23, who had been married about ten months, and born in India ten months. She was of a tall and robustly vigorous, though rather slight frame, her general bearing and face was there anything in her appearance suggestive of debility in vital force. She was said to have suffered severely from the hemorrhage before her marriage, and I have considered to have been, in what an unfortunately weakened condition. She had passed through the period of her pregnancy without much inconvenience, and had completed the full time when labour commenced.

The progress of the first stage of labour was unusually slow, the commencement of satisfactory contracting was not until twelve hours after that the fetal head passed through the cervix and entered on the second stage of labour.

Just as the contraction and progress were nearly ceased, no more force, beyond small doses of ammonia, to facilitate dilatation, spores to procure it, and child reform was generally was considered necessary, and the result proved that such was the case, for the second stage of labour was completed within six hours, and the grave birth to a

vigorous and healthy child, with a fresh stream of blood, and with the uterus contracted firmly, and up to this period there had been no loss of blood. The relaxation of the womb that occurs at the close of labour was sudden, but it was rapidly arrested, and though in the first rush of hemorrhage a considerable amount, about 2 lbs. of blood was lost, there was no repetition of the uterus, after a few minutes, but the clots contracted firmly, and there was no recurrence of hemorrhage.

The quantity of blood lost was not great, as to give rise to danger of syncope or death. Medicine has been resorted to in other cases, and a little more abundant recovery have the womb. But there are certain considerations that seem to be connected with but little power of rallying from a shock, even though slight, and in whom the vital energy of the organism to deal with the ordinary emergencies of life, is inadequate to the task of recovery, when any serious cause of depression has affected the nervous centres.

In such a doubt, the great heat of a Calcutta May, and its terribly depressing influence must be an additional cause of weakness, and a most important obstacle to recovery, when any such shock to the nervous system has taken place.

But death should occur from syncope, or from great exhaustion in profuse hemorrhage, either when the blood is flowing, or immediately after it has ceased to flow, is, though unfortunately uncommon, yet sufficiently intelligible, and needs no explanation in any real or fancied constitutional defect in the sufferer, but that death should follow a comparatively moderate loss of blood, and when the case was apparently free from defect or disease, is more remarkable, and it is owing to the conclusion that, in a constitution naturally inert as to vital power, the influence of climate, such as that of Calcutta in the latter season of the year, must have had a prejudicial effect in preventing the reaction which, in other cases, under ordinary circumstances, might have been hopefully anticipated.

I am satisfied that the loss itself had nothing to say to the unfortunate result. The first stage was certainly very tedious, but it was neither attended with, nor followed by, any failure of constitutional strength. The second stage was accomplished with vigor, and up to the birth of the child, the patient was, in all respects, as well as one could have desired to see her. I have frequently noticed that loss of blood in a surgical operation that would hardly affect a vigorous person, and it is not quite fatal to another, each being in an appearance equally strong, the difference is due, no doubt, to different degrees of vital energy in the individuals, so, in the case I have described, I can only ascribe death to a similar cause.

APoplexy.

By T. FARGHAR, M.D.

As Apoplexy has occurred 1,002 soldiers within the decade noted in the margin, nearly half of whom, however, fell victims to it in one year, 1858, the year of the first arrival of a large body of men from England, and of the mutiny campaign. A year, as Dr. Bryden expresses it, "of the experience of an unwhimsical army in its first year of service in India." Up to 1864 the cases were all registered by Dr. Bryden in his return as heat apoplexy, for that year and since, "apoplexy" is the term used.

| Years. | Deaths. |
|--------|---------|
| 1858 | 478 |
| 1859 | 228 |
| 1860 | 125 |
| 1861 | 60 |
| 1862 | 41 |
| 1863 | 44 |
| 1864 | 24 |
| 1865 | 118 |
| 1866 | 55 |
| 1867 | 83 |
| | 1,692 |

In this case we require, for ordinary purposes, a more distinguishing designation of the causes of death, for the term, apoplexy implies, in the English reader's daily attention, the substance of the brain, and though some of the details enumerated in these tables may be instances of the disease so common in England, it is undoubtably not of common occurrence among the young soldiers of India. For practical purposes we may assume, therefore, that the deaths from apoplexy here recorded are from "heat apoplexy," the term in use for all apoplectic cases down to the year 1864.

But mean, though "heat apoplexy" be the best name yet applied as a general term to all the fatal cases that occur under this head, it is extreme of heat are the real causes of death, yet we must

sub-divide the disease still further, and have in the returns two distinct terms, viz., *comp de soleil* or sun-stroke, and ardent fever. The necessity for this will be acknowledged if we are to understand aright the preventive measures required to save life from this deadly disease.

But first of all the symptoms of these two diseases are not identical, nor is their cause the same. A man struck down by the sun, while exposed to its direct rays in a hot day in India, falls to the ground in a faint, and dies almost immediately, or in an hour or two, of syncope. The body may be hot, but there is at first pallor, and afterwards congestion of the face, from impeded circulation in the blood.

"Ardent fever," on the other hand, comes on more gradually; a sense of oppression and giddiness with all the distress which accompanies the hot stage of fever is complained of, or sometimes stupor comes on rapidly, and terminates suddenly in apoplectic symptoms. One other symptom is prominent above all others in this form, viz., intense heat of the body.

The cause of the one set of cases is the direct influence of solar heat in an intensely hot atmosphere. The cause of the second is extreme heat without necessary exposure to the sun, but apparently the effect of an exacerbation of fever while surrounded by a very high temperature.

Both causes may sometimes be operating on a body of men at the same time; but fortunately no opposing preventive measures or medicinal treatment have to be recommended for the relief of the sufferers. Bearing in mind these two forms of the disease we have a ready clue to the differences observed in the mortality during the different months in the decade under review.

While the army was in the field in 1858 and 1859, and but poorly housed in 1860, we see a very high death-rate from heat apoplexy. The most remarkable loss was in May, 1858, when 423 deaths occurred out of 929 cases. Many of these must have been instances of *comp de soleil*, as the men had to be continually in the sun.

This as a cause of mortality cannot be avoided in times of war, but the records of many instances of loss from sun-stroke point to several causes through which some corps lose many more than others. One of these is exhaustion from (1) over-exertion, (2) want of sleep, and (3) want of food; it may not be possible in the face of the army to avoid the first of these. Great care to prevent unnecessary disturbances and alarms in camp at night will provide against the second cause, this is attended to in some regiments and disregarded in others, but should be impressed on all commanding officers as a point of the first importance in the preservation of the efficiency of a corps, and warding off this and other sickness. The third is, perhaps, the most important and most easily provided against cause of *comp de soleil*. In some regiments the men before leaving camp in the early morning have something to eat and drink. In such corps *comp de soleil* is, as a rule, very rare, while men who march in a hot sun on an empty stomach are very liable to fatal faintness on the march, or soon after their arrival in camp.

I cannot help believing, too, that the belt across the chest assists in that congestion of the lungs in which death occurs in these serious cases. The sooner the men belts, like braces, are introduced into India, the better for the men, as the constriction they now suffer from over the chest will thereby be relieved.

The second form of heat apoplexy, called very appropriately "ardent fever" from the fierceness of the heat of the body of the patient, is seen to occur inside barracks and hospitals, and during the night as well as during the day. From the returns it is seen that after 1860, when the exposure in tents on the campaign ceased, this form of apoplexy occurred most severely, not in May, as it did in the years of campaigning, but in June and July. The numbers standing thus for four months from 1861-67:—

| | | | |
|------|-------|-------|---------|
| May. | June. | July. | August. |
| 49 | 140 | 149 | 46 |

In May the heat is untempered by the falling of rain, hence in camp life we can understand how the sun is then most powerful in destroying life *per se*. In June and July fevers are more abundant, and the heat still very great, hence we see fever once developed passing into the "ardent" form, and destroying life with apoplectic symptoms. The comparative immunity of cholera camps during the rains, from the so-called sun-strokes, is no doubt accounted for by the

absence of the fevers so prevalent in barracks; we have also exemption from those fatiguing marches and want of sleep and so forth, that are so destructive to life on a campaign.

The month of June also, is by far the most apoplectic time for native soldiers and prisoners, as the following table shows:—

Total deaths from apoplexy in the years 1861-65-66-67.

| Sepoy. Prisoners. | | Sepoy. Prisoners. | |
|-------------------|------|-------------------|------|
| January | 2 9 | July | 3 17 |
| February | 1 10 | August | 5 8 |
| March | 2 5 | September | 1 6 |
| April | 1 8 | October | 2 10 |
| May | 4 9 | November | 1 12 |
| June | 5 44 | December | 2 6 |

Average strength for the four years in question.

| | | | |
|--------|---------|-----------|---------|
| Sepoys | 36,485. | Prisoners | 61,802. |
|--------|---------|-----------|---------|

We can easily understand this when we think of the steady heat of the first part of the rains, especially at night, when a dense hot stillness and utter stagnation in the atmosphere prevails.

It is remarkable to note in the above table, the difference between the seizures of the sepoy and the prisoner; the former is not put up in a barrack, breathing vitiated air as the latter is; any one who has visited a jail barrack in the early morning succeeding a hot still night will understand what risks the prisoners run who breathe such tainted air.

We find in Dr. Bryden's tables such numerous examples of heat apoplexy accompanying increase of fever in barracks, that for a diminution of this form of death the same recommendations would apply to preventive measures for each.

1. Subsoil drainage.
2. Segregation of the men.
3. More perfect means of keeping the barracks cool.

This last is the essential in the disease, and can certainly be aided by a diminution in size of barrack rooms. Artificial ventilation for three months of the year, such as is given to prisoners in solitary cells in the Agra jail would effect this, and doubtless save many lives.

The importance of sanitary and preventive measures, probably of the nature above noticed, is doubly urged on our attention by the characteristics of this disease. Next to cholera this is the most fatal form in which death attacks either Europeans or natives in India, and like cholera, this disease can be effectually dealt with only in its first stage, and then it is very amenable to treatment.

When, however, apoplectic symptoms have fairly set in, or have lasted for some time, no means yet tried are effectual in rousing the patient. The insidious or sudden character of the onset of this, as of all forms of apoplexy, and the inability from insensibility of the sufferer to give notice of his state, is the most frequent cause of death.

Seeing this is the case, the principal means of saving life are to be supplied in the barrack room, rather than in the hospital.

As regards the disease and its treatment, it appears that the cases that occurred from sun-stroke were less deadly than those from ardent fever. The accompanying table for the decade shows that before the troops were housed in barracks, that is during 1858, 1859, and 1860, the mortality was less than it subsequently became.

From 1862, the deaths to the proportion of men attacked has materially lessened, though still very high. The hope is that a general improvement in the treatment has effected this change, though the reduced amount of remittent and continued fevers, which are so intimately connected with the more severe form of this disease, may account in a measure for the good result. Many of the cases, too, that occurred were doubtless from "sun-strokes," as a large number of men had to go into camp on account of cholera.

| Year. | Heat apoplexy; deaths to ad-
mission. |
|-------|--|
| 1858 | 41.36 |
| 1859 | 47.28 |
| 1860 | 41.52 |
| 1861 | 61.22 |
| 1862 | 61.56 |
| 1863 | 47.87 |
| 1864 | 67.74 |
| 1865 | 64.98 |
| 1866 | 46.67 |
| 1867 | 41.69 |

SUMMARY OF FIFTY POST-MORTEM EXAMINATIONS OF INHABITANTS

By KENNETH M'LEOD, A.M., M.D., L.R.C.S.E.

(Continued.)

TABLE

| No. | I.
GENERAL
CONDITION. | II.
EXTERNAL
APPEAR-
ANCES. | III.
CRANIAL CAVITY. | | | | IV.
THORACIC CAVITY. | | | | |
|-----|-----------------------------|---|-------------------------|--|----------------------------|------------------|--|--|---|--|---|
| | | | Skull & Sinuses. | Meninges. | Brain, &c. | Lungs & Trachea. | Trachea & Pleura. | Right Lung. | Left Lung. | Pericardium. | Heart, &c. |
| 1 | Exceedingly emaciated. | Pulse from left femoral artery, foot side, natural. | Healthy. | P. mater congested, with effusion. | Congested. | Healthy. | Right lobe of trachea inflamed, and covered with serous membrane. | Collapsed and emphysematous. | Congested and oedematous. | Contents of a large quantity of serum. | Contents of the cavity. |
| 2 | Much emaciated. | Nothing noted. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Slight adhesions on right side of trachea, serous membrane on right removed. | Congested; emphysematous anteriorly. | Upper lobe hepaticized, engorged. | Serous membrane of lungs punctated. | White contents of the cavity, and walls, &c. healthy. |
| 3 | Well nourished. | Nothing noted. | Healthy. | Gross congestion, with considerable effusion. | Much punctated. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Hypostatic congestion. | Hypostatic congestion. | Healthy. | White contents of the cavity, walls, &c. healthy. |
| 4 | Excessively emaciated. | Feet oedematous. | Healthy. | Considerable subarachnoid effusion. | Pale and oedematous. | Healthy. | Old adhesions on left side of trachea, both removed. | Pigmented and oedematous. | Pigmented and oedematous. | Contents of a small quantity of serum. | White contents of the cavity, walls, &c. healthy. |
| 5 | Much emaciated. | Nothing noted. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Right pneumonia, fibrinous, considerable effusion, and emphysematous pleura. | Upper lobes hepaticized, lower engorged. | Congested. | Healthy. | Small quantity of white contents, walls, &c. healthy. |
| 6 | Excessively emaciated. | Nothing noted. | Healthy. | Considerable subarachnoid fluid. | White substance punctated. | Healthy. | Old adhesions on right side. | Hypostatic congestion. | Hypostatic congestion. | Healthy. | White contents of the cavity, walls, &c. healthy. |
| 7 | Well nourished. | Nothing noted. | Healthy. | Serous congestion, with considerable effusion. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Right lobe of trachea inflamed, and covered with fungus. | Engorged. | Upper lobe engorged; lower hepaticized. | Healthy. | White contents of the cavity. |
| 8 | Rather emaciated. | Nothing noted. | Healthy. | Serous congestion, with serous effusion. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Old adhesions on both sides, removed; inflammation. | Middle and lower lobes hepaticized; rest engorged. | Congested. | Healthy. | White contents of the cavity, walls, &c. healthy. |
| 9 | Well nourished. | Nothing noted. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Pleural adhesions on both sides. | Engorged and partially hepaticized. | Slightly congested. | Healthy. | White contents of the cavity, the heart. |
| 10 | Excessively emaciated. | Nothing noted. | Healthy. | Old adhesions on both sides, removed. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Fluid in both cavities. | Congested and very oedematous. | Congested and very oedematous. | Healthy. | Filled with fibrinous contents, walls, &c. healthy. |
| 11 | Rather emaciated. | Hands and feet not dependent. | Healthy. | Very congested, with considerable effusion. | Punctated. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Congested throughout. | Congested throughout. | Healthy. | White and detritus in arteries, walls, &c. healthy. |
| 12 | Exceedingly emaciated. | Bed sores on each ankle, small abscesses all over body. | Skull thin. | Considerable effusion. | Pale and oedematous. | Healthy. | Contents of a small quantity of serum. | Engorged and very oedematous. | Engorged and very oedematous. | Healthy. | And detritus in arteries, walls, &c. walls healthy. |

OF THE JESSORE DISTRICT, PERFORMED IN THE JAIL HOSPITAL.

*Civil Assistant-Surgeon, Jessore.**Vol. IV., page 71.)*

No. III.

V.
ABDOMINAL CAVITY.

| Peritoneum and Peritoneum. | Stomach. | Small Intestine. | Large Intestine. | Liver. | Spleen. | Right Kidney. | Left Kidney. | Pancreas, &c. |
|-------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|--|--|--|---------------|
| Filled with serum. | Contracted. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Adhered to diaphragm; contained enormous abscess; tissue fatty. | Enlarged; pigmented. | Large; white. | Large; white. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Nutmeg. | Enlarged and engorged. | Cortical substance slightly degenerated; pyramids congested. | Cortical substance slightly degenerated; pyramids congested. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Soft and friable. | Congested. | Congested. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Contained coffee-coloured fluid. | Portions congested; mucous membrane atrophied. | Atrophied; small circular ulcers near rectum. | Very fatty. | Small and firm. | Misshapen; cortical substance degenerated and atrophied. | Misshapen; cortical substance degenerated and atrophied. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Enlarged, hypertrophied, and engorged. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Contracted and empty. | Mucous membrane of a slaty colour; acute and chronic congestion in patches. | Contracted; ulcers, recent and old, with pigment deposit. | Fatty. | Capsule thickened; organ enlarged and hypertrophied. | Contained cysts; cortical substance atrophied and degenerated. | Contained cysts; cortical substance atrophied and degenerated. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Enlarged and engorged. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Fatty and slightly cirrhotic. | Enlarged and engorged; capsule thickened. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Slightly fatty. | Capsule thickened; strong adhesions around. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. |
| Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Congested. | Dark and friable. | Atrophied and degenerated. | Atrophied and degenerated. | Healthy. |
| Peritoneal fluid viscid and scanty. | Distended with undigested food; mucous membrane sodden. | Filled with a brown fluid; mucous membrane soft and sodden; Peyer's glands distended. | Contracted; mucous membrane soft and slimy. | Healthy; gall bladder distended. | Congested. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. |
| Contained a large amount of fluid. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Healthy. | Soft and friable; fatty. | Much enlarged; capsule thickened; substance indurated. | Pale and degenerated, with black deposits. | Enlarged; contained tubercles; soft and friable. | Healthy. |

fourth day. The dressing next the wound is on no account to be disturbed, but some fresh oil and carbolic acid may be poured over it; then a piece of lint or cloth soaked in the same mixture is to be applied; then the melted tar and wax; and then the tin-foil as before.

In this way I have treated many wounds and several cases of compound fracture, both at the Colvin dispensary and Railway hospital, and I have now under treatment a case of amputation of the fore-arm which did remarkably well under the above dressing, a considerable portion of the flaps healing by the first application.

Among the workmen in the shops of the East Indian Railway, numerous wounds of the fingers occur almost daily, and these being well washed with the solution of carbolic acid, covered by the oily solution, and lastly by the plaster or ointment of coal-tar and bees-wax, and gutta percha tissue, heal rapidly, and only require to be once dressed if the patient is careful to prevent the dressing being disturbed. From the last number of Braithwaite's Retrospect of Medicine, I observe that Professor Lister now recommends, instead of carbolic acid and whiting, a compound of lead plaster mixed with a fourth part of bees-wax. To this carbolic acid is added in the proportion of one-tenth of the whole.

ON LUNAR INFLUENCE OVER MALARIOUS FEVERS.

By W. J. MOORE, L.R.C.P.,
Surgeon, Rajpootana Agency.

(Continued from page 114).

I now proceed to give my reasons for still believing in lunar influence over malarious fever, in the face of so much recorded negative statistical evidence. As before mentioned, I consider the disturbing agencies, which must be present, sufficient to prevent the preparation of any trustworthy statistics. For instance, people very frequently do not apply for relief for attacks of fever. Malarious fevers having once occurred in any individual, may be re-excited by exposure, debauch, errors of diet, fatigue, solar heat, cold, or mental emotions (c). Medicines previously taken, must often interfere with the natural periodical return of the disease. 2dly.—The evidence of individual cases appears strongly affirmative. Many, both medical men and others, have assured me, they find tendency to, or actually have secondary recurrences of ague, at the period of the springs. Moreover, I could cite a score of instances where I have watched cases of the kind, and the liability to recurrence of either fever or anomalous sensations, not only presents in the tropics, but also, for long after return of the individual to Europe. 3dly.—Notwithstanding the assertions of Arago and Airy, that the moon exerts no influence on the weather, I confess a leaning to the more popular belief, that she does so, and in this I am supported by the declarations of other astronomers. Mr. Howard has ascertained, that the barometer suffers a depression of about one-tenth of an inch at the new and full moon, "the consequence of the greater influence of these phases, in comparison with the first and third quarters in the production of regular lunar atmospheric tides, on which the fall depends." If, as appears undoubted, the moon's attraction is the chief cause of the oceanic tides, it certainly seems not unreasonable to suppose, that such power must in some way influence the less dense fluid of the atmosphere. That lunar influence or its consequences will excite fever in any person, not already poisoned by what we call malaria, I do not believe. To me it appears, that a primary attack of malarious fever has nothing to do with the question of lunar influence. But what I submit is this, that an impression having been once made by malarious poison, paroxysmal returns of fever, or other anomalous symptoms coming under the head of that condition, I have elsewhere ventured to denominate, "marked malarious fever," are liable to appear in apparent connection with the phases of the moon. The moon influences the weather, either as regards change of temperature, or moisture, or force and direction of winds, or in some more subtle

manner, with which we are unacquainted (in the matters of light electricity, magnetism), and the disturbance of our medium thus resulting, re-excites malarious influences into renewed action.

Holding these views, it will be evident that I do not place any confidence in the attempted explanations of the connection between lunar changes and malarious diseases by the laws of periodicity. It has been supposed that there is an ebb and flow in the circulation, corresponding with the phases of the moon, the blood flowing more rapidly, and the *vis vite* being more stimulated at the flood, and full, than at the ebb, when a reaction takes place proportionate to the previous excitation. In support of this theory, it was noticed by Dr. Mead, that most deaths occur at the ebb of the tide; and indeed this would appear to be an observation of no very recent date as Shakespeare, who was almost as great a physician (according to the lights of his period) as a poet, makes the death of Falstaff, to take place "just at the turn of the tide." But notwithstanding all that can be advanced on the subject of periodicity, to argue that as the moon's changes are periodical, *ergo*, she exerts influence over a periodical disease, is not logical. It might as well be asserted, that lunar power extends over the healthy system, because there is a well ascertained periodical daily disturbance, or rather evening exacerbation, as indicated by the arterial pulse. Or that the moon is paramount over the gestation of animals, or the phenomena of hibernation, or the moulting of birds, or the loss of the first teeth, and eruption of the second set, or the menstrual period, or the flowers of the monthly rose, or any other of the numerous periodical occurrences of animal and vegetable life. The simple explanation of atmospheric changes, influencing the malarious system, appears to me sufficient, without involving ourselves in a maze of theoretical arguments regarding periodicity.

Neither do I concur in the explanation which has been attempted, to effect that during low ebb tides, a large amount of mud surface is exposed, and consequently more malaria extracted. It is indeed doubtful, if salt marshes, especially those subject to periodical inundations, evolve malaria at all. If the connection between the moon phase and malarious fever were only noticed near the coasts, there would be reason for further observations. But persons suffer, perhaps, more at the changes of the moon hundreds of miles up-country, than they do at or near the ocean.

From the foregoing it will also be evident that I do not believe in the direct influence of the moon. I propose considering the question of alleged direct influence as a cause of certain malarious, *viz.*, metastasia, paralysis, swelling of the face, &c., in a second communication.

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

CASES FROM OPHTHALMIC PRACTICE.

By J. B. SCRIVEN,

Principal, Lahore Medical School.

HERPES ZOSTER FRONTALIS.

HERPES ZOSTER of the face, though not an exceedingly common form of this disorder, is now recognised as one of the most frequent occurrence, and often productive of serious consequences to the eye. It has been described by Mr. Bowman and Mr. Jonathan Hutchinson, in the Ophthalmic Hospital Reports, Vol. V. page 191, and Vol. VI. pages 1 and 181; a case is figured by Helmholtz and the subject is touched upon by Macnamara, in his valuable Treatise on Ophthalmic Surgery just published. Macnamara does not say, however, that he has met with any cases in this country, nor have I seen any recorded in the Indian journals.

In the majority of cases, the first, or ophthalmic division of the fifth nerve alone, has been affected by the eruption, and hence the disease has generally been called herpes frontalis, or ophthalmicus. Mr. Bowman however, mentions three cases, in which the second division was also affected; and Mr. Hutchinson, in his paper in the last number of the Ophthalmic Hospital Reports, already referred to, relates one, the first he had ever seen, of the eruption extending to the cheek.

The following case, which was under my care, in the Medical School Hospital in 1867, affords an additional instance of implication of the superior maxillary nerve. It is also illustrated another important fact, noticed by Hutchinson, namely established, *viz.*, that the side of the nose may show vesicles to a large extent, but is generally transiently unaltered.

(a) I was very recently assured by a medical officer of standing, that the only time he suffered from ague was immediately (within an hour), after being subjected to great annoyance. In this instance, malaria must have been dormant, and excited to action by the mental disturbance.

NOTE ON DRY EARTH DRESSING.

By SEBASTIAN T. MATHEW, M.B., *Dry Earth Disp.*

I HAVE noted within the last week the plan published in the last *Lancet Medical Gazette*, extracted by the *Lancet* from the American journals, of removing the fetor from gurgulous sloughs by the direct application of dry earth. I tried it in a case of sloughing flaps after a third amputation, after I had failed with the usual carbolic acid formulae, in arresting the sloughing or removing the slough. I found that, on throwing a handful of earth, thoroughly pulverized and dried, upon the sloughing surface, a dense, granular mass formed, but the mass, when it dried, did not become saturated with the discharge the fetor returned. This was only what was to be expected. I then tried a thick layer of dried earth lightly hand-applied over the stump, and when the small returned had dried earth applied outside the bandage, but without succeeding in destroying the fetor. This dry earth seemed to produce no effect upon the sloughing. Under these circumstances, I was obliged to resort to the old chemical practice. Immediately on applying it, whether *post* or *propter*, the sloughing ceased, and healthy granulations appeared.

ANTISEPTIC TREATMENT OF NECROSIS.

By G. D. McREDDIE,
Civil Surgeon, Harbri.

A LAD about fourteen years of age, was admitted into the dispensary 24th November, 1868, suffering from necrosis of the right tibia; numerous sinuses led down to the bone, and the limb presented a most unnatural appearance from the combined presence in it of portions of nearly two shafts of tibia, the newly formed bone, and part of the dead one in course of absorption. The lad's general health was good, but walking was painful. The history given is that four years ago he sprained his ankle, and has ever since been suffering more or less acutely from the accident. Now in this case, nature was evidently effecting a cure by causing gradual absorption of the dead bone; the only question seemed to be—whether the drain in the system, caused by the sinuses, would not be too much for the patient's constitution, and eventually destroy life; or at all events, the process of cure be so far prolonged as seriously and permanently to impair his health. If the sinuses could be got to close up, with average care, the limb might be safely left to itself, and the process of absorption go on to completion. Shortly before seeing this case, I had perused a most interesting publication by Professor Lister in which he had pursued a most interesting publication by Professor Lister in giving a case of acute necrosis treated as the antiseptic system. With such a record before me, and the history of the case which was undergoing a natural process of cure, operative interference, by attempting removal of dead bone, was quite out of the question. I determined only to employ a course to close up the sinuses, and do nothing else. The only solution of carbolic acid some part of acid to four parts (oil) was used, a piece of cloth wet with the solution being placed in the limb, and renewed two or three times a day, the dressing was changed every third day. Subsequently the oil dressing was covered over with tulle, and as this procedure prevented evaporation of the acid, dressings were renewed only once a week. Under this treatment the sinuses all fairly closed, the skin completely healed, and the patient was discharged on the 22nd February, 1869. The limb had become much smaller, walking was painless, and he was seen in my appearance. It was evident that the dead bone was undergoing absorption.

A CASE OF RUPTURE OF THE HEART.

ON the 5th April, the body of a man, aged about 45, was sent in for post-mortem examination from an out-station. The appearance discovered were as follows:—Body apparently that of an able-bodied, healthy man, hair greyish, no marks of violence on the skin; but in cutting down on the sternum an œdyma, pressing through cellular tissue, and muscles, was seen over the 3rd and 4th costal cartilages on the left side. On dividing the pericardium the sac was found full of clotted blood. On examination *in situ*, with jagged edges, size of an egg-shape piece, was observed in the left ventricle, the heart was large as I have, with an abundant deposit of fat on its walls, which were thus weak; excessive pleuritic adhesions on both sides, not, however, of very late date; lung-tissue compressed and congested; stomach empty; spleen in a state of maceration, it broke down completely on being removed, liver pedicle somewhat enlarged, but otherwise natural; intestines natural; valves of heart natural; no atheromatous deposits on aorta. The brain was not examined.

Nothing certain is known regarding the circumstances under which death took place. The man was found dead on his sleeping floor, which he had been watching, it is probable that he was struck 1 by thieves; that a struggle ensued in which he was struck over the chest and spleen; that with his heart undergoing fatty degeneration, the exertion so very unusual for him in the organ, and the direct violence inflicted on it, caused rupture of its wall, and sudden death. As subsidiary causes of death there were the pleuritis and its results, congestion of the lungs, a more or less loaded state of the right side of the heart, circumstances thus tending more, away to impair health and

intermittent fever with its result, a softened spleen which was easily ruptured. These were *two* fatal accidents, but that afflicting the more vital organ must be mainly taken into account in tracing the cause of death.

DEATH FROM SWALLOWING A MISWAK, OR TOOTH-STICK.

By DR. HUTCHINSON,
Civil Surgeon, India.

MR. WATSON'S case in the current number of the *Lancet Medical Gazette*, recalls to me an extraordinary case, which occurred to me some while since at Putehpore, in the Punjab. An old woman, while civil surgeon at Putehpore, had lost the mummy. An old woman, with frequent cough. With great difficulty she unfolded her story, which struck me as marvellous and beyond belief. After chronic her teeth, she was in the habit (like all natives), of passing the miswak far down, with the object of promoting retching, and thereby clearing the fauces of the mucus accumulated during the night. While so engaged three days previously, she took her usual dinner, and closed her bed, frightened out of her wits, she had not the sense to withdraw her finger, and the present urgent symptoms as gradually set in. According to the old woman's description, it must have been nine inches long. What had become of it? It was posterosuperiorly that it had bodily entered the trachea, but a fragment might have found its way thither, and occasioned the urgent and distressing symptoms present in the poor woman. It must, therefore, have slipped into the œsophagus, but if so, why such distinct indications of bronchial mischief? The finger passed down into the pharynx could detect nothing, the pharyngeal lens could grasp nothing, and an emetic, which acted freely, brought up no foreign body. I then opened the trachea and passed a pair of dressing forceps carefully up and down, but could detect nothing.

In the course of the day, the poor woman died asphyxiated and unrevived. A *post-mortem* revealed the miswak, nine inches long, lying quietly in the œsophagus, and resting on the lower margin of the stomach, where there was a patch of congestion, the size of an egg-nose, and presented the appearance to be expected in death from acute bronchitis.

In this curious case, I could only say that death was due to bronchial complications, induced by the presence of a foreign body in the œsophagus; but I never heard or read of a similar instance.

CASE OF LODGMENT OF FOREIGN BODY IN THE BLADDER—EXTRACTION BY PERINEAL INCISION—RECOVERY.

By KENNETH McLEOD, A.M., M.D.,
Assistant Surgeon, 6th B. L. I.

NAZIR MAHMOUD SUEIK, aged 27, a resident of Harabatty in the Jessor District, came to the Jessor Charitable Dispensary, on the 24th May, 1868, stating that he had got a piece of bamboo into his perineum two months before, that it had lodged, and wishing to have it extracted. The man was placed in the position for lithotomy, and his perineum was carefully inspected and examined. No stone existed, and the only indication of previous injury was a small cicatrix about an inch to the right of the anal orifice, a careful examination per anum was made without revealing anything unusual, and the man's story was discredited.

Further questioning drew attention to the bladder, and a sound was introduced which impinged on what appeared to be a stone, and seemed from the extent to which the instrument passed over its surface to be a large one. The sensation and ring were quite characteristic, and lithotomy was determined upon. On the 30th of June, a similar incision was made in front of the anal orifice, after the method proposed and practised by Sir William Ferguson. This terminated in a lateral incision of the prostate and neck of the bladder. The fore-finger of the left hand was now introduced, and, instead of a stone, a pointed body like a stone-pipe was discovered, its long axis was transverse to that of the bladder. Urine had been voided during the perineal stage of lithotomy, and the ends of the foreign body included the empty bladder on each side.

To attempt extraction, while it was in this position, was inadvisable. Owing to the primary incision being central, the finger could be carried well into the vesicle. One end of the foreign body was pushed backwards, and the other gradually moved forward by getting the point of the fore-finger beneath and a little behind it. After manoeuvring thus for some minutes, the point was got into the wound, and it was laid hold of by a pair of dressing forceps, and easily removed. On examining the foreign body, it was found to be a pointed bit of bamboo 2½ inches long, the ends of it were cut by a 1½ inch bit of the forceps. The three main parts were covered with a crust of deposit, and the extremities were smooth.

The Indian Medical Gazette.

Notices to Correspondents.

- A "JUSTICE SEEKER" should be ever gratified at having the opportunity given him of performing such good work, than eisel at there being no scale of remuneration.
- MR. RAM CHUNDER MITTER, Sub-Assistant Surgeon of the Civil Station, Nagpur, sends us an interesting account on the nature and treatment of scrofula, as they occur among the prisoners of the Nagpur Jail. We much regret that we have not space to publish it. He states the sores are produced by the tricks of the men themselves; that they soon assume a sloughy character; and that the treatment that answers best is perfect rest, and opium. The introduction of some measure of preventive discipline would appear to be desirable.
- Sub-Assistant Surgeon CHEYEN SHAW at Peshawar, sends us a paper on the advantages of Borax as an antiperiodic in cases of intermittent fever; as he remarks, borax being a very cheap medicine is very economical, and not so nasty or heating a medicine as quinine. Several Sub-Assistant Surgeons, from different parts of the Punjab, record favourable opinions in him of the good results of the treatment, and this encourages him to pursue his investigation. He remarks, "as far as I can learn, borax has never been employed by English, or English-influenced practitioners, in the treatment of intermittent fever."
- MR.—sends us the particulars of a case of carbuncle, cured, he says, by the patient refusing to legitimate treatment after having been led astray by other advice; personal matters are introduced, which it would be as well always to avoid in detailing medical cases.

Communications have been received from—

- CIVIL ASSISTANT SURGEON, Dhawaspore.
 Assistant Surgeon F. M. MACKENZIE, Presidency General Hospital, W. CAMPBELL, Esq., Assistant Superintendent of Police, Mysore.
 Surgeon G. E. FRODIP, 15th Bengal Cavalry, Peshawar.
 DR. WALLER, Calcutta.
 Assistant-Surgeon A. NEIL, Civil Surgeon, Ludhiana.
 INSPECTOR-GENERAL of Hospitals Office, H. M.'s British Forces, Suva, I. B. MATHEWS, Civil Surgeon, Dergavelly.
 DR. FRANCIS, Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals.
 DR. RAYTON, Civil Surgeon, Norwichey.
 AN ENQUIRING SUB-ASSISTANT SURGEON.
 Surgeon W. J. MOORE, Rajpootana Agency.
 DR. MCSHO, C.B., Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals.

SPECIAL NOTICE.

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Technical expressions ought to be so distinct that no possible mistake can be made in printing them.

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TREATMENT FOR HEAT APOPLEXY.

WE would direct the attention of our readers to a new treatment for heat apoplexy—or apoplexy as all cases are called now—brought to notice in this number by Dr. Waller. He has employed the remedy for many years; its success is remarkable, and it is well worthy of being generally tried.

Through the kindness of the Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals, British service, at the Presidency, we are enabled to give the details of five cases: three recovered in which quinine was used, two died, in which it was not used.

If any officer should be induced to give the remedy a trial, it is hoped they will communicate the results to this journal.

NOTES FROM A SURGEON-MAJOR ON FURLOUGH.

THE stimulant and non-stimulant modes of treatment in disease are occupying greatly the thinking minds in Edinburgh. All seem agreed as to the necessity of supporting the system during the exhausting stages of fever, and ascribe a diminished mortality to the "high-fed fevers" of the great Dublin physician.

There is, however, a growing conviction that stimulation proves harmful during the early days of an attack of fever, and that in some chronic diseases of the digestive system, and in plautis, you may cause a great deal of uneasiness, and accelerate a fatal result, by drenching the system with alcoholic liquors, and over-loading the blood with the rich products of butcher-meat.

White meat, with puddings and milk diet, abundantly supplied as the patient can bear it, have proved peculiarly fitted for those severer cases of diarrhoea that return from India in an exhausted state. Some cases were related to me, where serious and fatal mischief followed attempts to restore the constitution rapidly by frequent and full diets of butcher-meat. This is no news to us in India where the value of a milk diet is so well understood; but I write it to show the direction which professional thought takes at present in Scotland.

I have been frequently asked if the treatment of dysentery by ipecacuanha in large doses is really of such undoubted value as is represented. It is difficult to give an unqualified answer, as the questioner's mind may have received a too favourable impression, but I have not hesitated to express in the strongest terms, the inestimable good that follows large doses in acute attacks of a tomform, besides being very valuable in some other forms of the disease. The good effects of ten grain doses in injection seems less understood, though we know, in cases of great irritability of the stomach, how valuable it is. Children, too, get great relief, as you know, in dysentery, from this mode of exhibiting smaller doses.

of the disease, which is not only a local but an acute one, and is not, as I have already said, a venereal disease. It is not, as I have also said, a disease of the venous system, but rather of the arterial system, which is not only a local but an acute one, and is not, as I have already said, a venereal disease.

Dr. Johnson, of the College of Physicians, Aberdeen, has shown that the disease is not only a local but an acute one, and is not, as I have already said, a venereal disease. It is not, as I have also said, a disease of the venous system, but rather of the arterial system, which is not only a local but an acute one, and is not, as I have already said, a venereal disease.

It is interesting to you, even an account of some interesting cases of aneurism of the thoracic aorta, which I have seen in several Indians. I have seen many of them, and have tried to cure them by the use of blisters to the spine, head, chest, &c. Dr. G. Myers, a very able member of our service, in speaking of this disease, says that he remembers having been accused of curing that very one in India, but is something of the matter with the case, and is surprised at his finding it very commonly affected for the number of sufferers in dyspepsia arising from indigestion; this view is a very common one in my experience.

ANEURISM IN THE ARMY.

In the May number, we draw attention to Mr. Myers' observations on the frequency of aortic aneurism in the army, published in the *Lancet* of the 20th February, and in doing so, we produced some of the data derived from Dr. Heyden's tables, exhibiting the prevalence of heart disease and aneurism among British troops serving in the army from 1858 to 1898 inclusive. If we place the ratio of aortic aneurism in the Foot Guards and Line Regiments at one case to 1,000 British troops, and sailors in the Navy, side by side for a number of consecutive years, the preponderance or excess of aneurism in the two former bodies of men is very striking—

| | Ratio of deaths per 1,000 of Army at home | Ratio of deaths per 1,000 of strength in India, Army in India | Ratio of deaths per 1,000 of strength in Royal Navy |
|------|---|---|---|
| 1858 | 28 | 2 | 11 |
| 1859 | 32 | 1 | 20 |
| 1860 | 37 | 1 | 18 |
| 1861 | 35 | 1 | 30 |

It is not, however, proved that aneurism of the aorta is eleven times more common in the army than in the civil population. What is the ratio of this remarkable excess of mortality from aneurism in the British army at home and in India? It cannot, we presume, have anything to do with the mode of recruiting. It can scarcely be said that selection has been practised in the selection and passing of recruits to the army than for the navy. We take it that the aneurism of the aorta has been gathering the portals of admission to the service, and that the amount of kill that can be counted on for the recruit has been wanting to prevent the enrolment of recruits in the army and navy.

The statistics from the subject of an able paper by Dr. Kennedy, read before the Medical Society of the King and Queen's College of Physicians in London, in 1897.

It is not, however, proved that the excess of mortality from aneurism of the aorta is eleven times more common in the army than in the civil population. What is the ratio of this remarkable excess of mortality from aneurism in the British army at home and in India? It cannot, we presume, have anything to do with the mode of recruiting. It can scarcely be said that selection has been practised in the selection and passing of recruits to the army than for the navy. We take it that the aneurism of the aorta has been gathering the portals of admission to the service, and that the amount of kill that can be counted on for the recruit has been wanting to prevent the enrolment of recruits in the army and navy.

There is no doubt that the sailor is constantly exposed to much more strain upon his organs of circulation than the army. This is the natural result of his occupation. We also know from the labours of Harvey and others, that the progress of any given case of aneurism of the aorta to a fatal termination, or *rupture aortae*, in the latter part of taxation induced by the occupation, or system. For, while a man, leading a quiet, sedentary life, provided with every intellectual luxury, with nothing to augment the ordinary power exerted by the act of trade, may live some years in the enjoyment of moderate health, aneurism of the thoracic aorta in a person in the position of a soldier, who is not over-burdened with luxury or ease, and who is repeatedly compelled to bring his extraordinary muscles of respiration into play to enable him to arterize the blood coming to the lungs from the right ventricle as rapidly as it is sent thither, conditions which may correspondingly activity in the left ventricle and arterial system generally, may, and often does perish in a few months, either directly or indirectly, giving way to the aneurismal sac, or indirectly from complications in neighbouring and important organs. The only hope for the prolongation of life, in the latter instance, is early recognition. It is, therefore, somewhat possible that a portion of the difference in the mortality from thoracic aneurism in the army and navy may be attributable to earlier retarding of the subjects of the disease in the latter service. But we are far from believing that this explains the whole discrepancy.

Atkinson, on page 74, vol. 4, II, fourth edition of his work on *Practical Medicine*, though recognizing the influence of gout and rheumatism in the causation of aneurism, declares that out of 26 post-mortem examinations of soldiers in each of which a distinct history of syphilis was present, associated with unmistakable syphilitic lesions, 17 had the seat of the thoracic aorta impaired by characteristic

changes—changes which are uncommon at an early period of life, and which I have every reason to believe are due to syphilis. The changes are obvious from electrical-like loss of substance of the inner coats; small local dilatation of the artery, and in several cases aneurismal expansions, one as large as an orange which proved fatal." It is highly probable that the influence of syphilis in the production of aneurism has been greatly over estimated by Aitken and others. In no class of persons is syphilis so common as in prostitutes, and yet, as Myers observes, aneurism is almost unknown among them. Moreover, syphilis is about equally prevalent in the army and navy, though there is a marked difference in the prevalence of aneurism. Though, therefore, it may be granted that syphilis, like any other constitutional poison acting upon, and leading to degeneration of the blood and certain structures, may exercise its share in the causation of aneurism, there is no good ground for believing that it is more effective or potent in the army than in the navy.

Mr. Myers considers that the "mechanical obstruction to the circulation is the chief cause of the excess of aneurism in the army." He expressly states that this obstruction is directly produced by the tunic which encases the soldiers' chest and neck so tightly as to interfere materially with respiration and circulation. By some experiments made with the spirometer, he found that recruits "standing at 'attention' with their tunics buttoned up, without their arms and accoutrements, suffer a loss of about twenty cubic inches on forcible expiration." The diminution of air expired may be regarded as a measure of the interference with the inspiratory act. The beginning of the evil is the impossibility of expanding the thorax sufficiently for the admission of the requisite quantity of atmospheric air. Not all the power of the ordinary and extraordinary muscles of inspiration can overcome the resistance of the regulation tunic, tightly fastened and fitted to the body by the ingenuity of the tailor, during tranquil respiration and circulation, without special reference to anything except extreme neatness. These muscles have been most beautifully contrived by the Creator to expand the chest, rhythmically, in every direction, to the necessary extent under ordinary and extraordinary circumstances; but they were never designed or intended to oppose successfully the resistance presented by a well-fitted and neatly-made regulation tunic.

If a sufficient quantity of oxygenated air does not penetrate the pulmonary cells, at each inspiration, a serious impediment is at once interposed to the free circulation of the blood through the lungs. For a diminution in the respiratory changes implies imperfect arterialization of blood in the lungs; and deficient arterialization signifies proportionate interruption to the transit of the circulatory fluid from the right to the left side of the heart. In extreme cases, in the asphyxia consequent on drowning, or immersion in carbonic acid, we see these effects produced to the fullest extent possible; so that the united forces of the right and left ventricles, aided by all the auxiliary powers of circulation, are totally unable to overcome the resistance opposed to the onward flow of the blood by the cessation of the pulmonary respiration.

The *first* effect of a too tightly fitting tunic is to interfere with the due aëration or oxidation of the blood. The *second* effect is to derange the normal harmony and equilibrium subsisting between the respiratory and circulatory systems. The *third* result is to disturb the balance of the circulation itself. There is, in all human probability, no part of the circulation which is not more or less affected by this state of things. So long as degeneration, or disease has not done its work in any of the vessels, these are capable of meeting and overcoming great emergencies. Nature constructed the arteries, like the lungs and heart, to perform, with a certain amount of incapacity, extraordinary as well as ordinary functions. How admirably

she has succeeded in her design is illustrated by the health enjoyed by men who undertake great exertion, or by the incapacity which most men can, by running, double the work thrown upon the circulatory organs. In no case do we see the law more beautifully demonstrated than in the sailor on active duty. When, however, any impairment, in structure or elasticity happens, then the evil effects of overtaxing the circulation become patent.

It is, we think, in every way probable, that an overwhelming majority of thoracic aneurisms are caused by pre-existing atheromatous, or other degeneration of portions of the inner coat and elastic structure of the vessel. How the abnormal life of the soldier is calculated to favour such a condition of the arteries has been proved by the *post mortem* revelations of Aitken and other authorities. With an atheromatous aorta, there is no difficulty in understanding the injurious effect, which must take place, from frequently repeated and continued interference with the process of respiration, on every occasion, the soldier puts on his tunic for passive or active duty. In addition to a deficient oxygenization and arterialization of the blood in barracks, must be reckoned the limiting action of the tunic by means of which the respiration is impeded, and an obstacle to circulation established in such vitally important organs as the lungs.

Herein lies the great distinction between the soldier and sailor, in reference to the subject of aneurism of the thoracic aorta. The soldier, both on and off duty, is placed under circumstances which interfere with respiration. The sailor, perhaps, may be subject to close and badly ventilated sleeping accommodation, but during the day, and hours of duty, he breathes the purest air of heaven, and is never exposed to restriction in the action of the muscles of respiration. The artificial, and, doubtless, unintentional interference with the respiration and circulation of the soldier is unknown to the sailor. In addition the sailor enjoys an amount of fresh and unadulterated air for purposes of respiration, to which the soldier is at all times a foreigner, excepting when he is voyaging between one colony and another: he is consequently less liable to degeneration of the inner arterial tunics, and to aneurismal disease. But, when he does contract a degenerating condition of the inner coats of the aorta, the very nature of his occupation must lead to a rapid development of aneurismal dilatation and to early incompetency for duty.

Now, what is the true pathological significance of atheromatous or fatty degeneration of the inner coats of the thoracic aorta in the soldier encased in a tunic which embarrasses healthy respiration? In other words; given an aorta, portions of which have lost their elasticity and contractility from fatty or atheromatous disease in the inner coat encroaching upon the circular or elastic coat, and a more or less perpetuated disturbance in the balance of the circulation, such as to call for more than the ordinary exertion of force by that vessel, what will be the probable order of events? The answer is not difficult. In a healthy state, the elastic power of the aorta, after the completion of each systole, is competent to restore the natural calibre of the vessel before the semi-lunar valves are re-opened by the next systolic contraction of the ventricle. To do this effectually, the elastic tissue must be in a state of absolute integrity. When, however, portions are atheromatous or fatty, these are deprived of their elasticity. During the recoil, subsequent to the systole, these diseased parts fail to re-assume their original position. As time rolls on, dilatation and attenuation preponderate over the elastic power of the vessel. *Here*, is a condition favouring the formation of an aneurism. If a man, under such circumstances, be moving in the higher circles of society, with no imperative demands upon him, for the exercise of violent muscular exertion, nothing more serious than moderate dilatation of the aorta may ever result.

Dr. Harvey's anatomical experiments show an extraordinary power such as bringing into play his extraordinary muscles of respiration, without the ordinary organs being full of air, in man, as is the case with the ordinary animals. If the chest, therefore, be more extremely attenuated, the lungs will expand in an unusual degree, as has been established.

Dr. Harvey's views as already before stated, point out a tendency with the Chinese to emphysema. His chest is free and unshackled. Not only is the thoracic cavity, but he can, even when undergoing the most violent exercise, bring his extraordinary muscles of respiration into play, and thus maintain the equilibrium between the respiratory exhalation, and by so doing, altogether prevent any accumulation of mucus in the bronchial tubes, as the lungs and heart are healthy and competent. Moreover, the sailor enjoys a great abundance of pure air. Partly on this account, and partly on account of the unobstructed condition of his thoracic cavity, and partly on account of his less impurity, his nutrition is better performed, and his arteries are consequently less liable to forming a morbid structure, which, in our opinion, under the commonment of all the narcotics, and nearly all others not of the vegetable class.

Dr. Harvey's manner in which the tunic is fitted round the neck is also an interesting one. The collar is fitted snugly. It must exercise a compressing influence on all the structures in front of the external jugular veins, especially the carotid. As the collar is generally fitted when the subject is at rest, when he is under active exercise, when he is very excited, partly on account of the capillary is distended with pressure, it must then be a great deal too tight. The compressing influence of the collar, with the return of venous blood from the neck to the brain. It must also partially contract the calibre of the carotid arteries, by causing congestion of the brain, and by impeding arterial supply, it must produce the faintness in the ranks of our army, &c.

It will have been gathered from the foregoing observations that all the great evils which result from the employment of a too tight fitting collar, are avoided, by the simple alternative of having remained loose, so as to allow the freest play to all the muscles of respiration, and to admit a free supply of blood to, and return of blood from the face, neck, and brain. With reference to the Khyber's army, we find, that that which interferes least with the normal movement of the chest, must also be most useful and least obnoxious to the formation of an unusual disease of the thoracic cavity.

MEDICAL MISSIONARIES IN INDIA.

(Continued from page 82.)

THE Missionaries possess the Franks, but not the Ferns physician, and even appear not to take part of the world, only, but, where, the practice of the Gospel, and the practice of European medicine, are either in barbarous and exclusive lands. In no country has this truth been more strikingly illustrated than in China, from the year 1807, when the Protestant Christian physicians first broke ground there, under the auspices of Dr. Morrison, an agent of the London Missionary Society, to the present day, when Dr. Deegan, the zealous agent of the same society, commencing with the full approval of the authorities, who consider the good which he does to the body to outweigh the evil of his preaching.

It is a sad and a large union, and Dr. Harvey has in the last number of the journal, well pointed out the political necessity which existed here at Saigon when he came into the world as a teacher of hygiene, should at the same time assume the character of a Christian, and the same necessity exists still (though not so much) at Peking, where the missionary agents

forth to preach his master's doctrine to nations steeped in ignorance and cruelty. It was abundantly recognised by Dr. Morrison when he set himself, with the assistance of Dr. Livingston, a surgeon in the service of the old East India Company, to endeavor to evangelize the Chinese people, through the medium of the healing art. With the same object Dr. Collidge established his infirmary at Moupin in 1827, and treated, in 10 years, 4,000 patients. Stimulated by such successful examples, America, in 1835, dispatched the Rev. Dr. Peter Parker to labor in the same field, and through his instrumentality, the "Medical Missionary Society" in China was established. Ever foremost in good works, the new world has endeavored, at various times, through the agency of several societies, the American Presbyterian Board, the Baptist Board of Foreign Missions, the Southern Baptist Convention, the Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Society, and the Board of Foreign Missions of the Protestant Episcopal Church, launched forth her medical missionaries into the barbarous land. The bread, thus cast upon the waters, will surely be found after many days.

While some medical missionaries were thus being sent to China at the expense of Societies and Boards, others went to their own. In 1840, Escholtz and Benjamin Hobson, M. D., Agents of the American Foreign Missionary Society, appear upon the scene. Then we have Drs. Cunningham, McGowan, Devan, Bail, Happer, Burn, and Heppner, all at work in the one favored land. Successes were the results of these several labors in their Lord's vineyard, that, in 1846, Dr. John Wilson, Inspector of Naval Hospitals in China, could not refrain from recording his high sense of the value of the medical mission work which was slowly but surely producing its intended effects upon the Chinese minds, and he paid a high compliment to the professional, as well as to the missionary zeal of the laborers; thus bearing testimony to what may ever be considered of the medical missionary wherever he may be, namely, the high view which he takes of his profession, studying it as a science as well as a mere art, taking a pride in the education of his Hospital dispensary, the welfare of his subordinates, and in every way, bringing credit upon the noble calling which he has espoused. And now Scotland begins to show her interest in what Professor Simpson characterized as the "mighty and magnificent mission," an interest which he never dar'ed, may which his father became intensified with time, and which is now becoming extended to other countries.

This first notable expression of this interest was contained in an oration delivered at a meeting of the College of Physicians of London in December, 1841, on some of the results of the successful practice of physic, by Sir Henry Halliday, then president of the college. Addressing out to his audience, that he did not wish by these to mean any pecuniary results, but the moral influence, which the cure of the ills of the body has upon the minds of patients, the deference to the physicians judgment on other subjects—and that gratitude and attachment which is the sweetest reward of our anxious and laborious life." He dwelt upon the necessity of the missionary, after having gone through his theological course, attending to anatomy, and chemistry, and other courses of medical lectures; and for a certain time frequenting some one of the great hospitals, so as to qualify himself to practice physic and surgery as it, (note that) he went to practice our profession as his means of living. This is not an important advice, as there is too great a tendency to believe that a smattering of medical knowledge, added to the religious, is sufficient for the missionary. After Sir H. Halliday's lecture, medical missions received an impetus at home. Articles on the subject were published in the Scottish Christian Herald. Dr. Parker left Canton and went to London, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Liverpool, and other large cities. His reception was most cordial. The subject was warmly taken up. The

Royal College of Surgeons of England resolved to educate, at their own charge, such Chinese youths as might be sent home for medical education. Three scholarships were founded in Kings College, London, for the education of medical missionaries. Edinburgh formed a committee of her sons "to co-operate with the Medical Missionary Society in China." And public meetings were held in New York, Washington, Philadelphia, and Boston. These were the halcyon days of medical missions in India. But soon, alas! differences of opinion arose between the American and British medical missionaries, the end of which was that no help was forthcoming to the latter from the society in China. Then Dr. Parker appears to have—not altogether, perhaps, left his first love, but to have admitted the world to a share in his affections. He became first *Chargé d'Affaires*, and then Chief Commissioner for the United States Government with China! The conjunction was peculiar, and we venture to say to be regretted.

And now comes an important epoch in the history of medical missions. The Edinburgh Committee, which had been hitherto intimately and exclusively associated in the Medical Missionary Society in China, now enlarged its sphere of operations, and became the "Edinburgh Association for sending medical aid to foreign countries." The society in China, and "Syrian Medical Aid Association" of London (whose cause had been advocated by Sir Culling Eardley), were to be the first to receive pecuniary help; but the great objects of the association were, "to circulate information on the subject of medical missions; to aid other institutions engaged in the same work; and to render assistance, at missionary stations, to as many professional agents as the funds placed at its disposal will admit of;" and these, we believe, are its objects still. Dr. Abercrombie—honored name amongst those which are renowned for benevolence and religious deeds, was the first president, and promoted, we may be sure—to the extent of his ability—the noble work of the association.

The first operations of the society in India occurred in 1853, when Dr. John Owen Evans, a graduate of the University of London, in connection with the missionaries of the London Missionary Society, set foot in Mirzapore, and there commenced within our own recollection, his glorious mission. The Hon'ble Mr. Thomason was, happily, Lieutenant-Governor at the time, and he—if we remember right—withdraw the Government sub-assistant surgeon from the Government dispensary, in which Dr. Evans was allowed to practise. The field was a wide one. There, in one of the greatest commercial towns in India, had the enthusiastic medical missionary full opportunity, unfettered by any restrictions, for finding his way to the hearts of the large Hindoo community who came to him gladly. As before urged, an inferiorly educated physician will not answer. But, alas! where are men like Dr. Evans to be found when sought for? He, poor man, soon lost his health, and was compelled to return home to recruit it. The work of medical missions in India then received a check which still exists. Medical missionaries should be men of a high stamp in every way; and such men are not easily found. Work, however, is being done in India on a limited scale, to which we shall advert hereafter.

THE NEW NOMENCLATURE OF DISEASES.

In our number of the 1st March, we briefly referred to the introduction of this new system. In the British army, the classification has been in use since the 1st January, and it is now adopted in all returns by the military medical officers of the Indian. It has not yet been introduced for the civil branches of the service.

The great art and science of this nomenclature is its simplicity and uniformity. The index of the book is a dictionary, in which every disease is to be found, and referred to its proper position;

from its copiousness, including all varieties of disease and injury each complaint, &c., is appropriately distinguished; one name as recorded must signify that disease, and can be mistaken for no other.

The possibility of error is thus reduced to a minimum, and thus the great object of classification; it is the introduction, we would fain hope, to the world, of a registration of truthful diseases, which eventually must throw light on their causes, and tend greatly to discover how they are to be prevented. By the amplitude of the vocabulary, "other diseases," that name of former medical returns, will be avoided, and mistakes in recording diseases can hardly occur, except in such minds who would not return a case of ague under intermittent fever.

The looseness of the former nomenclature had often been regretted, and led to grave mistakes and inconvenience in the mercantile and political world. Take the instance of Spain last year, who, because the Registrar-General's return reported cases of "cholera" in London, imposed ten days quarantine on every vessel arriving from the Thames at a Spanish port; this was obliged to be submitted to until it was pointed out that the word merely intended English or bilious cholera, choleraic diarrhoea, or cholera infantum, &c., but not the epidemic form of the disease.

A later example, however, and one which concerns us more nearly occurred in April last, when the passengers by the P. and O. Steamer *Bihar* found themselves liable to ten days' detention at Suez, because the Health Officer of Bombay had reported "cholera" was present in that town. This was not the first difficulty either that had occurred in the Red Sea ports from the wording of the health certificate. The matter was settled at Suez by the authorities deciding, that as the word "cholera" in the certificate meant merely its "sporadic" form, quarantine need not be enforced, as the presence of that disease did not affect the public health.

In all these cases the difficulty has arisen from the incompleteness or insufficiency of the former classification of disease.

Now, when the Indian health returns are organised on the new nomenclature, such misapprehensions can rarely arise. Two names for cholera are given: 1st, simple; 2nd, malignant; the first is never absent, more or less, from the seaport towns of India, and, as affecting the public health, is known to be comparatively harmless; the presence of the second would always indicate that quarantine must be enforced.

The system although, in reality, so simple, has to be studied; there are several diseases, for instance, which at first sight would appear to be omitted from their not appearing in the index. Cephalalgia, accumulation of wax, epulis, &c.; but they are all to be found under the headings, neuralgia, diseases of the ear, gums, &c., and several more could be named of the same character; then, again, ebrietas is really omitted, and would have to be recorded under febricula perhaps, as it could not be noted under alcoholic poison or delirium tremens; vesicula pedis also does not find a place, and yet has frequently to be noted in military returns; many other cases will, doubtless, occur in practice, but all of slight a nature as hardly to deserve notice, except that often, practically, it is these little things that cause the most trouble.

TEMPERATURE OF THE BODY IN HEALTH AND DISEASE.

WE would draw the attention of the Profession to the admirable lecture of Dr. B. W. Richardson, on the "Increment of Animal Heat," in the *Medical Times* of 8th May.

Observations on the heat of the body in health have never yet been made in India; to any officer who has leisure and opportunity, every barrack room thus offers a wide field for the practical study of the question of how much the normal heat of man (or animals) is in-

of the thermometers of this country. Such experiments should be made at different times of the day on a great number of men.

On this point, Dr. W. Palmer of the General Hospital writes:—"My observations on the metric observations of patients who had been severely wounded, continued during the whole of their convalescence, led me to find that there was no increase of the temperature of the body, or a rise corresponding to increased temperature of the air, except in a few remarkable cases, but such observations as a rule are not to be compared with those which might be made in a barracks of healthy troops."

In the small depressing diseases the temperature of the body is usually still normal, until evening it is commonly sub, but rises especially because of the observations are not made as a rule, but only at night until evening and then for a full next morning. In these same or similar changes take place in healthy bodies, it will give rise to periodic changes and diseases which is yet missing."

The following few sentences from Dr. Richardson's lecture will show the position in such investigations. He did take attention should be paid to the method of examining the observations:—

"When I only want to learn the bare fact that in such and such a locality there will be usually such and such a temperature, but we want to be profoundly acquainted with the meaning of the whole subject. We want to know whether the rise or the fall of temperature, from the natural standard, is a cause or the other attendant phenomena, a consequence, or a sequense. We want to learn of all things, what variations from the natural thermal standard take place and below it, the animal body sustains; what symptoms will run with each variation; what extremes of temperature will impede or stop the animal mechanism."

"It is a common idea that all warm-blooded animals possess and maintain a given standard of animal heat under different conditions. This is an error which repeated experiments soon puts right. Thus I find in pigeons kept with every care, well fed, well protected, there are variations of temperature ranging from 106° to 109°. This range of full three degrees extends to all other animals of warm blood which I have studied, and we may, I think, note as a fact that in animal bodies there is an allowance made for fluctuations of temperature, an allowance for expansion and contraction. If we like to express the matter in degrees of Fahrenheit's scale."

"In considering the temperature of the animal body in different individuals of the same species, age must be carefully taken into account. I believe it will be found, in the course of further experimental inquiry, that each period of life is marked by a distinct thermal range, and that what would be a natural thermal reading at one period of life would be unnatural at another."

"In the human subject a sufficient number of observations have not been conducted to enable one to speak with precision on the ranges of temperature according to age; but the general fact that there is a variation, and that there is persistent decrease in the advanced period of life, is proved."

"The condition of the body in respect to fatness or leanness is another modifying influence to be remembered in estimating animal temperature. As a rule, a body in good condition has a higher standard of temperature than a body which is badly nourished, or than a body which is unduly loaded with fat; and one very important observation deserves to be made in relation to the presence of fat in young and active bodies. The observation is this:—that whenever in such subject there is, within the organism, a cause at work leading to an undue accumulation of heat, there is, owing to the imperfect conductive power of the subcutaneous layer of fat, a morbid increment of heat."

Let me urge the importance of watching the influence of season

in the thermal readings of the animal body. In a cold state of season there will be always a slight increase of mean temperature of the body during the heat of the summer, and a decrease of mean temperature during the cold of winter. It is true that nature does not so equalize, that the fire action of the skin and lungs at the hot, and the slow action of the same organs in the cold months, specially tends to equalization. But a difference ranging from 1° to 2° F. must still be allowed, and it must be borne in mind that an extreme increase of animal temperature in the cold months is a much more serious matter than the same increase in hot months of the year. Further, there are some months which are specially critical in these respects; there are months when animal waste is at its least; there are months when animal waste is at its maximum."

THE ROYAL SANITARY COMMISSION

A *Review Gazette* contains an order by Her Majesty appointing the Commission appointed last November for improving and the operation of the sanitary laws, and appointing a new one with fresh powers.

The new Commissioners are directed to inquire into the operation of the sanitary laws, so far as they apply to sewerage, drainage, water-supply, removal of refuse, control of buildings, prevention of overcrowding, and other means of promoting the public health, and further to report upon the operation of the laws to prevent the introduction and spreading of all infectious diseases in every kindred subject.

The Commission will probably specially consider its duty to inquire into the propriety of extended legislation to prevent the spreading of choleraic disease.—*British Medical Journal*.

INDIGENOUS FOODS

Dr. Mervin, the Superintendent of the Raj Dispensary, in Rajpootana, notices the following ailments in use among the inhabitants of that country during the late season of scarcity (1888):—

1. A cheap, coarse and expensive. I found the inhabitants of Rajpootana use the following materials, ground up and mixed with various proportions of flour.—The roots of a peculiar coarse grass called *Nyct. Mith*, found growing near tanks, fields, and woods. Of this there are two varieties, one sweet and soft, consumed by the people of the other hard and pungent, and given to cattle.

2. The long roots of a rush, or cyperus, also found in the beds of tanks. This contains a large mass of pulpy substance, looking like coarse arrowroot.

3. The kernels of the wild plum, where it grows, as for instance, in Sikkimwatty.

4. The inner bark of the tamarind and neem trees. The two latter substances are not used except as a last resort.

5. When produced, the kurree or muscad cake, formed of the seeds after removal of the oil.

Thus this country supplies a larger amount of aliment than could have been supposed."

THE JAILS, AND JAIL SYSTEM OF INDIA.

(Continued from Vol. IV., page 103.)

7. **Fines.**—The gross annual cost of prisons and prison establishments, exclusive of building charges incurred in the Public Works Department, amounted in 1867 to Rs. 47,08,000."

The following table shows the expenditure:—A in the several Administrations:—

| YEAR 1867. | Total | Net receipts | Total net | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|
| | annual ex-
penditure. | from
prison wa-
nufacture. | cost to Go-
vernment | per
prisoner. |
| | Rupees. | Rupees. | Rs. | A. P. |
| Bengal (1867-68) ... | 13,14,243 | 4,41,238 | 53 | 4 8 |
| Madras (1867-68) ... | 5,90,079 | 2,17,930 | 63 | 14 9 |
| N. W. Provinces ... | 8,82,362 | 7,618 | 89 | 0 0 |
| Punjab ... | 7,35,770 | 4,63,672 | 45 | 12 0 |
| Oude ... | 5,44,395 | 71,815 | 47 | 5 2 |
| Central Provinces ... | 2,47,821 | 18,233 | 35 | 4 0 |
| British Burmah (1867-68) ... | 2,44,572 | 53,650 | 51 | 12 0 |
| Hyderabad ... | 2,54,571 | 53,916 | 56 | 15 9 |
| Mysore ... | 75,806 | 2,811 | 83 | 0 8 |
| | 2,37,918 | 16,325 | 78 | 12 4 |

"The next table shows the average charge per head in each province in 1867, under the chief item of jail expenditure.

| YEAR 1867. | Establish-
ments. | Diet. | Clothing. | Medicine and
Hospital
charges. | | Contin-
gencies. |
|----------------------|----------------------|---------|-----------|--------------------------------------|-----------|---------------------|
| | | | | Rs. A. P. | Rs. A. P. | |
| Bengal ... | 22 0 0 | 32 6 8 | 4 11 7 | 0 12 8 | 3 2 8 | |
| Bombay ... | 43 0 1 | 41 14 1 | 5 12 8 | 2 4 9 | 7 1 3 | |
| Madras (1866-67) ... | 27 4 0 | 50 9 9 | 4 3 2 | 0 6 11 | 6 12 6 | |
| N. W. Provinces ... | 19 0 6 | 17 5 5 | 2 14 2 | 0 8 2 | 3 14 7 | |
| Punjab ... | 21 3 10 | 22 8 9 | 3 13 6 | 1 4 1 | 2 3 7 | |
| Oude ... | 19 7 2 | 13 7 0 | 1 14 6 | 0 19 0 | 2 10 0 | |
| Central Provinces | 26 11 8 | 23 14 1 | 5 8 2 | 3 15 0 | 3 5 4 | |
| British Burmah ... | 34 15 0 | 30 4 2 | 2 12 7 | 0 1 5 | 3 9 11 | |
| Mysore ... | 29 11 7 | 42 1 5 | 4 10 1 | 0 15 4 | 7 2 10 | |

"This statement shows very large and curious discrepancies. It is not clear why the cost per prisoner, on account of establishment, should in Bombay be nearly double that of almost every province in India. Why a prisoner can be fed in Oude for Rs. 13-7, whereas, in some other provinces, the same charge amounts to Rs. 30-4, 32-6, 41-14, and 50-9 for the year? Why the charge for clothing in the Central Provinces should so far exceed that in Oude, the Punjab, or the N. W. Provinces? Why in the Central Provinces again, the charge for medicines and hospital charges should be more than seven times that of the North-West? or why in Bombay and Mysore, contingencies so far exceed the same item elsewhere?"

"If the remunerative theory be discarded upon the more important ground of real efficiency in prison discipline, it is obvious that to counteract the growing and rapid tendency of all charges to increase, the Government must look to the minute and careful supervision which may be expected from the recently sanctioned arrangements for placing the district jails in all provinces under special officers."

"It will be for future reports to show how far this last measure effected the two great objects for which it was sanctioned: firstly, the improvement in prison discipline as tested by a decrease in committals, not for any one year, but for a series; and secondly, an immediate reduction in those charges which a comparison with other similar provinces shows to be excessive."

8. *Reformatories for juvenile offenders.*—In 1862, the Government of Bombay submitted a plan to the Government of India for the establishment of these institutions; referred back to Bombay, an amended bill was re-submitted the following year. On the first occasion it was disallowed, "its provisions being inconsistent with

the Penal Code," and on the second, it was disallowed by Sir Wm. Denison "on the general ground that reformatory institutions in India stand altogether on a different basis from that of England," and from his experience in Madras he doubted their necessity.

"India," says the note, "is not yet sufficiently civilized, even where it has come most under European influence, to breed up the large vagrant population, the offspring and heirs of poverty and crime, that under some such name as street Arabs infest most of the large cities of Europe."

In Ireland in 1866, out of a population of six millions, there were 1,060 juveniles (under 16 years of age) committed to prison, while in the same year, in the whole of British India, with a population of over 150 millions, but 2,000 committals of the same age took place.

The Government of Bombay re-opened the question again in 1865, and similar applications have from time to time been submitted from Oude, the Punjab, Mysore, the North-West, and Central Provinces; but "in each case the Government of India has replied that reformatory institutions on the English model are not adapted to this country: all that is necessary being the strict separation of regularly convicted juveniles from adults."

"The question was urged by Miss Carpenter in 1866, and a circular, explaining the views of the Government of India, was issued in 1867. The Government of Madras, in January 1868, protested against the views," but their application was negatived.

The arguments on which the Government of India has based so many negative replies to proposals coming from all the different administrations, are given at full length in the note, and need not be reproduced here, the main heads having been noticed.

The Committee of 1864 entertained "great hopes that the provisions of the Whipping Act will prove of eminent service in thinning the juvenile population of our jails," and they were unanimous in recommending "that in every jail means should be provided for separating juvenile offenders from adults, and that it is moreover highly desirable, wherever such an arrangement is practicable, that separate sleeping accommodation should be provided for every juvenile prison inmate."

Therefore, "it should not be supposed, because the Government of India has withheld its sanction to the establishment of reformatory institutions on the English model, that no practical steps have been taken towards the reformation and instruction of juveniles regularly sentenced to imprisonment;" and accordingly, we find that under all the administrations the prison regulations for juveniles conform to the above practical rule for guidance; and as jails are multiplied, and some accommodation given for separation and instruction, the above principles will be carried out. On the whole, then (says the note), "it would seem that in all the provinces such measures as are suited to the circumstances of the country for the treatment of juvenile offenders have been sanctioned, and in most provinces are in operation."

(To be continued.)

Local Correspondence.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE."

SIR.—Although your journal is medical, it is widely circulated amongst men who, having received a scientific education, would be able to contribute much valuable information on Indian questions of scientific interest, which are at present by no means well understood, and which are only likely to be elucidated by numerous simultaneous observations in different parts of the country. Isolated observations of great value are often made, and are frequently forgotten or, at least, either of knowledge of what others have done, or of some stimulus to create an interest in the enquiry, and make the observation appear worthy of record.

he shall be obliged to bestow all his time and attention to the practice of the Hospital, for at least three months, merely as a pupil under the immediate eye and direction of the Head Surgeon.

2ndly.—That any pupil who has recommended himself properly to the Head Surgeon by his attention to the hospital practice for three months shall be considered as sufficiently qualified for the duty of hospital mate.

3rdly. That every hospital mate who shall have discharged his duty in that capacity for eighteen months, shall be considered as eligible to succeed to any other medical charge, his rank may entitle him to hold, but that the order of his future progression shall be from the duty of an hospital mate to that of a regimental assistant, and from the duty of a regimental assistant, to that of a company battalion or civil station, and that no Assistant Surgeon shall be competent to an appointment to a subordinate civil station who has not served the period prescribed in a General Hospital, and become thereby entitled to succeed to a situation, which is generally considered of more ease and emolument than the duties of the Military Department."

A return from Chunar General Hospital (4th December) shows the following articles in use and store—

| | |
|-------------------|----------------|
| 100 Cotts. | 256 Sheets. |
| 39 Mattresses. | 400 Caps. |
| 130 Pillows. | 226 Gowns. |
| 230 Pillow cases. | 234 Shirts. |
| 196 Quilts. | 300 Trowsers. |
| | 159 Coverlets. |

1789.

(Pro, 13th January).—"The Secretary to Government writes to the Board acquainting them that Mr. Head Surgeon S. is permitted to resign the service and to proceed to Europe, and will be recommended to the Honorable Court to allow him to return to Bengal without prejudice to his rank on his application to them. "Upon the request made by Mr. S. that in the case of his being shipwrecked on this side of the Cape of Good Hope, he may not be considered as out of the service, you are desired to inform him that it cannot be acceded to as a stipulation, but that in the possible circumstance for which he writes to provide, he may be very certain that proper attention will be shown to the distress of the case."

(Pro, 20th January).—Government having asked the Board for a report on the Insane Hospital and whether any reduction could be effected, they reply that there are 5 classes as patients.

1. Subaltern officers in the service of the Company.—For these the Surgeon is allowed the pay and batta of their rank; *etc.*, for Lieut. 17s-8; Ensign 13s-8-4 a month.

2. Sergeants and Privates in the service, the surgeon draws their pay and batta, &c. (Sergeants 26-6-6; Privates 16-6-6.)

3. Persons not in the service of the rank of gentlemen, for each of whom the surgeons receives the pay and batta of a Lieutenant.

4. Poor Europeans not in the service, for each of whom the pay and batta of private soldier is allowed.

5. For Ladies, for each of whom a Lieutenant's pay and batta is sanctioned.

Besides these sums the Surgeon is allowed Rs. 4 a month for one cotlie to each patient. Contingent bills for beds, clothing, &c., all in addition to house rent and his pay.

The Board recommend as a reduction that the payment of Rs. 100 a month should only be given for patients of the 3rd class, that Rs. 10 a month should be allowed for coolies for 4 European patients, that the contingent bill should be discontinued, and the articles supplied by the Surgeon. To all of which the Government agree. At the time the report was written there were the following patients in the Asylum, and the list shows the monthly income of the institution.

| | Rs. | As. | P. |
|--|-----|-----|-----------|
| 1 Lieutenant, and 6 of class 3 | .. | .. | 1,253 0 0 |
| 1 Ensign | .. | .. | 131 8 4 |
| 2 Sergeants | .. | .. | 52 13 0 |
| 1 Matros of Artillery | .. | .. | 18 6 6 |
| 7 Privates and 5 of 4th class | .. | .. | 199 7 0 |
| 1 Lady 17s, and 1 ditto 14s | .. | .. | 323 0 0 |
| Allowance for servants | .. | .. | 141 0 0 |
| Add contingent bill on an average per mensem | .. | .. | 185 0 0 |

This exclusive of house rent and surgeon's salary 2,311 2 10
And, at their suggestion, people not in the service are not to be admitted without special application to, and permission from, the Governor-General.

(Pro, 20th Feb.)—Mr. Lynd, head surgeon to the General

Hospital of the presidency, applies for venetian blinds for the wards instead of the wooden shutters in use, which "being obliged to be kept shut in bad rainy weather greatly obstructs the free circulation of air." &c.

EXTRACTS.

WHOLESALE DRINKING WATER.—"Only let the drinking water wells be properly placed as regards distance from buildings and evident sources of pollution; let them be provided with ridge, platform, and drain to lead away waste water; let them be provided with a flooring of perforated stones or tiles, which will allow of the accumulated mud at the bottom being thoroughly removed; let each well be placed under a dome-shaped roof supported by pillars, exclusive from the well all pots, lotahs, and ropes; let the water be drawn by a windlass provided with a chain and metal bucket, or still better, let it be raised by a pump, and there will be no difficulty in providing for the troops at almost every station in the presidency, perfectly safe and good drinking water. If a pump is used, the well's mouth may be closed, and light altogether excluded; if the windlass is used, the mouth of the well should be shut as nearly as possible by the application of a dome-shaped iron or wooden cover, having an aperture in the centre just sufficient to allow of the passage of the bucket."—Dr. F. Macnamara's 5th Report on the Analysis of Potable Waters.

PODOPHYLLIN VERSUS CALOMEL IN A CASE OF JAUNDICE.—G. H., aged 32, labourer, admitted 16th October. Had acute rheumatism ten years ago; otherwise has always been in good health; three months ago he noticed his urine got gradually darker and his stools paler. After one or two days he suffered from very sharp pain in the right hypochondrium, and then became yellow. The jaundice, which is very marked, and attended with much itching, has existed ever since. On admission he had sickness and headache, and pain below the right ribs increased on pressure. Liver not much below ribs, its superior dullness limit is a little below horizontal nipple line. Pulse 56; temperature 99° 8, urine, spec. gr. 10th of dark color, gives a well marked play of colors with nitric acid. Six leeches to right hypochondrium. Magnes sulphat ʒj, Succ. Tarax. ʒj, Tartarised Aet. gr. ʒ i ter. di. in water. The leeches removed the pain and tenderness; he improved; appetite was good; he was up and about, but the jaundice remained, and was not altered by Ext. Colech. Aet grs. ʒ in pill for five nights, with nitro-muriatic acid during the day. October 26th and 28th, he had in place of Colchicum, Calomel grs. v; but on the 29th the stool was pale and clayey, the urine dark with bile, and the skin deeply tinged. I now ordered Podophyllin gr. i every night. On 31st the urine was much paler, contained very little bile, the stools were greenish yellow, much more colored than they had yet been, and the skin less yellow. November 4th, the improvement was maintained as regards the urine and stools; the yellow tinge of skin was still evident.

The jaundice was dependent in this instance I think, originally on catarrhal swelling of the lining membrane of the duodenum and lower part of the common chol. duct. Subsequently, perhaps, some inspissated bile may have contributed to keep up the obstruction. The superior effect of Podophyllin to other cathartics was strikingly evident. I am in the habit of regarding this drug as an expeller of retained bile more than as a promoter of biliary secretion, in which respect, I think, it is surpassed by Calomel and Colchicum. The former is most serviceable, I believe, in those rare conditions where bile seems to be no longer formed, where there is no jaundice, but the stools are of a dirty grey color, and where there is distressing vomiting. Colchicum is, I am sure, often a useful cathartic, mostly, perhaps, in persons who have a dingy muddy eye and complexion, without being distinctly yellow. Sulfate of Magnesia seems to act much the same as Podophyllin. It certainly cures sometimes a copious bile flow.—Dr. Halliday's *Lectures on Lectures*.

REMARKS ON TENIA, AND TREATMENT BY ICHTHUOL LIVER OIL OF MARE FERIN IN THE ARABIAN EXPEDITION.—An article on the above subject is published in the *British Medical Journal* for March, by Dr. Curran, Inspector-General of Hospitals and Principal Medical Officer of the Arabian Expedition.

the subject is of such interest to many in India that we shall be enabled to extract largely from the paper.—

All travellers in Abyssinia have represented the prevalence of the tapeworm amongst the inhabitants of that country, and it is not probable to expect that the troops of the British expeditionary force would likewise become afflicted with the parasite, especially if they should remain any length of time in Abyssinia. It therefore occurred to Professor Christies to suggest to the Principal-General of the Army Medical Department that a supply of the ethereal extract of male fern, as prepared in Scotland, should be sent with the army, and Dr. Currie received thirty small bottles of the extract which were distributed amongst the British and Indian troops.

The tapeworm is very prevalent amongst the natives of Abyssinia, beyond all doubt, a well-ascertained fact; and the natives themselves believe that the air is so impregnated with themselves that they are able to come out of the habit of eating raw beef and mutton, or it is called, and this opinion appears to receive confirmation from the circumstance of nearly all the European soldiers who indulge in the luxury of raw beef having either flat or tapeworm.

Abyssinians, it may be remarked, are as fond of raw beef as the Chinese are of opium; both are confirmed national habits, and universally practised. Their custom is to eat the beef soon after the animal is killed, and the fish still warm, or not more than 24 hours killed; while meat that has been longer killed is cut up in a peculiar fashion into long strips, like sausages, fried in the sun and cooked as required.

Keessa is the national remedy for tapeworm, and of this the Abyssinians said to take a dose once a month. The *Keessa* tree, *Juniperus andriaca*, etc. was not found until we arrived at the great Wandachi range of mountains, 10, or 11,000 feet higher in the Alpine province of Lasta, and about 80 miles north of Melekka. There it was observed in great abundance, occupying the valleys on both sides of that magnificent range of mountains.

The cases of tapeworm which occurred in the expeditionary force were not very numerous, and as the troops, European and Native, came direct from India, where tapeworm is common, it was impossible to determine whether the instances of it were of British or Abyssinian origin. A certain length of time, no doubt, is necessary for the development of the parasite, and it is probable, therefore, more cases may have occurred after the breaking up of the British force.

In the cases that occurred amongst the troops, the extract was rarely tried, and all the reports made to me were unanimous in favour of its efficacy as a vermicide. The desired effect was generally obtained with a dose of 21 grains, but in an instance, when this failed, the quantity was increased to one grain, and this over-dose, it is proper to mention, brought on severe dysenteric symptoms.

From the experience Dr. Currie gained in the campaign, he has been almost justified in stating that, "this drug in the form of ethereal extract, besides possessing the advantages of being easily taken, and in undiluted doses, is more certain in its therapeutic effect, than any other antihelminthic with which I am acquainted."

VACCINATION FROM THE HILLER.—Dr. Blain of Abyssinian returned having established a stable residence at his residence in Gondar, where they are received and vaccinated, and dismissed when the disease is over.

Dr. Hesse has constructed an operating table on which the cut is easily level, then the lower part of the abdomen round the cut is shaved, and from 10 to 50 punctures or scratches are made in rows, with a razor charged with cow-pox, which operation was directed in the cow, and had not passed the 24th human year. We saw three children which had been vaccinated ten days ago. They were in perfect health, calm, and playful. We saw six of the twelve children who had been vaccinated from this cow. One was presented six weeks after the 10th day, one of the ninth, and one of the tenth. For vaccination of the human cuticle, and institutions, the patient is directed from the cut offers many advantages.—*Medical Times & Gazette*, 22nd May, 1869, p. 295; *May*, and *Lancet*, June 1869.

PRESERVATION OF SPECIMENS.—A simple way of preserving animal specimens for microscopic observation is described by Dr. Alcock.

The method adopted is to prepare a saturated solution of a corrosive sublimate in alcohol, and when a dissection in water is

in progress, a small quantity, as half a tea-spoonful, of the solution is to be added from day to day if the slightest appearance of putrefaction is observed, but no more if it is to be used than is absolutely necessary, and by the time the dissection is completed, the specimen has become imperishable from the union of the corrosive sublimate with the tissues, and it may then be kept in pure water, either open, or mounted in the usual way.—*Quarterly Journal of Science*.

A NEW SYNTHETIC COLLOID.—Mr. Carlo Pavoni gives the following recipe:—Gelatin 100 parts, carbolic acid 10 parts, tannin 2 parts, benzine 5000 parts.

Agitated until a perfect solution is formed. It is of a brownish colour, gives a pellicle similar to ordinary gelatin, and instantly coagulates blood.—*Gazette de Turin*.

TREATMENT OF THE VARIETIES OF PREGNANCY.—Mr. John Harris recommends that in those cases hypodermic injection of morphia be tried. He gives the report of a very decided and serious case in which nearly every conceivable remedy had been employed in vain. He then tried the subcutaneous injection of acetate of morphia, in doses of one-sixth of a grain, three times a day, and this instantly arrested the vomiting.—*British Medical Journal*.

CINCHONA BARK.—At a recent meeting of the Pharmaceutical Society, Mr. J. E. Howard, at the request of the president, made a few observations on certain specimens of Cinchona bark cultivated in the East Indies, specimens of which were placed upon the table, and expressed a hope that at some future time he should have an opportunity of going more fully into the subject. He said that the number of varieties and species now cultivated in the East Indies was somewhat embarrassing, many of them being exact reproductions of the barks found in South America, whilst some varieties did not appear to correspond exactly with any that they were as yet acquainted with from South America. The subject, therefore, still required investigation among these new varieties. Mr. Broughton had quite recently found a variety which was quite new to them, possessing lanceolate leaves almost approaching in appearance to the *Cinchona lanceolata*, the bark differing entirely from the characteristic of the bark of the *lanceolata*, and pertaining more to that of the best species of Pitayore of Loja. Mr. Broughton had found this variety to be so extraordinarily rich in quinine that he had obtained from it the almost incredible quantity of 10 per cent. of sulphate of quinine. Though this fact had only been communicated to him (Mr. Howard) in a letter from Mr. Broughton, there could not be any objection to his mentioning it at that meeting. He had himself examined a small portion of the bark, and his examination fully confirmed Mr. Broughton's analysis. This circumstance, together with other collateral observations, showed the great importance of attending with even more accuracy to discrimination of the species and varieties which were already growing luxuriantly in the East Indies, some of which were so very much more productive than others. The rough-skinning plantlets, that he had mentioned, did not produce quantities of the amount of sulphate of quinine. In Mr. Broughton's last report he mentioned the circumstances somewhat fully, finding this species and his analysis of it, and he stated that he had found 85 per cent. of sulphate of quinine, but since then he had obtained what he (Mr. Howard) had just mentioned. One specimen on the table was this extraordinarily rich bark. There was another specimen, which was the characteristic bark renewed from the same tree, the *Cinchona succulentifolia*, or red-bark of commerce. The bark had been three times stripped from the tree and then renewed, and certainly it was greatly improved from the original bark. Some species of wood on the table were transverse sections of some of the trees of the *Cinchona succulentifolia*, which had been stripped of their bark and had replaced it. They would observe the lines representing the first, second, third, and fourth growth, the old part contracting with the appearance of the new.

It appeared that the effect of cultivation was to increase the value of the product. There was one thing to be noticed, and that was that perhaps the quantity of embonidine was rather larger in East Indian bark than in Peruvian bark. The greater warmth and dryness of the atmosphere in the East Indies probably tended to the production of this alkaloid.—*Pharmaceutical Journal*.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF SNAKE POISON AND ON THE INJECTION OF CERTAIN FLUIDS INTO THE VENOUS CIRCULATION AS ANTIDOTES, AND ON THE APPLICATION OF THE LIGATURE AND ACTUAL CAUTERY.

By J. FAYRER, M.D., C.S.I.

Present: DR. FAYRER; DR. EWART, Professor of Physiology; and MR. SCEVA.—June 12th, 1869.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

A fowl was bitten in the thigh by a spectacled cobra that had been kept in confinement for some weeks, had bitten before, and was, therefore, not fresh. The fowl was bitten at 3 p. m.

At 3-1-50.—Fowl staggering; fifteen drops of strong Condy's solution, furnished by Messrs. Scott, Thompson and Company, was injected with the hypodermic syringe into the fowl's thigh.

3-2-50.—Fell down paralysed.

3-4.—Lies almost dead; just breathing.

3-5.—Convulsed.

3-7.—Dead.

Death occurred in seven minutes; but the bird was evidently unconscious after the first 2½ minutes. I could not recognise any good effect from the injection.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

The left crural vein of a dog was exposed, ready to receive the injection. The dog was then bitten by a cobra in the right thigh at 3-20 p. m. The cobra was not fresh, it had been in captivity for some time, and had bitten before; but it was tolerably vigorous.

3-23.—Dog is excited and restless.

3-24.—Same condition; whining.

3-27.—Much excited; trying to break loose; is salivated; breathing hurried.

3-37.—Is beginning to show signs of the influence of the poison; is slightly convulsed; falls over.

3-37-30.—Injected 60 drops of liquor ammoniæ sp. gr. 959, into the crural vein; followed immediately by convulsive twitchings of mouth and limbs.

3-42.—Lying down, very low, almost motionless; irregular action of the heart; injected 40 drops more of the liquor ammoniæ.

3-43.—No change; heart's action very feeble.

3-44.—Lies perfectly still, as though dead; no respiration; heart beats very irregularly; 35 pulsations in 30 seconds.

3-45.—Dead.

Post-mortem examination of body at 4-20 p. m. Lungs, pallid; no congestion. Heart, right side much distended with black clots. Left ventricle contained a little dark fluid blood. The viscera generally were pallid; but the liver was somewhat congested. Brain,—cerebral substance free from congestion; vessels on surface slightly distended with blood. The blood generally coagulated firmly.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.

The external jugular vein of a dog was exposed at 3-31 p. m.; 40 drops of the liquor potas; permanganat; (Condy's) was injected into the vein at 3-35.

No effect produced at the time; the dog did not appear to take any notice of the injection.

3-40.—Dog apparently not affected.

3-45.—Seems rather depressed, but this is not marked; it may be fear.

3-48.—Bitten by a large cobra (not fresh, for it has been some

time in captivity, and has bitten before) in the thigh. The fang punctures were at once washed with the Condy's solution, which was well rubbed in.

3-49.—Bitten leg partially paralysed.

3-50.—Lying down; when raised can stand, but quickly lies down again; is quite intelligent.

3-51.—Droops his head.

3-52.—60 more drops of the fluid injected into the vein.

3-54.—5ii injected into the bowel; is able to sit or stand, but is very weak. The injection of the Condy was not followed by convulsions as in the case of the liquor ammoniæ.

3-58.—Lies down; head falls over; breathing hurried; rises and staggers a little, and sits down again.

4 p. m.—Lies sluggish and dejected; can walk when raised, but staggers and soon sits down again.

4-5.—Can still stand and walk with staggering gait.

4-7.—Lying down, but gets up and walks a few steps; head drooping, and look dejected; twitching of muscles generally.

4-8.—When put on his legs can still stand; breathing hurried; coat staring.

4-12.—40 more drops injected into jugular vein.

Slight twitching of muscles generally; lies down on his side, cannot rise; limbs paralysed; pupils dilated; slight convulsions of extremities, and muscular system generally; breathing catching and rather slow.

4-22.—Motionless; heart still beats 50 in the minute; no respiration.

4-24.—Heart still felt.

4-25.—Dead.

Bitten at 3-48.—Dead at 4-25; in 37 minutes.

Death occurred in about the usual time, and with the usual symptoms in which it occurs, when a dog is bitten by a cobra. I do not believe the effects of the poison were in any way influenced by the permanganate.

Post-mortem at 4-40 p. m. Lungs much collapsed and very pallid. Both sides of heart full of fluid blood; great vessels distended. The blood coagulated firmly when let out of the heart and vessels. Abdominal viscera not so pallid as in the other dog. Brain vessels on surface, full of blood; cerebral substance pale, scarcely any puncta.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.

A fowl bitten by a cobra (not fresh) in the thigh, at 4-45 p. m.; 20 drops of liquor ammonia having previously, at 4-43, been hypodermically injected into the thigh, no apparent effect produced by the ammonia thus injected. Bitten by the cobra at 4-45 p. m.; in 30 seconds it was in violent convulsions.

4-46.—20 more drops injected.

Dead before it could be placed on the ground.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

The following experiments were tried with the object of again testing the effect of the cobra poison on itself, or on another cobra.

A cobra was bitten sufficiently near the tail to avoid the chance of injuring any of the viscera, by another full-grown, fresh, and vigorous cobra. The snake bit deeply, plunging its fangs twice or thrice into the flesh of the other cobra, which was then put aside in a separate cage, and watched.

| | | | | |
|-------|---------|-----|-----|------------|
| 13th, | 6 a. m. | ... | ... | no change. |
| " | 7 p. m. | ... | ... | do. |
| 14th, | 6 a. m. | ... | ... | do. |
| " | 6 p. m. | ... | ... | do. |
| 15th, | 6 a. m. | ... | ... | do. |

The snake evidently has not suffered.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

A vigorous and fresh full-grown cobra, with one ocellus in the hood (caudal) of the natives, was made to bite himself

at various times near the tail, at 4.18 p.m. He bit himself freely as he would have bitten another snake, brought it out, and smeared the surface with poison; put into a cage with water.

Was not the least affected on the 15th, three days after bite.

These two experiments, which were very carefully performed, seem to prove that the cobra cannot poison itself or its own kind.

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By Drs. FAYRE, FAWCETT, WALLER and Mr. SCIVALL.—June 19th, 1869.

EXPERIMENT No. 7.

3-1.—A grown cat was bitten at 2.43 p.m. in the right thigh, by a large daboia. The snake had been long in captivity, and was, therefore, most probably not vigorous, though active & vicious.

3-2.— Twitching of the muscles; restless.

3-12.—The cat appears to be unaffected.

3-15.—The daboia again made to close his jaws on the cat's leg, though evidently unwilling to bite.

3-14.—The cat seems sluggish, and is evidently now feeling the poison.

3-17.—Bitten by a cobra on the thigh.

3-16.—The cat is unsteady in its gait; breathes hard; looks distressed.

3-17.—Cat is restless; tries to rise, and staggers.

3-19.—Tries to stand, but falls over.

3-18.—Respiration very hurried; cannot stand; twitching of the muscles.

3-21.—Lies quite paralysed; pupils dilated; breathing hard.

3-27.—Convulsed.

3-30.—Dead.

The cat was bitten by the daboia at 2.43 p.m., and again at 3-15. The snake was old and feeble; it has been in captivity for more than six months, during which time it has touched neither food nor water, and yet it was active and vicious, hissing fiercely at any one who came near it; that it was capable of receiving poison was evident in later experiments.

The cobra bit at 2-15; and death occurred at 4.30; that is, in one hour and forty-seven minutes. The cobra was also not fresh, and its poison was weak, perhaps scanty. There was nothing whatever in this experiment to make us think that the cobra's poison proved antidotal to that of the daboia; on the contrary, it rather expedited death.

EXPERIMENT No. 8.

A fowl was bitten in the thigh by the same daboia at 3-10. The snake would not bite until his jaws were closed on the bird's thigh.

3-11.—The fowl, whilst walking about with rather a sluggish gait, suddenly sprang off the ground, and fell over in convulsions. It was immediately bitten on the thigh by a cobra. It continued convulsions and convulsed, and was dead at 3-16; that is, in six minutes after it was bitten by the viper. Had this viper been fresh, the bird would probably not have lived one minute.

EXPERIMENT No. 9.

Another fowl bitten by the same daboia at 3.56 p.m.

3-58.—It hops, but a drop of blood, and its comb droops.

3-59.—Bitten by a cobra in the thigh, and down.

4-2.—Slight convulsions.

4-3.—Comb rigid; convulsed & flung on its side.

4-5.—Dead, in nine minutes.

These three experiments, I think, settle the question of the poison of one family of venomous snakes being antidotal to the other.

In these cases, the viper was old and exhausted, and yet his poison was deadly. The poison of the cobra, which was also a partially exhausted snake selected on purpose had no counteracting effect. The only thing proved is the terribly deadly nature of the daboia, which, after such long confinement, without food or water, yet retained the power of causing death.

These experiments were made in reference to certain suggestions that have appeared in the journals, but not with any expectation of any particular or other result, than which occurred and took place. The poison of the deadly snakes, of whatever family, kills by paralyzing the nerve centres, and it appears reasonable to expect a Frusie and to prove antidotal to the cobra's poison to be so that of any other form of venomous snake.

EXPERIMENT No. 10.

A fowl was bitten by the same daboia in the thigh at 4.7 p.m., 4-10.—Sitting down; looks sluggish.

4-15.—Hops and runs about, but is lame.

4-27.—Walks, but is very lame on the bitten leg.

4-15.—Still walks about, but is sluggish and lame, and legs very dejected.

The fowl, after this, began to recover, and on the 21st, two days later, was quite well. The snake was evidently and but quite exhausted when he bit this bird.

EXPERIMENT No. 11.

The external jugular vein of a dog was exposed at 3-6 p.m., and four drops of cobra-poison were injected; at least one drop was lost, the other three entered the vein.

3-10.—Dog looks dejected, and ears drooping; he lies down.

3-33.—Stand being sluggish, no symptoms of poisoning.

3-46.—Very sluggish; lies down.

3-47.—L. poor ammonia, sp. gr. 959, 60 drops injected into jugular vein; dog lies quiet. Heart beating rapidly; respiration very feeble.

3-51.—Heart's action very rapid; breathing rapid; muscular twitchings.

3-57.—Injected 60 more drops into the vein; muscular twitchings continue.

3-59.—Dead.

Poison injected at 3-4; death at 3-59. Death in 55 minutes. The quantity of poison was very small from a weakened snake; no effect was produced by the ammonia.

EXPERIMENT No. 12.

The external jugular vein was exposed in a dog; it was then bitten in the thigh by a fresh cobra at 3-27.

3-28.—Staggering; excited, springing; howling violently; and trying to break the cord by which it is fast.

3-29.—Quiescent; sitting down.

3-30.—Head drooping.

3-34.—Lye (2 g on its side, slightly convulsed); sixty drops of a solution of quinine, of the strength of one grain in eight drops was injected into the jugular vein.

3-34.—The dog lies on its side, still slightly convulsed.

3-35.—Dead.

Injected at 3-27; dead at 3-35, in eleven minutes. The quinine evidently did no good.

EXPERIMENT No. 13.

Equal parts of cobra-poison and liquor ammonia, sp. gr. 959, were mixed together, and fifteen drops of the mixed fluid were injected with the hypodermic syringe into a pigeon's thigh at 4-29 p.m. Pigeon crouched immediately, at 4-31; was unable to stand; the beak resting on the ground.

4-32.—Convulsed; peculiar convulsive movements of the tail continued.

4-32.—Dead.

The ammonia was not intentionally deprived of all its water; it would take water.

Injected at 4:30; death at 4:32, in two minutes. This experiment is very unfavorable to the theory of the antidotal action of liquor ammoniac.

EXPERIMENT No. 14.

The external jugular vein of a large and powerful dog having been exposed, ten (10) drops of fresh cobra-poison were injected into it at 4-21 with the hypodermic syringe.

4-24-30. The dog staggered, was convulsed, and fell over foaming at the mouth.

4-25.—Violently convulsed, but with no out-cry or sign of suffering.

Sixty drops of liquor ammonia, sp. gr. .959, injected. Dead.

Death occurred in about 70 seconds; showing the frightful virulence of the poison when it finds entry by a large blood vessel.

How can such a death be explained otherwise than by exhaustion of the nerve centres? Any theory of blood-change is surely totally inapplicable here.

Present: DR. FAYREK, DR. EWART, Professor of Physiology; and DR. SCEVA.—June 26th, 1869.

EXPERIMENT No. 15.

A Pariah dog was bitten in the fore-arm by a cobra (kalla keautia) at 3-2 p.m.

A ligature had been thrown round the limb above the bitten part, which was immediately tightened; a pointed steel, heated to a red heat, was then, at 3-3 p.m., inserted into the punctures, and the wounds were thoroughly cauterized.

3-7.—The dog is restless, and is apparently under the influence of the poison.

3-12.—Stagger as he walks.

3-14.—Forty drops of liquor ammoniac sp. gr. .959, diluted with three parts of water, were injected into the jugular vein.

3-17.—The dog runs about excited; he was partially convulsed during the injection of the ammonia; now sits up, and then falls over backwards; breathing quickly.

3-20.—Lies down; is salivated.

3-27.—Sits down; paws the air; muscular twitchings.

3-33.—Lying on his side; convulsed.

3-41.—Lies paralysed; heart still beats, but no respiration.

3-45.—Dead.

Notwithstanding the ligature, which was tightened immediately, the actual cautery, which also immediately followed the cobra's fangs, and the injection of ammonia into the venous circulation, the snake-poison proved fatal to a full-grown dog in forty-three minutes.

EXPERIMENT No. 16.

A dog was bitten by a fresh cobra (kalla keautia) in the fore-arm at 3-38 p.m.; a ligature was immediately tightened round the limb above the wound. The actual cautery was at once applied, until the fang wounds and the adjacent parts were completely disorganized.

3-42.—The dog is sitting, but reels as though he would fall over.

3-49.—Rises and walks with a staggering gait.

3-54.—Sits down; attempts to get up, and falls over backwards.

3-57.—Is convulsed; falls over, cannot stand; hurried breathing.

4-1.—Cannot move; lies paralysed; heart still beating; respiration almost ceased; pupils widely dilated.

4-6.—Lies on his side; convulsed.

4-12.—No respiration; but heart still beats feebly.

4-13.—Dead.

In this case also, notwithstanding the ligature which was applied as tightly as two persons could pull it round the leg, and the deep and thorough actual cauterization, immediately after the bite, the snake-poison found entry into the system, and proved fatal in thirty-five minutes. The dog was much smaller than that of the first experiment.

Nothing, it seems to me, can more strongly demonstrate the extremely subtle and virulent nature of the cobra-poison than those experiments; nothing, I think, is more significant of the improbability of anything proving to be an antidote. If the poison find entry into the blood vessels, and be carried to the nerve centres, I am inclined to believe that nothing can prove of any avail, excepting in those cases where the bite is imperfect, the quantity or the quality of the poison diminished or deteriorated, or the snake itself is young, weak, exhausted, or is one of less poisonous family; such, I believe, are the only cases in which recovery occurs through the inherent vigour of the animal or person bitten, perhaps aided by stimulants and excitement. The favourable result is attributed, and naturally enough, by those who do not understand the *modus loquendi* of the venoms, to the treatment and the so-called antidote. That we can aid in such recoveries, and that we may do much to help the sufferer through the troubles arising from general disorder and secondary blood poisoning, I have no doubt; and I would offer every encouragement to all to persevere in their attempts. But I must state my conviction that nothing that can properly be called an antidote to cobra or viper poison exists; and the more this is known the better, for mistaken notions on such an important matter can only do harm, and may be the cause of losing, rather than of saving, life.

My belief is that, if an animal, and probably a man, be fairly bitten by a fresh and vigorous cobra or daboia, it, or he, will inevitably succumb; unless some immediate and direct method of arresting the entry of the poison into the circulation be practised.

That such may be done I will not deny; but the two experiments just recorded, performed with the greatest care and speed, by two surgeons accustomed to such operations, shew that, at the least, it is very difficult. The moment of time that intervenes between the injection of the snake-poison by the powerful maxillary muscles through the tube-like fang, into the minute blood-vessels of the part, and the application of the ligature and actual cautery is sufficient to allow of the entry of the poison into the circulation, and this reaching the nerve centres even in a small quantity, may prove fatal. The ligature is evidently very unreliable when applied to large parts of the body, such as the limbs; for it is almost physically impossible to compress the part so tightly as to stop the circulation; and unless this be done to the depth of the penetration of the snake's fangs, it is obvious that it can only be of very partial effect in preventing the entry of the poison. On a finger or a toe a ligature might be of more service, as the smaller part might be thoroughly strangulated; but unless the ligature were applied immediately, it is obvious that it would be useless even there, for the poison would have already entered, and be on its course towards the nerve-centres. How quickly this occurs is proved by those experiments in which the poison was injected directly into the jugular vein. What took place then, with the hypodermic needle inserted into the jugular vein, has its exact counterpart in the case of the cobra's fang, inserted, as it must be, when it penetrates a vascular part, into the minute veins.

The same may be said of the actual cautery. Unless the hot iron enter the puncture directly after the fang has been withdrawn, the poison is already far on its way towards the centre, and the burning, though it destroys the tissues and such of the poison as may not yet have entered the circulation, can have no influence on that which is already beyond its reach. But as the

not avoid death, and, by accident, in the actual history, it is simply and theoretically inserted, most limit to a certain extent the entrance of the poison, both should be had recourse to as quickly and effectually as possible, in the hope that the amount of poison left to find its way have already found its way into the system may be less than is sufficient to cause death.

To conceive of an antidote, in the true sense of the term, to a poison, one must imagine a substance so subtle as to follow, overtake, and neutralize the venom in the blood, or that shall have the power of counteracting and neutralising the deadly influence it has exerted on the vital forces. Such a substance has still to be found, and our present experience of the action of drugs does not lead to hopeful anticipation that we shall find it.

But I repeat that when the poisonous effects are produced in a minor degree, or when the secondary symptoms are to be met with, we may do much to aid the natural forces in bringing about recovery. This is not, however, what is meant by an antidote.

EXPERIMENT No. 17.

A large and powerful dog had the right external jugular vein exposed. Twenty drops of a mixture of fresh cobra poison, taken from the snake the same day, one part, and hyposulphuric acid, forty drops of two parts, was then injected with the hypodermic syringe into the vein. The time of the injection of the fluid was 1:27:30. The effect was instantaneous; the dog struggled, howled, and was convulsed on the table; he was immediately released and placed on the ground, but was nearly almost unconscious and convulsed. He made an effort to rise on his legs, and fell prone on his belly. Within one minute respiration had ceased, though the heart's action continued faintly. This ceased, and at 1:30:00, he was quite dead. The action of the poison with the ammonia was frightfully rapid in this case. Death occurred in two minutes and a half, complete unconsciousness within a minute; and only by the faint beating of the heart, which only continued for two and a half minutes, was any sign of life manifested. This surely is fatal to the theory of ammonia injected into the circulation being of any benefit in snake-poisoning. In this case the poison and the so-called antidote were injected synchronously, the result was almost instant death.

The experiment was performed by Dr. Ewart and myself with the greatest care, and certainly never entered the vein.

EXPERIMENT No. 18.

The cobra that bit the dog in the first experiment bit a fowl in the thigh, at 3:46 p.m. The bird immediately began to squawk, then screamed, and then fell over.

3:47—Head taken over, beak resting on the ground.

3:49—Convulsed; dead.

Death occurred in three minutes.

A pigeon (No. 1) was bitten by the same snake at 3:50 p.m., in the thigh.

3:51—Drooping his wings.

3:55—Sitting on his back, resting on the ground.

3:57—1st convulsed.

4 p.m.—Dead in ten minutes.

A small fowl bitten by the same snake in the thigh at 3:51 p.m. shortly after 4 p.m.

3:58—Convulsed.

4:2—Dead.

Death in 10 minutes.

A fourth and larger fowl bitten in the thigh by the same snake at 4 p.m.

4:8—Convulsed; wings spread out; legs spread (to run, and take head drooping, beak resting on the ground.

4:10—Convulsed. 4:17—Still convulsed; comb vivid.

4:20—Dead in 17 minutes.

A pigeon was bitten in the thigh by the same cobra at 4:13 p.m. 4:20—Convulsed; comb drooping.

4:21—Head drooping; resting on beak. 4:22—Quite paralysed; convulsed.

4:35—Dead in 22 minutes.

A pigeon was bitten in the thigh by the same cobra at 4:37 p.m.

4:47—The pigeon is drooping, and when he stands, it is on one leg; and then falls over again.

5:22—Dead in 45 minutes.

This was the ninth animal bitten by the cobra in rapid succession, and still it is apparently not quite exhausted.

A sixth fowl bitten in the thigh by the same cobra at 4:32 p.m.

4:35—Crawling. 4:47—Staggering.

5:45—Lying down in sensible.

6:5—Dead in 90 minutes.

A seventh fowl bitten by the same cobra in the thigh at 4:34 p.m.

4:37—Convulsed. 4:47—Stems sluggish, and limp.

27th June, 6:30 a.m.—Lying down, and eyes had closed; unable to walk.

28th June, 6 a.m.—Is recovering; walks sluggishly and limps, but is evidently regaining strength.

The object of this experiment was to test the extent of power possessed by the cobra. It destroyed one dog, six fowls, and a pigeon in rapid succession, but the intervals between the bite and the death of each was prolonged, showing the gradual diminution of power at each bite. The seventh fowl poisoned was only slightly so, and recovered.

The cobra was neither a very large nor a very vigorous one, and yet how deadly! Eight creatures destroyed by a rapid succession of bites. The experiment proves that the snake becomes weaker by biting until quite exhausted.

EXPERIMENT No. 19.

A cobra was bitten by a fresh cobra (kalla kaurtia) near the tail, sufficiently far from the viscera. The scales were previously scraped off. The snake bit fiercely and repeatedly at 4:54 p.m.

6 p.m.—No change.

On the 28th June, at 6 a.m., there was no change.

The object of this experiment was to repeat the test of the influence of the cobra-poison on the viper. The result tends to show that it is innocuous.

DEATHS FROM SNAKE-BITES: A TRIAL CONDENSED FROM THE SESSIONS

REPORT.

COMMUNICATED BY DR. FAYLER, C.S.I.

POORNA PAVAN and Jomin Patnah are brought to trial for having, soon or about the 11th day of October, 1865, at Barh, Zillah Patnah, committed culpable homicide, not amounting to murder, by causing the deaths of Titoo, Mungloo, and Jukoo.

Titoo was the son of Phimpat, aged 20 years, Mooldar at Barh, Pergunah Soarggurah, Zillah Munggher, 14 miles from Barh, on the 10th day or month. Titoo and Chitrapore, Zillah Patnah, being engaged to make bricks for the Darjeeling and Calcutta R.R., and was learning how to charm snakes from the two prisoners, Purna and Jomin. At length, on a Sunday, the prisoners wanted to make the snake bite Titoo. I did not wish the snake to bite in any part of the body. They then

pulled my ears in a tyrannical manner, and said, Why are you afraid? If the snake does bite, we will charm you, and recover you. Then they brought three snakes, two keraitis and one keantiah; the latter a young snake, but all were poisonous. The two smaller snakes they put aside, and one large kerait his *hatts* long, they placed in front of us, and made Titroo place his right hand on the ground, and made the snake crawl on to his hand; but at first the snake did not bite him, then Poonai struck the snake with a cane, and the snake immediately bit Titroo on his right fore-finger. After this, in the same manner the snake was made to bite Menghon on the right hand, and then in the same manner the right hand of Jikree. After this, in the same manner the snake was made to bite me on the right wrist: the snake then appeared to be dead. After this, the prisoners having made incantations over the snake brought it to life again, and having placed some vermilion on its head, let it go free in a paddy field. After the snake had bitten Titroo he was attacked with great thirst, and began to foam at the mouth: he became senseless. At one *paher* of the night remaining, Titroo was bitten, and he died half an hour before daybreak. Menghon and Jikree appeared well after Titroo's death; the poison did not seem to have affected them. The prisoners then ran away. Menghon and Jikree returned to their houses, and I heard they died there at mid-day. I was then senseless after I was bitten, my body and head began to turn round, and great perspiration commenced, with severe pain in the stomach, and my eyesight became dim, then I became senseless. I was brought from Bahadurpore to the Hospital, and remained there five or six days, when I became sensible again. All this took place at Bahadurpore in the court-yard of Moosum. He is not related to the prisoners, neither did he assist them. Some five or six other men besides we four were made to sit down by the prisoners in order that the snake might be made to bite them; but owing to the snake becoming weak, they were not bitten. Seeing all the above, they ran away.

2. Bechoo Sirdar, son of Dookhna, aged 22 years, Moosabar of Manikpore, Pergunnah Secundra, Zillah Moughyr, labourer.—The prisoners Poonai and Jooman were, in Assin, teaching Titroo, Menghon, Jikree, Etwari, Laloo, &c., some ten men, snake incantations, and I was also being taught by them. At length, on a Sunday night, the prisoners produced from an earthen pot two keraitis and a keantiah, snakes, and began to teach us the incantations, and began to make the snakes move about in front of us all. We became afraid, whereupon the prisoners said, Why do you fear? If the snakes bite you, we are *gooroo*, and will soon restore you. After this they made us place our right hands on the ground, and began to make the kerait snake move towards our heads, we immediately from fear raised our hands. Upon this the prisoners struck us with rattans, and when the snake moved to a distance we again placed our hands on the ground. Then the prisoners took the snakes near to Titroo, Menghon, Jikree, and Etwarree, and made the snake, by striking it with a rattan, bite Titroo on the fore-finger of the right hand; the throat of Titroo immediately became dry, and he became senseless; then the snake was made to bite Menghon on the fore-finger of the right hand, but Menghon did not suffer or become senseless. After this the snake was made to bite Jikree on the right hand; he did not either become senseless, but remained talking. Then the snake was made to bite Etwarree on the right wrist, he did not appear to suffer. Then Titroo died two hours before dawn, and the prisoners then ran away. We went in search of them, and at 10 a. m. we found them and seized them in a rice field at Gurnabaree, west of the road, and took them to Bahadurpore. We told them to restore Titroo to life again, but they could not do it, but went and sat down at a dis-

taunce. Then the police came, and we made the prisoners over to them.

I heard Menghon and Jikree died on the day following; Etwarree was placed on a cart and brought to Hospital. When Titroo became senseless the prisoners tried to recover the snake, which became torpid after biting Etwarree. The prisoners took the snakes with them when they went off. I did not see them let go by the prisoners. We were to pay one or two rupees for being taught; we were told that if we were bitten by a snake, in repeating the incantations, and fanning the snake, we should recover.

Two other witnesses are examined, but they give similar evidence to the preceding.

The information and deposition of Dr. David Ticeachy, Civil Surgeon of Purneah, taken before me, J. R. Muspratt, Sessions Judge of Purneah, at Purneah, on this twelfth day of January, 1869, who being put on his oath, saith as follows:

Ques.—Did you examine the bodies of Titroo, Menghon, and Jikree?

Ans.—Yes I did, and found that they had died from the effects of snake-poison. There was nothing abnormal about their internal organs, which could be said to be the result of disease.

Ques.—In what way did the three bodies exhibit the effects of snake-poison?

Ans.—Externally there were the marks of snake bites on their hands and arms, and internally the blood was in a fluid state, and the brain vessels deeply congested; the former state—*viz.*, the fluid state of the blood—being particularly indicative of snake-poison.

Ques.—Did you examine the wound of Etwarree?

Ans.—Yes, and found a scratch on the fore-arm; he was partially senseless when received into Hospital, but could reply to questions I put to him. His wound or scratch looked like that which would be inflicted by a snake. I treated him with ammonia for three days, when he recovered.

Ques.—How do you account for the escape of Etwarree, the other three having died?

Ans.—He was the last person bitten, and must have received less poison than the others.

Ques.—Was he in your opinion suffering from the bite of a poisonous snake?

Ans.—Yes, he was lethargic and depressed; there was very slight swelling about the scratch. The wounds on the three dead bodies presented a livid appearance, and the corpses were swollen and in a semi-decomposed state, resulting from rapid chemical change after death by animal poison.

Ques. by prisoners.—None.

These men were sentenced to five years' imprisonment by the Sessions Judge of Purneah, which sentence was confirmed on appeal by the High Court of Calcutta.

The snakes, as described by the witnesses, are two keraitis (Bungarus Corallus) and one keantiah (Cobra di Capella), the variety with one ocellus on the hood. The larger snake, said to be a Bungarus, bit four men; three died, one appears to have narrowly escaped.

REPORT ON TYPHOID FEVER IN THE 92ND GORDON HIGHLANDERS.

By W. MUNRO, M.D. C.B.

Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals, H. M. F.

THE following report on typhoid fever was compiled (under instructions from the Inspector-General of Hospitals, British Forces) from information supplied by the Surgeon of the regiment in his answers to a series of written questions forwarded to him by myself on the subject.

In the report I gave a short history of the regiment for two years before arrival in India; occupied the composition and strength of the corps at the time of departure from England; stated the diseases prevalent amongst all classes from the date of embarkation up to the month of August, 1868; and, lastly, gave my opinions as to the character of the fever which had appeared and become more or less prevalent in the regiment, and endeavoured to explain its origin.

The following pages contain my remarks on these different points, abbreviated and condensed.—

For twenty-one months prior to embarkation for India, the 2nd Gordon Highlanders had been serving in Ireland, and had done garrison duty in Dublin for fifteen out of the twenty-one months. For the remaining six, the regiment had been in camp at the Curragh, undergoing a course of camp instruction, and one wing had been detached from headquarters for a short time to afford assistance to the civil authorities of the counties of Tipperary and Cork, during the Fenian disturbances. During this service of twenty-one months there was no special sickness in the regiment, but in that portion of the corps stationed in Cork one case of typhoid fever occurred, immediately before embarkation, but which case was left behind in hospital when the regiment sailed.

During eighteen of the twenty-one months there was no change in the composition of the regiment, which was as follows, including the depot:—678 Scotch, 137 English, and 58 Irish. Of this strength, 216 were under 20 years of age, 515 under 30, and 130 above 30 but under 40.

The regiment while serving in Ireland underwent a good deal of exposure and fatigue, but the men continued apparently robust and healthy.

About three months before embarkation, 135 general service recruits joined the regiment, of whom 125 were English and 10 Scotch; the former of the labouring classes, from the Leeds, Liverpool, and Bristol districts. The average age of these 135 recruits was 19½ years, but some of them were much under that age, and the majority of them, though without physical defects which could have been causes of rejection, were pronounced by the Surgeon of the regiment to be not only deficient in physique, but pale and sickly-looking.

The regiment embarked at Cork 727 strong, and the ships (new transports in which it sailed) were roomy, comfortable, and well-ventilated; and the food supplied during the voyage was good and sufficient in quantity.

There was little sickness amongst the men during the voyage, but there were five cases of measles, and three of *simple fever*, and there was one fatal case of pneumonia. This was the only death amongst the men during the voyage, and until after arrival at Jullundur.

Some time before embarkation, and with that portion of the regiment at the Curragh, a few cases of measles occurred amongst the children; and the Surgeon, fearing if any cases of this disease were embarked, that it might become epidemic on board ship, recommended that the women and children should be left behind, and the recommendation was followed to the extent of 20, that is, about one-third of the men and one member of the same family should be emigrating. No cases of measles, therefore, were actually embarked, but five days after sailing one case occurred, and the disease spread rapidly amongst the children, and a few cases occurred also amongst the ill-dressed men.

During this prevalence of the measles the greatest care was bestowed on the ordinary ventilation, and fumigation also, in those parts of the ship occupied by the children.

There was no overcrowding of the men on board, and the ventilation was good, and there were no other special causes of disease, and what occurred was

and the Surgeon states that they were well and abundantly fed.

Besides measles, whooping-cough, bronchitis, and diarrhoea became prevalent amongst the children; and before the termination of the voyage "the children became emaciated to a painful degree." Under this complication of disease, we have seen that the regiment, including men, women, and children, embarked free from disease apparently; that during the voyage the men remained healthy, and the children alone sickened and suffered; and on arrival at Bombay even, early in the spring, the men were reported to be still healthy.

From Bombay the regiment proceeded in the transports to Kurrachee in the month of March; from thence up the Indus to Mooltan, in river flats well by steamers; and from Mooltan to Jullundur, chiefly by rail.

The regiment was divided into wings on the passage up the river, and in the head-quarters wing diarrhoea broke out amongst the men almost immediately after leaving Kotree. With this wing (head-quarters) two-thirds of the recruits and the greater number of the women and children were sent.

The Surgeon of the regiment thought that this outbreak of diarrhoea might have been caused by the use of the river water, before it was allowed to deposit its mud or other impurities possibly contained in it; and also to the want of alum to purify the water. He thought that such was almost certainly the case, from the fact of the left wing of the regiment having been free from bowel complaint, though they made use of the same river water, but purified by alum; and, further, from the disappearance of diarrhoea amongst the men of the head-quarters wing after a supply of alum had been procured and mixed with the water.

On the passage up the river, men, women, and children were much crowded in the flats, and was informed by the Surgeon and other officers of the regiment, though, from a memorandum attached to my original report by Major-General Harris, commanding the Sindh Division at the time, it would appear that the accommodation was in excess of regulation. However that may have been, the men occupied the decks of the flats day and night, protected only by an awning, while the women and children were placed below, and packed closely together; but every effort was made to keep this space clean and well-ventilated.

At the season of the year when the 92nd came up the river, —viz., in the month of March,—the heat by day had become considerably, and the sun must have beat down with great power on men who did nothing but a thin awning to protect them, and as day closed and night set in, these men, still protected by the awning only, must have felt keenly the cold chilly night breeze as it swept along the river. In addition to this exposure to sudden changes of temperature, the men were twice exposed to the skin during the night, and had to remain in that state until the sun dried their things, and warmed their bodies on the following morning.

At the same time that diarrhoea prevailed amongst the men, fever cases also appeared, and as fever cases became more frequent bowel complaints became less so. But the women only suffered from diarrhoea, caused, as the Surgeon thought, in the former by the use of river water. The younger children, however, and some even of those at the breast, suffered from bowel complaint, the result of, or consequent upon, measles. These children, therefore, did not suffer from the use of river water, or at least their complaints were not caused in the first instance, by it, for they had all been ailing and suffering from diarrhoea before arrival at Kurrachee.

Early in April the regiment reached its destination, and it was reported that a few men (Infantry Barrack) in Jullundur,

and almost immediately after arrival there, diarrhoea again broke out with greater severity than before, no class escaping, but the young soldiers suffered most. This outbreak was at first attributed to the large draughts of cold water which the men drank when over-heated.

The barracks at Jullunder did not afford sufficient accommodation for the whole regiment; detachments were, therefore sent to Phillour and Gorind Ghur, and a party of 70 men, consisting of the youngest and most delicate, was sent to the convalescent depot at Kussowlie; but even after these reductions the regiment was crowded in barracks, and the superficial space per man during the whole hot season was only about 67 feet. During the latter part of April and beginning of May, diarrhoea amongst the men gradually became less, but many simple fever cases began to flock into hospital, especially at Jullunder; and as the month wore on the cases of fever admitted assumed a graver character. On the 24th of May a case of typhoid fever was reported—the first at head-quarters: and very shortly afterwards many of the cases of what, on admission to hospital, appeared to be simple fever, assumed, or showed a great tendency to assume, the *typhoid* character.*

I could not ascertain the exact number of such cases, as only those that were decidedly cases of *typhoid fever* were recorded; but in his letters and reports the Surgeon of the regiment remarked that "numbers showed a tendency to run into a *typhoid* state."

Previously to this, however, two cases of typhoid fever (a man and a woman) occurred in the detachment of the regiment at Phillour, and early in May two cases of the same fever occurred in the detachment at Kussowlie. These two last-mentioned cases I saw several times, as I happened to be making a spring inspection of the hill stations at the time.

Up to August 2nd there were 247 admissions to hospital for fever alone, and of these 56 were lads under 20 years of age, 123 over 20 but under 25 years of age. Of the 247 cases, 12 were distinctly *typhoid*, and reported as such,—5 of them under 20 years of age, 6 over 20, and 1 over 25 years of age. Of these 12 cases, 7 proved fatal, and of these fatal cases one was 15, two were 18, one was 19, two were 20, and one was 23 years of age.

From date of embarkation up to 2nd August there were five deaths amongst the women, from common fever, from typhoid fever, from puerperal fever, and from heat apoplexy; and in the same period there occurred *thirty-nine* deaths amongst the children, from measles, from diarrhoea, and exhaustion, and *three* from common fever.

Besides 247 admissions amongst the men for fever, there were 86 admissions for diarrhoea and dysentery after arrival at Jullunder and up to August 2nd,—that is to say, within three months and a half; and all the men admitted under these two diseases were between 18 and 22 years of age. The number 86 refers to men only, and does not include any cases which occurred during the passage up the river, for none of these were admitted to hospitals, as the accommodation for sick on board the flats was very limited; and even during several weeks after arrival at Jullunder, cases of bowel complaint (slight ones, of course) were not taken into hospital, so that it is impossible to ascertain what extent bowel complaint prevailed; but from the fact of the Surgeon having especially alluded in his reports to the prevalence of diarrhoea on the passage up the Indus, and again after arrival at Jullunder, we may conclude that the complaint prevailed to an unusual or considerable extent, and at the same time we may conclude that the 86 admissions were severe cases.

During the same period (three and a half months), out of a strength of 79 men at Phillour, there were 30 admissions to

hospital for fever, and 5 for diarrhoea, and only *one* of the thirty admissions was a case of *typhoid fever*†.

At Kussowlie, out of a strength of 80 men, there were in the same period only six admissions for fever, and two of these were well-marked cases of *typhoid enteric fever*; and only four cases of bowel complaint, one of which was a case of dysentery contracted on the way up from Jullunder to Kussowlie. The two cases of enteric fever in this party were boys 19 years of age.

Altogether, including men, women, and children, there were 17 decided and recorded cases of typhoid fever in the regiment, not confined to one, but reported from three different portions of the regiment at long distances from each other, but all occurring about the same time, though in the distant detachments first. The strength at Jullunder was 600, and out of this number there were 333 admissions to hospital for two diseases only within three and a half months,—that is to say, upwards of half the strength suffered from fever and diarrhoea in this short period. Of the 333 admissions, 83 were boys under 20 years of age, 166 lads over 20 years of age, and only 84 above 25 years of age. Of the 15 recorded cases of typhoid fever amongst the men, 11 were under 20 years of age, 9 were English, 2 Irish, and 5 Scotch.

From these figures it will be observed that the young men were the chief sufferers, and that typhoid fever was more fatal amongst the English recruits than any other class.

The following is a description of the typhoid fever as furnished me by the Surgeon of the regiment:—

"The cases of typhoid fever which have occurred were all young men, only one being over 21 years of age. In these the symptoms of ordinary fever merged into those of low typhoid fever, the typhoid symptoms setting in when the patients were apparently recovering. The symptoms were low muttering delirium and a tendency to coma; eyes sunk in; breathing oppressed; pulse small and quick; teeth covered with sordes; tongue brown, dry, and glazed; restless twitchings of face and hands; bowels bound (?) at first, except in a few cases, were afterwards moved involuntarily; urine thick and high-coloured, and in a few cases entirely suppressed (?); a rose-coloured eruption was apparent in three cases, but obscured by prickly heat. There was hæmorrhage from the nose in three cases and from the bowels in two, and there was deafness in several cases.

"In three out of the *seven* fatal cases, enlargement of Peyer's glands was found, and in all the mucous membrane of the stomach and intestines presented patches of ulceration in a greater or less degree. In one case no ulceration could be detected, though before death the patient had passed a very large quantity of blood. In one case an abscess was found in the liver; and in another, peritonitis set in shortly before death."

In the two cases seen by myself at Kussowlie in May, 1868, the rose coloured spots on the abdomen were distinctly seen; and in both of these cases, and in another lately under treatment at the same station, there was a remarkably billi, dusky appearance about the face—a symptom not noticed, or at least not mentioned, by the Surgeon of the regiment, or by the other Medical Officers.

I attach detailed statements of these three cases, and the *post-mortem* appearances in one which ended fatally only a few days ago.†

It may be worthy of remark that the two cases treated at Kussowlie in 1868 were both admitted with fever of the intermittent type, which on the sixth day after admission became

* I do not include the sickness of women or children in these figures.

† Will appear in the next number.—ED. L. M. G.

ously typical. The child is treated at Kussowlee this year, and would probably not probably had suffered very lately from intermittent fever; on examination of the body we found the spleen much enlarged and congested.

There have been many cases of intermittent fever in this regiment, which I consider remarkable for a corps that has been so short a time in India; but this fact may form the subject of future remarks.

From the description of the fever given by the Surgeon, and from the case now by myself, I have no doubt that the seventeen reported cases were severe attacks of typhoid enteric fever; but I am by no means satisfied that those seventeen were the only cases of this fever in the regiment. Indeed, I am of opinion that the *many cases* reported as showing a tendency to become typhoid were null, but still genuine cases of typhoid enteric fever, and that this type of fever was at that time epidemic in the regiment.

I shall now endeavour to explain how this typhoid enteric fever may have been originated in the regiment.

The solitary case which occurred at Cork may be looked on as accidental, but still it shows that the regiment, or at least numbers of it, may have been exposed to the poison of this disease. No other case, however, having occurred in the corps until after an interval of three months, may induce us to believe that none of the men who embarked had already come under the influence of the disease. We have seen that measles had appeared amongst the children while the regiment was at the Corragh, but that no child suffering from the disease or any member of a family in which this disease had made its appearance was allowed to embark, and yet that, in a few days after sailing from Cork, measles again broke out amongst the children and became epidemic; and also that at the same time whooping-cough, bronchitis, and diarrhoea became prevalent also.

All the children who embarked were apparently in good health, but in a few days after sailing were attacked by measles, &c.; they must, therefore have left Ireland laboring under the poison of this disease.

In the same way it is quite possible that some, nay many, of the men, and particularly the young recruits who joined just before embarkation, may have imbibed the poison of enteric fever while in Ireland, or even before they joined the regiment, and that the disease did not come into active operation until the men had been exposed to the exhausting climate of India. Several circumstances, though remote, are in favor of this opinion.

First, the fact of one case having occurred at Cork immediately before embarkation; of the fever having first appeared, shortly after arrival in India, amongst the young recruits who had sailed from the regiment shortly before it left Ireland; and of the disease having been confined almost entirely to these recruits and to the young soldiers.

I will not, however, insist upon this opinion, as it is barely supported by mere theoretical supposition, but shall endeavour to explain the possible origin of the disease otherwise.

On board the transports to India, were placed in a part of the upper-deck cabins. They had their wash-benches, bath-tubs, and stoves, &c., and I have ascertained that the ventilation of the ships on every part was *perfect*. As soon as we were at anchor, the hammock were put into quarantine, and a disinfectant was poured over parts of the ship, and the soldiers, except the hospital and the convalescent, were excluded from the parts of the vessel. But I never saw well ventilated ships, any where, and I never saw shipping by the Indian coast, and water-casks were kept below deck, so it is not possible to preserve the purity of the pure and fresh air, especially in a transport full of troops, with their wives and children; and however carefully sick may be excluded and the part of the ship occupied

by them (sod and fumigated), disease, capable of being communicated from one person to another, or by the medium of the air, breathing out by one class of persons, may—may, most probably, be communicated to all classes on board. Such was the case in the present instance, for though the sufferers from measles and their attendants were confined to their own part of the ship, the disease prevailing amongst them extended to both officers and men.

If, therefore, the poison of measles was not swept from between decks by means of the admirable ventilation, we may conclude that the air between decks was rendered still further impure by emanations from the bodies of sick children, by effluvia from diarrhoeal discharges and from the water-drocks used by children suffering from diarrhoea, and very probably from their dirty linen and clothes also; for at sea these articles cannot be washed every day, and the children of soldiers have not generally many changes of apparel.

Under such circumstances, therefore, it is more than probable that the emanations were originated on board these ships, and which typhoid enteric fever was likely to be developed.

As already stated, during the passage up the Indus the women and children were placed below, and the men occupied the open decks above them at the time the young children were still suffering from diarrhoea, which complaint extended to the elder children and women, and became prevalent amongst the men also. Thus, the prevalence of diarrhoea amongst the men was attributed to the use of the Indus water, and the second appearance of the complaint in the regiment, after arrival in Julundur, more universal than the first, was supposed to have been caused by the men drinking too freely and often of cold water when they were heated. I think, however, that the use of Indus water had little if anything to do with the appearance of diarrhoea amongst the men, and that exposure on the decks at the flats, without proper covering, to the sudden changes of temperature and weather, was a much more probable cause; and, further, the children who had been suffering from measles, whooping-cough, and diarrhoea, and who with their mothers had been carefully separated from the regiment on board ship, were, on their arrival at Kotree, still suffering from diarrhoea, put into the same flats, women and children all crowded together in the ill-ventilated space between decks of the flats, while the children occupied the decks immediately above them. This, I think, was a much more probable cause of diarrhoea amongst the men than either of the others, for all were suffering alike—those who drank river water and those who did not, and those who were exposed on deck and those who were sheltered between decks—and here again on board these crowded flats, where all classes were suffering from diarrhoea, were present the quarters under which enteric fever might have been developed.

Taking what I have stated into consideration, and knowing that neither fever nor bowel complaint was prevalent in the European or Native Regiment, or amongst the prisoners in the civil jails, or amongst the civil population in and around the city of Julundur, immediately before or since the arrival of this regiment in that station, I think I may conclude that this typhoid enteric fever originated within the regiment itself, and that it followed an outbreak of diarrhoea which commenced on board ship amongst the young children, and extended thence to the crowded river flats to the elder children and women, and lastly to the men, and to the young men especially, amongst whom bowel complaint and fever have been most prevalent, and to which class typhoid enteric fever has been almost exclusively confined.

Several unfavorable circumstances were connected with this regiment on its arrival in India:—

1st.—It was to so great an extent composed of boys or growing lads.

2nd.—It arrived in the country at the beginning of the hot season.

There were 239 boys or growing lads in the corps on its arrival at Jullunder; and as it is an established fact that European children who remain in India grow up physically weak, so we may expect and believe that undeveloped lads or boys coming to India to serve as soldiers will never, even if they survive, grow into well-developed or vigorous men.

This regiment, then, composed of boys to such an unusual extent, arrived in India at the beginning of the hot season, was thrust suddenly into a climate inimical to the European constitution at the very worst season of the year; for the men, being children of a cold, damp climate, were suddenly exposed to the discomforts and dangers of intense dry heat, and naturally the weak undeveloped lads could not withstand its debilitating influence. The boys or young lads—in fact, the least vigorous class in this regiment—have been the chief sufferers, and the following figures will show the amount of sickness and mortality for five months after arrival:—Men, 721 admissions, 19 deaths; women, 89 admissions, 5 deaths; children, 127 admissions, 39 deaths.

I believe it is acknowledged to be a fact that all regiments suffer more during the first than during any subsequent year of service in India, except when epidemic disease breaks out in a corps. I cannot show, here not the means now of showing, this in figures, but speak from memory and experience, having landed with a regiment in 1857, and remained with it till 1867. During the first hot season of our service in the country, sickness and mortality were very great—greater by far than during any subsequent year, except 1862, when cholera swept off nearly one hundred of our numbers.

It is a question of the greatest importance whether this sickness and mortality in regiments on first arrival might not be avoided. I think they might, and the remedy would be to send all regiments to the hills for the first two years of service in the country.

My experience of the value of the hills is this: "Go thither to keep well, not to get well."—*Communicated by the Inspector-General of Hospitals, H. M.'s B. Forces.*

HYPODERMIC INJECTION OF LIQUOR AMMONIAE IN CHOLERA.

By SURGEON A. G. YOUNG, 60th Royal Rifles, Bellary.

FOR the last month or six weeks, cholera has been hovering about the towns and villages in the district round Bellary. A considerable number of cases have occurred in the latter town, and many native travellers have suffered from choleraic seizures, after their arrival from infected villages.

On its first appearance at Bellary, measures were adopted to check its spread amongst the natives, and its extension to the cantonment, where two batteries of Royal Artillery, one European and three Native Regiments, are stationed. By the careful administration of sanitary laws, these desirable objects have been all but attained, as evidenced by the great diminution in the seizures among the lazar inhabitants, and the non-existence of the disease, in an epidemic form, in the garrison.

On the afternoon of the 19th June, three men and several children of the battalion under my charge were brought to hospital, suffering from severe choleraic diarrhoea. The disease appeared so suddenly, and almost simultaneously in all of

them, that a suspicion of some more tangible origin than "atmospheric causes" at once arose. But a careful scrutiny, and the simple fact that these cases occurred in parts of the barracks so widely separated from each other that they could not possibly be ascribed to a similarity of dietetic errors or accidents, convinced me that the dreaded enemy was threatening an invasion. About 3 p. m., half an hour after these cases were admitted, and while I was watching them, another man was brought in, from an entirely different set of barracks, with unmistakable cholera. He had all the characteristic symptoms of that worst form of the disease, where coma supervenes so rapidly, and purging and vomiting are slight. From the first, the animal heat was excessively low, pulse rapid and very small, the countenance shrunken and anxious; there was lividity of the lips and tongue, dulness of intellect, constant cramps and choleraic voice. Diffusible stimuli, friction, hot turpentine stupe, and hot-water bottles, freely applied, were at once resorted to. Dilute sulphuric acid was given freely as a drink, mixed with water, and arrowroot and brandy in small quantities. Two copious rice-water stools were passed within the first hour, and similar matter was once ejected from the stomach. After this the symptoms, with the exception of purging and vomiting, rapidly increased in severity, and it became too evident that coma was rapidly supervening. Three hours after the commencement of the attack the patient was almost insensible; he could only be roused by a good shake, and then only replied by signs—articulation was impossible. When left alone he at once relapsed into a comatose condition, with eyes fixed, glassy, and totally devoid of intelligence. The pulse could just be felt at the wrist as a thin, faint wave, without distinct tenacity. The skin was cold and clammy, the features sunk, lips almost blue, and breath cold. I now determined on using the hypodermic injection of liquor ammonia. The nozzle of the syringe was inserted under the skin on the back of the left hand, the patient remaining perfectly quiescent, and about eight minims of the ordinary dilute liquor ammonia were injected slowly. The effect was magical. A few seconds after the injection, a slight twitching of the muscles of the forearm and contraction of the fingers were observed, and the man slowly turned his head to the left, and regarded the wounded hand, with a dull, vacant look, certainly, but one that also inspired hope in those who witnessed it. There was no intelligence in the look; but the mere fact that it was directed towards the seat of injury and pain showed that consciousness, however feeble, was not altogether extinct. I carefully watched and noted (20 minutes after the injection) the gradually returning strength of the arterial wave, and with it a perceptible increase of temperature. The eyes slowly regained their intelligence, and the shrivelling of the countenance and lividity of the lips began to disappear.

Arrowroot and brandy in small quantities were now given at short intervals, and hot-water bottles were kept about his body and limbs. At 9 p. m., three hours after the injection, the pulse was soft and moderately full, heat of skin re-established, except in the feet and legs; but even they had lost their extreme coldness; face and lips natural, and the respiration free and regular. Drowsiness existed to a certain extent, but he could be readily roused, and he spoke with a thick utterance. No more vomiting or purging; and he has not voided urine since admission. There is a small dark patch on the back of the hand, where the ammonia was injected. Ordered a little arrowroot and brandy, a blister to nape of neck, and five grains of calomel with one-eighth gram of opium

case of cholera, the patient, on the 20th, slept during the night, but on awaking found himself slightly fevered, and he passed water freely, but not in quantity. General condition favourable; pulse moderate, and skin shewn some improvement, slightly clouded, but as yet not nearly clear; deafness exists to a slight extent, which increases with mobility of expression. Reaction has come on very gradually, and there is no secondary fever.

Cathartics, sweet and brinny, gave two grain doses of calomel at intervals, and kept bladder open. Vesp. had two fluid ounces of sweetened lactaria, freely during the day. General condition, however, most favourable, no secondary fever. The patient had a lack of the head has got better.

Subsequently the patient, in consequence of progress, and recovery, I was obliged to omit word symptoms. Some slight inconvence was caused by the destruction of the skin, and the formation of a small slough at the seat of operation.

No other successful cholera has occurred in my charge, and I have taken of the opportunity of testing the efficacy of the plan of treatment which was, in this solitary instance, followed by such a good success. I send you these rough notes, in the hope that their publication may induce some one or more, less fortunately circumstanced, to try the experiment on a more extended scale.

CARBOLIC ACID IN SMALL-POX.

By C. R. FRANCIS, M.B.

Inspector, Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals, Saugor.

IN a letter dated January 23rd, 1869, appeared a letter from Mr. Keith of Nymabdy, catalogizing the therapeutical effects of carbolic acid in the treatment of small-pox, measles, and small's pox. The "therapeutical effects" of the acid are, in Mr. Keith's opinion, as follows:—

1. It is a powerful sudorific.
2. It hastens the pulse so rapidly that the latter will fall from 120 to one or twenty-four hours, the skin becoming cool and moist, with a decline of fever.
3. The tongue will soon become clean and moist, and the eruption from the throat will be much diminished.
4. The eyes will be much improved.
5. It hastens that carbolic acid kills a patient through exposure of the bill, as mentioned in the notes, quicker than any other treatment that he is aware of.

According to this letter, Dr. D. M. Lewis, an intelligent Assistant Surgeon, Her Majesty's British Forces, in medical charge of the Ambulance at Saugor, determined to make use of the agent in question, and he has happily found time, for publication, to write the *Medical Gazette*, with the particulars of several instances in an effort of the Royal Ambulance, where the carbolic acid had obtained a successful result, as reported by Mr. Keith, and which are summarily derived.

The patient was a young officer, aged 28, suffering, however, being affected by small-pox, from some nervous. He had been running with a severe attack of croupy hoarse-ness previous to the eruption, which was still very tender and apt to bleed on pressure. He had not been vaccinated, apparently, at least he had no scarification of ever having been told of the operation, and he had no marks. He was not a very liable subject to be attacked with a common form of eruptive fever.

The eruption, however, ran high, and the pulse was quick and empty. On the 4th day, the patient assumed a purple, livid hue, owing to the effusions of blood (sorbute diathesis). The eruption on the body was very profuse.

The first appearance of the eruption, which occurred on the evening of the 4th day, a pill containing five pills, each containing an extract of hyacinth, was given, followed by five cathartics. With the exception of one or two carbolic acid was administered as follows, in the mode recommended by Mr. Keith:—

| | | |
|------------------------------|----------|------|
| R. A. Carb. Acid | gr. iij. | ℥ss. |
| Infus. Opii, Emul. Cal. ℥ss. | ℥ss. | ℥ss. |
| Acid. Carb. ℥ss. | ℥ss. | ℥ss. |

A table spoonful every 4 hours.

After taking this for 12 hours, the pulse was reduced by 18 beats, the skin became cool and moist, the tongue cleared, and the eruption diminished.

The patient was vaccinated till a convalescence had become fully established, followed by animal acids and vegetable tonics, &c. &c.

On the 7th day the eruption began to dry up, and on the 8th the scabs detached. Convalescence was established on the 9th day. There was no secondary fever. I am not certain as to the pathology of the eruption, but I am disposed to view it with a decided, though very little prospect of any *putting* on the face.

Dr. M. Lewis has used carbolic acid in other cases of small-pox, and he is quite satisfied as to its power to cut short the duration of this class of eruptive fevers, whilst it allays restlessness, and promotes sleep. I have brought the case forward in hopes that other medical officers may be induced to give this remedy a fair trial when similar opportunity offers itself.

PREVENTIVE SANITATION IN THE BHAWULPORE STATE.

By THE CIVIL ASSISTANT SURGEON.

EVERY constitutional instance that is made public of a successful cure of the spread of contagious disease will tend to strengthen the hands of executive Medical Officers, by forcing upon the attention of our rulers the value of "Preventive Sanitation" in the management of epidemic disease. This record is therefore a record of recent experience in this direction.

In February of this year, small-pox invaded the Bhawalpore State from the side of Multan. Two cases appeared in the city of Bhawalpore on 6th February, and measures were at once taken to separate the families of the affected, beyond the city walls, in which purpose grass huts were erected at a safe distance, and no more cases occurred in the same week, and these were all cured.

In the city of Akhnoor, thirty miles southward, three cases of small-pox were reported in the month, whilst the Civil Surgeon was visiting there. Their whole families were segregated in the Bannu place. Two more cases were seized in quick succession, and were quickly removed outside. The bodies of the affected were either purified with sulphurous water, or were incinerated, by burning *lahan* (rankunkose), which is commonly used as a disinfectant in the Levant. At the same time, our vaccine operators were vigorously pursued; and in both instances the disease was *signally* checked and extinguished.

This subject has recently been pressed upon the notice of the Punjab Government, by the Superintendent-General of Vaccination for the Province, and if it be the *paramount* object of Government to save human life, it seems reasonable to desire that all such considerations as such as the danger of oppression to the people should be made subservient to our *one* grand object.

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

CASE OF PROFUSE HÆMORRHAGE OF WHICH THE CAUSE WAS UNCERTAIN.

By W. K. WALLER, M.R.C.S., F.E.L., U.C.

Called to see W. T., stated to be spitting blood. Examination of chest convinced me the hæmorrhage was not from the lungs, yet it had not the character of hæmatemesis. There was a slight cough, which might be accounted for by a slight dullness on percussion beneath the angle of left scapula, and the respiratory murmur here was not perfect; but there was no pulmonary disorganization, no sign of cardiac disorder, no previous history of rheumatism, no heat of skin; pulse between 80 and 90, and decidedly not hæmorrhagic in character. No pain except in the left hypochondrium, and in remarking this, the patient with his hand described me greater curvature of the stomach. He stated that he had a peculiar sensation of uneasiness and distension there *before* the blood flowed.

About the 6th day of attendance, being very undecided as to the cause of the hæmorrhage, which continued in spite of treatment (large and repeated doses of gallic acid), I asked Dr. Ewart to see him; he was convinced that the lungs were not the seat of hæmorrhage, and suggested the possibility of the flow arising from the posterior nares. I plugged them accordingly with a sponge soaked in tincture of nutmeg. For thirty-six hours after the plugging there was no bleeding, and I began to hope that the hæmorrhage had been stopped; but at the end of the time stated, the bleeding returned with great violence. When it had ceased, I removed the plug, which was perfectly unstained. I tried a few doses of acetate of lead, but this had no better effect than the gallic acid. I had given turpentine, but a very few doses produced bloody urine, and it had to be given up. The bleeding having lasted now many days, and the patient becoming very blanched, and his pulse showing signs of irritability, it was determined, about the 14th day of treatment, to give large and frequent doses of the tincture of sesquichloride of iron. He accordingly took 40 minims every 4 hours from the 15th of April, until the 1st of May, when he left for Europe in the French steamer; there had been no return of hæmorrhage. The iron was continued all this time. During the whole illness, he was freely supplied with ice, which he swallowed in large quantities. Ice was also supplied externally to the left hypochondrium. Beef-tea and milk were given freely by the mouth. We tried the administration of nutrient enemata, but he invariably got sick after them, and they had to be discontinued. During the whole illness the bowels were rather constipated; there was never a trace of blood in the stools.

Where did the blood come from? Certainly not from the lungs. I think as certainly not from the stomach. Aneurism was considered, but there were no signs by which it could be detected. I always fancied the œsophagus the seat of disease, but of what nature I am not prepared to say, in the absence of all pain in the course of the œsophagus, and perfect freedom from dysphagia. It remains a mystery to me, but it is a fact that for nineteen days this man discharged by the mouth several pints of blood: I saw him myself fill a Chimna-ware spittoon holding at least a pint, and then about $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ordinary wash-hand basin; and quantities like this were of daily occurrence. He was so reduced and anæmic, that we expected his death *must* take place, yet apparently he recovered, and left Calcutta after 12 to 14 days of progressive improvement, to all appearance likely to do well.

If the course and origin of the malady is clouded with mystery, the result may suggest the advisability of persistence in treatment, even in such desperate cases, to the last.

ABSTRACT OF A CASE OF ENTERIC FEVER.

By SURGION A. ROSS, M.D.,

92nd Gordon Highlanders.

PRIVATE William Innes, aged 27, total service 9 years, service in India $1\frac{1}{2}$ year, a small man, of spare habit, light complexion, lymphatic temperament, somewhat dull appearance, and steady habits, was admitted to Hospital, on the 23rd May, suffering from continued fever, from which he so far recovered

that I had recommended him for two months' furlough to Kussowlee with the view of regaining his strength, and lest he should have a return of fever, a sharp attack of which I feared would carry him off.

On the evening of the 29th May, he was up and looking well. On the morning of the 30th, he had a return of fever of a low type, which rapidly merged into decided typhoid. He had a strong tendency to coma; eyelids drooping, and raised sluggishly when counsel; inclined to deafness; lips and teeth covered with sand, tongue dry and glazed, and resembling a piece of polished mahogany; pulse weak, thready, and rapid, sometimes fluttering; he was occasionally d-lirious, muttered low, and had twitchings of the hands; breathing hurried and somewhat oppressed; a distinct rose-coloured eruption on the abdomen; no pain on pressure over the liver or bowels. At first there was a tendency to suppression of urine, which afterwards was passed incontinently; bowels inclined to looseness; stools sometimes bilious, sometimes brown and watery, and without blood.

His treatment embraced the shaving of the head, which was blistered and dressed with Ung. Hyd. and Ung. Sæmæ, the cold douche; counter-irritants over the chest and liver, and internally, tonics, diffusible stimulants, diuretics, &c., accompanied with wine, beef tea, &c.

He died at 10 o'clock a.m., on the 2nd of June.

POST MORTEM APPEARANCES, FIVE HOURS AFTER DEATH.

External appearances.—Body badly developed, anæmic, and small posterior congestion with imperfect rigor mortis.

Brain.—Small, weighed 2lb 10 ozs., the veins on the surface congested, as also the substance. Ventricles contained about 5i of fluid, and from the base of the organ about 2 oz. of clear fluid escaped. The sinuses were not congested, but the blood that they contained seemed extremely thin and dark.

Heart.—Small, pale, but firm in substance, weighed 9 ozs., contained blood of the same color and consistency found in the sinuses of the brain; otherwise organ normal.

Lungs.—Emphysematous; posteriorly congested. They weighed when taken together only 1lb 7 ozs.

Spleen.—Large and nodulated; of a dark chocolate color, and feeling soft to the touch. It weighed 14½ ozs.

Kidneys.—Right slightly congested; they weighed, taken together, 11 ozs.

Liver.—Pale in substance. Iodine reaction showing it to be slightly albuminous; weighed 3lbs, 13 ozs.

Stomach and Intestines.—Stomach slightly congested at the lower part of the jejunum. Here and there spots representing the loss of tissue, existed, and on examination of the next portion of the intestine there was found unmistakable ulceration of the peyer glands, one large, $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch by one inch in size (so far advanced as to be on the point of perforation) and towards the ilio-cæcal valve there were numerous points of ulceration, but, beyond this, not a single speck of congestion. The large intestines throughout were perfectly free from disease.—*Communicated by Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals, W. Mairou, C.B.*

CALCUTTA NATIVE HOSPITAL.

EXCISION OF THE ELBOW; RECOVERY UNDER THE CARE OF DR. BAILLIE.

REPORTED BY MR. J. HINDER.

FERRON, a healthy native woman, aged 25, by occupation an ayah, was brought to the Hospital by the Police on the 6th October, 1868, having been murderously assailed by her paramour. She was insensible from loss of blood, having received no less than seventeen wounds (some of them very severe) inflicted with a butcher's knife, the principal cut, about 3 inches long, being over the back of the left elbow-joint, which it fully laid open, exposing the condyles of the humerus, the olecranon, and the head and neck of the radius. An attempt to save the limb having been determined upon, the wound was enlarged, and the ends of the three bones sawn off by means of the chain-saw. Not an artery required to be tied or twisted, nor were any nerves interfered with. A few sutures brought the wound together, which was covered by a pledget of lint dipped in carbolic oil (1 part to 8). The subsequent treatment was that usually employed in similar cases; no bad symptoms followed, and the patient left the Hospital on the 25th March, 1869, with a fair and flexible false joint.

the aortic region; pulse 120; breasts painful. In a few days, however, urticine tenderness disappeared, and breasts became normal, but the pulse and temperature kept up a little higher than usual during the whole time she was in the Hospital.

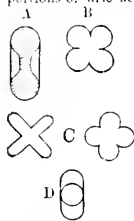
On the 22nd, she left the Hospital at her own request.

OXALURIA, AND A CASE OF ALBUMINARIA.

By ASSISTANT SURGEON F. W. DUFARREK,
Doble Irregular Force.

(Extracted from *Annual Regimental Report*.)

My record of clinical urinary examination supplies me with notes of an observation of the characters of the usually called "dumb-bell" crystals in oxaluria. Examining a specimen of such deposit under the microscope, I observed a large epithelial cast filled with crystals of oxalate, and oxalurate of lime, and portions of ure acid crystals. By carefully manipulating the upper glass, I succeeded in rotating the



tube, which thus had all the appearance of a transparent cylinder, with the crystals adhering to its inner surface. The exact shape of the different crystals was thus made distinctly apparent. There is now no doubt on my mind that the oxalate crystals are in the form of an oval disc, depressed to the centre on both sides, having a longitudinal section as figured at A in the margin, from which they derive the dumb-bell appearance. Some of these crystals when seen on edge appear like a perfect cross as at C, whose edge has the appearance shown at D.

This same record furnishes me with details of a case, exhibiting in addition to the ordinary phenomena of albuminuria in a very high degree, others which are sufficiently interesting for description here. The case was that of a relative of one of our sepoys, of which the notes taken at the time of admission are as follows.

Siddara, husbandman, aged about 40 years, admitted November 25th, 1868. Combined first three years ago. Attributes his complaint to the carrying of a heavy weight of Kurhee one day in the hot weather. Felt pain in his stomach after this. The swelling in the abdomen and legs is only of about a month's standing. Has felt pain in the loins from the first, gradually increasing in severity. Has noticed nothing particular about his urine, but a slight increase in quantity.

There is no diarrhoea, but rather habitual constipation. Complains much of dyspeptic symptoms, especially of flatulence after eating. No headache. Feels much debilitated.

There is slight tumefaction of the abdomen, and oedema of the legs, from below the knees downwards, sometimes of the hands, and also of the face. Has no appetite and does not sleep well. There is no abnormality in the action of the heart or lungs. The latter act but feebly. The hepatic dullness is removed very much to the right side. The ventral tympanitis extends over epigastric and both hypocondriac regions; Splenic dullness begins in the seventh intercostal space, and is merged in that of fluid accumulation in the abdomen. Hepatic dullness begins in the sixth intercostal space, and is similarly merged below. Pulmonary percussion sound does not extend more than two inches below the inferior angles of the scapulae. There is a sense of tumefaction in the loins with dull pain. There is also dull pain on pressure in inferior splenic region. There is slight oedema of the abdominal walls, but no complaint of serosal oedema.

He was for five days under observation, after which period, digested, I imagine, at not finding himself cured *instanter*, he returned to his village.

The observations of the urine were as follows:—specific gravity ranging from 1.065 to 1.010. Almost neutral or slightly acid. Very pale, slightly turbid, depositing a little white sediment. Very densely albuminous. The sediment under the microscope exhibited numerous pus-cells in a greater or less degree of disintegration, renal and vesical epithelium, and granular casts, in which small oil globules are numerously distributed. Agitation of the urine with ether proved the presence of much fatty matter. So dense indeed was the stratum of fatty extract thus formed that the tube could be inverted without the fluid escaping. In 1.0 grams of urine it was found that there were 2 of fatty extract and 2% of albumen. On

addition of colorless nitric acid to heated urine, the precipitate became grey and the fluid amber colored. On adding nitric acid to cold urine, the fluid gradually assumed a ruby color in the upper stratum, a purple one in the middle, and a yellow one below. A portion of the sediment becomes green, another yellow, this latter exhibiting a peculiar tenacity to the sides of the glass.

These chromatic phenomena are not produced in the urine filtered after agitation with ether, nor with the filtrate. They are, therefore, due to the action of the nitric acid upon one or other of the chemical components of the fatty matter while in a state of solution.

It is very much to be regretted that opportunities were denied me of pursuing my observations on this case; but it is only one of hundreds which must occur to every practitioner in India, and dishearten him in his practice amongst natives.

**SEVERE INJURY TO THE WRIST JOINTS.
RECOVERY.**

By SURGEON G. K. POOLY, M. D.,
18th Bengal Cavalry.

AN Aftedie thief was caught by some villagers in the act of horse-stealing, and summarily dealt with as follows, and afterwards sent in by the police for treatment in the civilisation. The right hand was severed from the forearm just above the wrist joint, apparently by a single blow from a sword. Radius and ulna irregularly cut through and amputation higher up rendered essential, the left wrist joint was opened, the whole of the flexor tendons, with the radial and ulna arteries divided, and the do-som of the hand drawn back by the extension, so as nearly to touch the forearm.

The right forearm was amputated at its middle third by the circular method, the three arteries were respectively drawn out of their sheaths by Dr. Keiller, R. A., who kindly assisted me, held at a short distance from their cut ends, which were then seized and firmly twisted for some seconds, so that a kind of knot was formed between the portion of the artery held and the end twisted, the proceeding was most effectual in sealing the mouths of the bleeding vessels. The cut surface was then sponged over with a solution of carbolic acid (5j to ℥ss), the edges brought together with wire sutures, and no dressing whatever applied; the stump was simply placed in a loosely-fitting muslin bag, which was drawn over and tied so as to keep away flies, &c.; in ten days the wound had perfectly healed, and the man has a capital stump.

The wounds of the left hand required careful adjustment, they were first of all sponged out with the carbolic acid solution, the dislocation reduced, the clots removed from the still opening vessels, which were treated in the same way as before, except that the superficial palmar branch was secured by a needle passed in and below it, and out on to the surface of the skin, and left there for 12 hours.

The edges of the wounds, as there were two di-tinct sword cuts, one through the palm, and the other through the wrist joint, were brought together with horse hair and wire sutures, and the fingers doubled over a roller, a band splint put on, and lint dipped in blood applied over all. The hand was placed in a muslin bag with a light roller to keep the splint in position, &c. No dressing took place, and the man made a rapid recovery; in three weeks' time the wounds were all healed up, the splint was removed, and passive motion of the wrist joint enjoyed. There is, however, still a good deal of stiffness about the joint, and partial ankylosis, which, is, however, diminishing daily. The man has a very fair use of his hand, which would probably have been removed by any one little experienced in the treatment of these sort of injuries in natives.

It seems worth while to publish this case, seeing that daily the old plan of silken ligature to arteries, silken sutures to wounds, cold-water dressing, pads, and bandages are in use in many hospitals, and have some very strong advocates. In this case, the suppurative process was never formed; the man's sutures were all, and all the offensive discharge kept up it may be in many cases by sutures) avoided. The above plan of treatment is quite worth trying, especially by those in charge of native patients, and if others will publish the results of their practice under similar circumstances, there will be good evidence in favour of the simple treatment above detailed.

The man in question, I may remark, is now undergoing a sentence of two months' imprisonment on account of his the vagabond propensity, and is quietly at work in the Teshwar Jail, with a strap round his shoulder, drawing water from the well.

The Indian Medical Gazette.

Acknowledgments.

J. H. B. ...
 C. ...
 S. ...
 L. ...
 M. ...
 C. ...

Notices to Correspondents.

Dr. FERGUSON,
 A. ...
 S. ...
 Dr. T. D. ...
 J. ...
 S. ...
 W. J. ...
 J. ...
 S. ...
 S. ...
 Dr. ...
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 A. ...

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THE COOPERATION OF THE PROFESSION THROUGHOUT INDIA IS FURNISHING SOLICITED.

"We have seen in the path, not of the ... Among ..."

A TREATISE ON ASIATIC CHOLERA.

C. MACNAMARA,
Surgeon to the Calcutta Ophthalmic Hospital.

Messrs. WYMAN & CO., High Street, Calcutta, will be glad to receive early orders for this work, so as to enable them to procure copies from England, immediately on the receipt of the Book from the Press.

PROFESSOR SYME

Dr. Fergusson has received the following reply to the letter read to our readers of the 1st June, for a communication to the Professor's pupils in India.

To

MY OLD PUPILS IN INDIA.

GENTLEMEN, The remarkable expression of good feeling cherished for so long a period and in such a distant region, which you have had the kindness to send in in the highest degree gratifying to me, and I beg to assure you that the sentiments expressed are fully reciprocated on my part. You will be glad to hear that my health is now nearly quite restored, so that I may perhaps still be able to do something for maintaining the honor of the profession and diffusing sound surgical principles.

With sincere thanks and best wishes,

I remain,
MILLBANK HOUSE, } Very truly yours ever,
Finsbury, 25th June, 1869. } (Sd) JAMES SYME.

DR. JOHN MURRAY ON CHOLERA. *

(Continued.)

The Governor-General in Council has caused the thanks of the Government of India to be conveyed to the author of this treatise on cholera in the following terms:—"I am to request that you will convey to Dr. Murray the thanks of the Government of India for his able paper, and for the zeal with which he has undertaken the collection and analysis of the opinion of the medical profession in India; and devoted his time, attention, ability, and protracted experience to the laborious consideration of a question of such momentous importance to the well-being of all the inhabitants of India, native as well as British. * * * * * The Governor-General in Council does not venture to pronounce on the degree of weight and authority which should be attached to it; but, as a careful analysis by a professional man of Dr. Murray's special experience and long study of the disease, the Governor-General in Council is satisfied that its promulgation cannot fail to stimulate all those whose duties call them to combat cholera to an earnest study of its nature and treatment."

Such are the words the Government of India addresses to its oldest medical servant, now the head of the Bengal Medical Department—a fitting position for a man who, throughout his service, has brought zeal, energy, and talent to bear in every walk of his profession. To him only and solely are we indebted for the present decrease in the mortality of cholera. His theory of moving troops from their barracks when attacked with cholera having proved so successful to him we owe a much more extended knowledge of the propriety of opening abscesses of the liver—a practice first introduced by his uncle, for many years the head of the British Medical Department in Madras—to him Agra owes its medical school, and the introduction of a ventilating apparatus into its jail—still the only room in Bengal where a constant current of fresh air can be maintained; and in his long tenure of the post of Civil Surgeon there, he earned the friendship of many of the neighbouring chiefs, whose sons and descendants to this day keep up communication with him.

* Note the very able review of this work at page 171.—ED., I. M. G.

To end his services with what perhaps we might have commenced. Let us note him as a military officer nearer the commencement of his career.

After the battle of Allwall, on the 30th January, 1846, in which those who were present can well remember the apparently hopeless state of confusion the army was in, he reduced *his* department to order, and earned this notice from Sir Harry Smith in his despatch written in the field:—

"Owing to the judicious arrangements of Dr. Murray, field-surgeon, every wounded officer and soldier was placed under cover and provided for soon after dark; and for the zeal displayed by this able and persevering medical officer, and to the several regimental surgeons, are the wounded and our country deeply indebted."

If ever officer earned a C.B. for service before the enemy, John Murray was the man; but C.B.'s were not then granted to medical officers. His services then and since would now warrant a higher title, and we still hope that Government will not forget to reward its honest servant, and labourer in war and peace, of 36 years' standing, by a more honourable and lasting token than mere thanks.

ENGLISH TRAINING FOR NATIVE DOCTORS.

We do not think Professors of medical colleges and schools are generally amenable to advice from the outside world, but we would like to put forward this subject for their consideration, and our columns would be gladly open for its correction, if the plan is not practicable.

We would suggest to them to institute an English Class for the teaching of native doctors (hospital assistants as they will eventually be called), so that when they pass into the service of Government, they will not only reap advantages themselves in the increased pay for the accomplishment, but they will be much more useful servants to the State, and to their immediate masters.

At Calcutta, the students in the Military Class of the Medical College have advantages that do not exist elsewhere. They can attend an English school in some of their spare hours, and many of them do so; but the greater number either learn English of their own accord before entering the college, or acquire it after passing their examination. The recent substantial advantages for the acquirement of such knowledge will, no doubt, spur the young hands; and in future we expect very few men of this class will pass into the service from Calcutta without having a fair smattering of the language.

At Agra and Lahore it is different. English is not learned there with the ease and cheapness that it is in Calcutta; at these schools particularly, therefore, we should like to see English introduced in the curriculum of the studies, and enforce passing an examination in it, as a part test of their ability and training before entering the service.

At both these schools, which are still under the old system, and pupils have to pass three years in study, young men enter the school fairly educated and with the acquired art of having learnt something. They are obliged to undergo an examination, and to prove that they are able to read Oordoo fluently, and to write it from dictation; also to be well acquainted with the first four rules of arithmetic—Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, Division—before they are admitted into the school at all. To give them all an hour a day, during their school

course, for the study of English, would not be a hard burden on them, and the result would be well worthy of the labor.

The teaching might be done very cheaply. There are well-educated men turned out of the first or English Class at each school, who would gladly become masters in that language, for a small emolument.

In future years more time could be spared for this branch of education, perhaps, than at present. There is every probability of the education at these schools being brought under the new system, which lays down that native medical pupils are called so on passing a preliminary examination; that they are then to be attached for two years to a regimental hospital or civil dispensary; and then they are to attend a college and school for two years, from whence they emerge as hospital assistants, after passing the required examination. Pupils will thus come to the schools in future somewhat trained in the rudiments of their future profession, and would be able to give more time to the acquirement of language and to their improvement in it, should they have been studying it previously.

The advantages of the education to these lads need hardly be dwelt on; but it may be as well to show the material boon Government holds out to them as an inducement to learn.

During their course of four years' education, those who possess a certain knowledge of English receive two rupees a month more than the others, while on entering the service an English scholar draws five rupees higher for his first seven years, ten rupees more for his second, and at fourteen years' service and over, the rate is fifteen rupees more than his less educated or useful compeer.

THE MEDICAL SERVICE AND THE NEW FURLOUGH RULES.*

WE observe, with much regret, that the new Furlough Rules have been again unfavorably modified with reference to the Medical Service.

Only a short time ago, the medical charge of a regiment was ruled to be not an appointment, and therefore not to be retained by a regimental officer proceeding on furlough. We now learn that the Governor-General in Council, having considered the views expressed by the several local governments and administrations, is of opinion that a medical officer in charge of a civil station should, when proceeding on furlough, retain a lien on some similar appointment, *i. e.*, the charge of a civil station or of the same class, or some other civil charge of equal emolument; but that he should not, as a general rule, have any claim to re-appointment to the same station.

One of the great boons of the new Furlough Regulations was the security apparently given to holders of staff appointments and regimental charges. Under the old rules, when a period of six months' absence involved the forfeiture of appointment, men hesitated to take furlough unless compelled to do so by sickness. The holder of the medical charge of a regiment was unwilling to separate himself from his old corps, or to run the risk of finding himself on return to India conformed to remain for weeks or months on unemployed pay. The Civil Surgeon attached to his varied work, his pet hospital, or his opportunities of emolument, would not leave his appointment, knowing that once

* There is on another side to the question, we should like to hear who would be said by a man who did not hold a staff appointment.—*Ed. J. M. G.*

absent. At this point the water is pumped up into reservoirs, where it remains till the muddy particles have subsided; it is then passed through filter beds, and conducted by a 42" cast-iron pipe to Calcutta, where it will be received in reservoirs, and be pumped up from thence under a pressure sufficient to command the top floors of the highest house in the city, passing to every part through iron pipes.

Not only is an efficient water supply thus provided for the dwellings in Calcutta, but the public tanks will be kept filled with clean water, smaller tanks and drinking fountains will be everywhere in use, and street watering will be accomplished by hydrants inserted in the water pipes at distances of 150 yards; the overflow from all of which will assist in flushing the sewers.

One of the most important results of Mr. Clark's engineering will be that Calcutta will have its sub-soil water carried away; and it will then be the only city in India to which "sub-soil drainage" has been applied. It has been stated that, if a hole is dug in any part of the town, it will speedily fill with water drained from the neighbouring soil, and will so remain until the dry season evaporates a large portion of the moisture, and allows another part to soak away, through a sub-soil more or less porous, to the natural drainage of the country.

If the foundations of a house, for instance, be laid in trenches cut in the soil, similar in depth to the hole alluded to, it is evident that during the wet season they will stand in water. Absorption takes place, damp rises to the floors and up the walls, and it becomes an unhealthy habitation; in England this state of things would be obviated by a few pottery tubes laid a little deeper than the foundations, and carried on to drain into some channel with fall enough to receive it. The same will now take place in Calcutta; the sewers will be laid at sufficient depth from the surface for the entire carrying out of the sub-soil drainage of the ground.

We look upon this as quite an era in the history of Calcutta, nay of India; for the experience gained here in a place presenting the greatest difficulties, and yet certainly requiring it most, must have an important bearing on the public health of the country.

For the last few years scientific enquiry has been directed to the investigation of the bearing of sub-soil damp in relation to disease. There are many towns in England—Salisbury for instance—where the mortality has been reduced by 25 to 40 per cent. by attention paid to sub-soil drainage.*

To Calcutta, in the future, it will be a most interesting question. Professor Pettenkoffer, the Professor of Hygiene at Munich, whose theory at present is that the infecting matter of cholera is not a product of the human intestines, but of the soil, formed his opinion from his observations during an epidemic at Munich, by noting that the situation of houses on a porous and undrained soil ensured a greatly increased rapidity and energy in diffusion of the disease. This is quite the question of the day now in England, and in no city could its truth be more effectively demonstrated than in Calcutta, "the hot-bed of the disease."

Professor Pettenkoffer convinced himself by ample evidence

that the penetration of the soil by the discharges of cholera patients was the first essential link in the chain of propagation, and the coincidence of this part of his theory with Snow's affords a strong support to it. The Bararian Professor considers, however, that the further stage is not the defilement of the drinking water, but in the formation of a miasmatic vapour from the decomposing matter, which vapour conveys the poison by inhalation to the lungs of the inhabitants of the houses.

The question of sub-soil drainage, as applied to India, is a very large one; generally speaking, the most unhealthy stations of the army in the Bengal Presidency are those that stand upon a retentive and undrained sub-soil. Enough has been said, however, to show the importance of the subject, and to glance at the relation damp and undrained ground may bear to disease.

The drainage thus having been satisfactorily accomplished, the sewerage has to be considered. It is intended that all the house and street sewage should be carried off by channels of proper size and levels. These will all be so flushed that the much dreaded evolution of sewer gas cannot take place, from there being nothing left in the sewers to generate it. The present works will allow 12 millions of gallons of water, and in addition a $\frac{1}{4}$ inch per hour of rain-fall to be passed daily through the sewers, and there are only about a dozen days in the year when the tide of the Hooghly cannot assist.

The only apparent chance of failure in the whole scheme is deterioration of material. It has been said that the brick work of these sewers will be influenced by the soft, or quick, sand through which they pass, and that they may break their back from not resting on any firm foundation; that the action of the contents of the sewers has in India a very corroding effect; that rats will be very destructive, &c., &c.; but there is no reason to suppose that the practical experience gained in England, under the same conditions, will be at fault here. If anything, the bricks and masonry work is superior to that of England, and the talent is identical; and supposing even the worst that could happen, viz., that a fracture took place, there would be no escape of sewage, because in such localities the sub-soil is always saturated with water, the head of which must be above the sewage head, consequently the stream would be inwards of water, not outwards of sewage.

At present there is no sign of deterioration or failure throughout the whole length of the sewers, and sufficient time has elapsed to test many of the contingencies feared.

The ultimate disposal of the sewage must be glanced at; there are two plans proposed,—1st, by reclamation of part of the area of the Salt Lake, which Dr. Smith urges should be begun at once; 2ndly, by conveying it still further off, and discharging it into tidal creeks, far from the dwellings of man, whence it will be eventually carried out to sea by other and numerous channels, care being taken that the channels should not silt up, and that there could be no sanitary evils inflicted on the neighbouring country.

The Sanitary Commissioner concludes by proposing a scheme for altering the present sewage system of Calcutta.

There is doubtless much in the present system most offensive and hurtful. For instance, the night-soil carts, in passing

* Mr. Clark was consulted on the drainage of this very town by the Engineer employed on the works.

* Arrangements are now in progress to test the level of sub-soil water, daily, for a year, throughout all the stations of the Bengal Presidency.

to the streets cause a most dangerous nuisance; they have no springs to assist the tubs in being raised, and the contents of the tubs in fact, they are so constructed as to cause the greatest possible nuisance and danger to health in their passage to the river.

General Hyatt, R.F., has favored us with a paper on this subject, which we gladly quote from. He remarks, that night-soil can be conveyed through the town without practically creating a nuisance, is evident from European practice, and seeking merely to imitate the practice in Fort William, or in any Barrack square where proper precautions are taken, and the Conservancy Department properly supervised.

Night-soil carts are common in England, and a very little thought and intelligence is required to produce a good effluent.

The night-soil cart for Calcutta. The cart should be of iron, what is called a tumbling cart—i.e., the body is made to turn and can be operated on the axle, so as thoroughly to empty its contents; it should be on springs, that its contents might be distributed as little as possible in transit; its shape should be the form of a cone, the lid should be screwed down, and furnished also with many tight apertures. In fact there is no cause why the present nuisance should continue, except the want of attention on the part of the authorities.

While, however, we should like to see more care taken with the present arrangements for the disposal of the sewage, which, had as they are, are a great improvement to the means employed formerly, yet we would not care to see any expenditure incurred for any radical change. The main scheme, now so nearly completed, is so grand in conception and character, and will be eventually such a credit to the City, that we would rather see all its science, money, and labor put to complete it efficiently, than be turned aside for any temporary project.

CAPTAIN JENNINGS' PUNKAH-PULLING MACHINE.

THE Government of Madras are according its support to this invention, and if it proves successful, they will, indeed, deserve the gratitude of all India. At present, however, the Government sees no reason to think that the difficulties which prevent the successful working of full-sized punkahs, at a suitable velocity, by means of machinery moved by a descending weight, have been overcome by Captain Jennings; but, recognizing considerable merit in the mechanical arrangements proposed by that officer, His Excellency the Governor in Council sanctions an experiment being made at the public works workshop at Chepauk, to test Captain Jennings' invention as applied to a full-sized punkah. We hope in our next number to be able to give a sketch of the invention, and the result of this trial.

LAHORE MEDICAL SCHOOL.

We have recently favored with a copy of the annual report of the institution for the past official year, but want of space prevents our giving more than a passing glance at its contents in this report. In a future issue we hope to deal more fully with the subject. We have watched for some time the working and progress of the Lahore Medical School, and desire now to state that, although there is, doubtless, much to be said in its praise, there is also much to be said in its reprobation, and we therefore publish this report very before us. Dr. Scriven, the principal, de-

scribes the progress of the school as steady, though in the face of considerable difficulties; and he is entitled to considerable praise for the energy which has enabled him to maintain the existence of the institution at all hazards. The Lahore Medical School was established for the purpose of giving to natives of the Punjab a medical education equal to that which can be obtained in Calcutta, Madras, or Bombay; but, with the present educational staff, such a result is impossible. We think also that, by a more judicious distribution of the very liberal amount of money allowed by Government for the support of this institution, the former efficiency of the educational staff need not have suffered, and that the success which is so largely dwelt on in the present report is almost entirely due to the efforts of former years, when the educational staff was in a more efficient state to command it.

Irish Correspondence.

Published, June 12, 1869.

So many Irish names now grace the lists of both the British and the Indian Medical Departments in the Bengal Army List, that I am tempted to send you occasionally a little medical news from the capital of the Green Island, in hopes of its proving of interest to many of your readers. No better opportunity for commencing the practice could be found than the present, when the great event of the year, *quæritur* the Irish College of Surgeons, has just taken place. On Monday last (June 7th), being the day appointed in the charter, the election of office-bearers for the ensuing year took place at the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland. There was a goodly gathering of Fellows from all parts of the country, and the number of votes recorded was 137, which, I believe, considerably above the average of late years. Mr. Rawlinson Macnamara was unanimously elected president, and Messrs. A. J. Walsh and J. Wigham Colles were chosen respectively to fill the posts of vice-president and secretary. Of the existing Council but one was not re-elected, and in addition to the gentleman chosen in his stead, two others were elected to fill the vacancies caused by the lamented death of Dr. T. Mackesy, and the resignation of Dr. S. G. Wilnot. The three new names thus added to the Council are those of Messrs. George H. Porter (ex-president), Edward Hamilton, and Edward J. Quinn.

Advantage was, as usual, taken of the great influx of country practitioners on this day to hold the annual meetings of the Royal Medical Benevolent Fund Society of Ireland, and of the Irish Medical Association. The accounts of the former excellent society shew a sum of £43,250 in the funds, the interest of which is applied to the relief of distressed medical men and their families. In addition to numerous branches throughout Ireland, this society possesses a flourishing tributary in the Bombay Presidency, and the formation of another is contemplated in Madras. Why should Bengal, the largest, and, in some respects, the richest of the three presidencies, be the last to take so reasonable a step? One of the speakers, at the meeting on Monday, suggested that there would be few better ways of doing honour to any deceased member of the medical profession in Ireland than by contributions to the Medical Benevolent Fund. I should say that, among the many ornaments of our profession of whom Bengal can boast, there is not one who would not prefer having his name associated with a branch of the Medical Benevolent Fund Society, to any of the more usual ways of perpetuating his memory. The clergy of the diocese of Calcutta, who have their Bishop Wilson's Memorial Fund, set a good example to us in this respect. Last any of your readers should come to themselves with the notion that the interest of £43,250 must be more than enough to satisfy all the claims on the bounty of the fund, I may state that one of the managers declared on Monday that the assigning of relief to applicants was one of the most painful duties which devolved upon him, so entirely insufficient were the resources of the fund to meet the demands upon it.

At the annual meeting of the Irish Medical Association, which was held in the "Admiral Hall" of the College of Surgeons, at an earlier period of the day, Dr. James Maclean of Portlaw and Company, Waterford, was installed as president, and the

Council and vice-presidents for the ensuing year appointed. The report of the Council was adopted, and resolutions were carried in favour of an increase of salary and a superannuation allowance for medical officers of dispensaries. Dr. Morrrough of the Madras Army proposed, and Dr Nugent seconded, the following resolution, which was carried unanimously:—"That we most respectfully press on the authorities the propriety of adopting in the Queen's service the same rule of promotion after 12 years' service as has been adopted in the Indian Medical Service." The members of the association dined the same evening at the exhibition building. Dr. Martin, the president of the association, being unavoidably absent, the chair was occupied by his predecessor in that office, Dr. Rawdon Macnamara. A very agreeable evening was spent by all present.

An unfortunate case of poisoning by cyanide of potassium occurred here on the 5th. The subject of it, a gentleman well known in Dublin, and brother of a distinguished medical practitioner recently dead, took a dose of a mixture supposed to contain carbonate of ammonia, complained of a choking sensation in the throat, and died in twenty minutes. At the inquest it was ascertained that the store-keeper of a very respectable firm, at whose shop the mixture was compounded, had filled a bottle labelled "carbonate of ammonia" which was used on this occasion by the dispenser, with cyanide of potassium.

A good deal of excitement has been caused in medical circles here by the discussion as to the effects of lying-in hospitals, on the production of puerperal fever, which has been going on for the last two months at the Dublin Obstetrical Society.

At the meeting of this society, on the 13th March, Dr. Every Kennedy began to read an elaborate paper on this subject, which occupied the entire of that meeting, and of the following one on the 10th April. His views were contained in the following 13 propositions:—(1) Puerperal metria is due to absorption of poison by the parturient female (2) Any parturient female may generate this poison, which may, under favourable circumstances, be absorbed by the generator, or by any other parturient woman. (3) The generation and absorption of this poison are in direct proportion to the number of women lying in together, or breathing the same atmosphere while lying in. (4) This disease finds its *habitus* in lying-in hospitals, in which it appears and re-appears at uncertain intervals. (5) Its appearance in lying-in hospitals is often traceable to the occurrence of other zymotic diseases, or to a bad state of the hospital, in which, for some time before it breaks out, the labours are succeeded by bad recoveries. (6) It is contagious, following the steps of certain practitioners, and not those of others in the same locality. (7) It is epidemic, confined to certain localities. (8) It is confined not only to certain hospitals, but to certain wards of those hospitals. On the other hand, (9) zymotic metria is comparatively rare among women delivered in their own houses; or, (10) in small hospitals or cottages containing only one or two beds. (11) Hence the conclusion that large lying-in hospitals cause numerous deaths from metria, which would not occur were parturient women treated separately. (12) But the advantages, without the dangers of large hospitals, might be secured by groups of detached cottages, each containing not more than two beds. (13) The mortality among lying in women would be greatly reduced by an alteration in the construction of our lying-in hospitals. Dr. Kennedy supported these propositions by a formidable array of figures, derived from the returns of the Rotunda and Coombe Hospitals of Dublin, and other lying-in hospitals in Great Britain and on the Continent, and contrasted the death-rate of these with that of the "cottage hospitals" for parturient women at Linneith, Waterford, and New Ross. He recommended that the Rotunda Hospital should be closed to parturient cases, and devoted altogether to the treatment of diseases of women; and that round the garden (Rutland Square) to the north of it a number of separate pavilions should be erected, each to contain only two beds, for the reception of lying-in women.

In a city which boasts of the oldest and finest lying-in hospital in the three kingdoms, and where extensive additions are being made to a second hospital of the kind (that in the Coombe), these revolutionary doctrines, coming from an ex-master of the former institution, and one of the leading obstetricians of the day, attracted general attention; the more so, if followed on, they apply equally to all large hospitals. The discussion of Dr. Kennedy's paper was adjourned till the next meeting of the society, on the 8th May, and has been continued every Saturday night since. I believe, that the debate is now concluded, except for Dr. Kennedy's reply for defence, as one night almost all that was to be read hereafter. A vet all

the speakers, with one exception, have been on the conservative side, but what the general verdict of the society will be remains to be seen. Dr. Churchill, Dr. Beatty, and especially Dr. McClintock, advocated the cause of large hospitals most ably; on the other hand, many of the speakers damaged the cause which they meant to serve by the feeble arguments which they used (such as that metria must be more common among women delivered in the squalid parlours of Dublin, than among the patients in the magnificent well-ventilated wards of the Rotunda, a complete *petitio principii*), or by adopting a jocular (not to say scurrilous) tone towards Dr. Kennedy. Both parties, it seemed to me, were too fond of bringing up statistics as infallible arguments on their own side, and at the same time meeting those quoted on the opposite side with the old assertion that "figures can be made to prove anything one pleases." The conservatives as yet have the best of it in point of numbers, as is always the case when reforms or revolutions are first mooted; but it is certainly remarkable that the leaders of the anti-hospital movement should be two men of such high repute and such well-secured eminence in their profession as Sir James Simpson and Every Kennedy.

On the 3rd, a full-length statue of Sir Dominic J. Corrigan, in his robes as president, was unveiled in the new hall of the College of Physicians. This hall, with its portraits of the various presidents, the marble statues of Marsh and Corrigan, and the stained glass window presented by the latter during his period of presidentship, is now one of the handsomest in Dublin, and is worthy of the ancient corporation who have erected it. At the meeting of the Medical Society, held in this hall on the evening of the 19th May, Mr. Tufnell read an interesting case of death from gibbus inflammation, and typhoid pneumonia, following the rupture of a guinea-worm, the broken end of which had retracted within the tissues. The patient was a gentleman who had recently returned from India. Mr. Tufnell, on this occasion, referred to the plan described in the *Indian Medical Gazette* for January, 1868, of hastening the extrusion of the worm by the application of carbolic acid, and exhibited a worm which had been removed in this way in *two hours*, and which he had received from a medical officer on Sur-lough from India. As this plan is not perhaps as generally known as it deserves, he took the opportunity of calling attention to it, and read at length the case detailed by J. N. at page 7 of your third volume.

I have just heard that the meeting of the Obstetrical Society fixed for this evening, at which Dr. Every Kennedy was to have replied to his opponents, has been postponed, so I will detain this no longer.

GOLANDAZ.

R e v i e w,

Report on the treatment of Epidemic Cholera. By DR. JOHN MURRAY, Inspector-General of Hospitals, Bengal Medical Department.

In order that we may dislodge an enemy it will hardly suffice simply to take a general survey of his position, but it is necessary to attack every point that he occupies. A single battle crowned with victory may weaken him, and expose his entrenchments, but to secure permanent success and complete conquest, every advantage must be followed up, until no doubt as to his issue remains. It is upon principles such as these that the author of the report now before us has, for many years past, been doing battle with one of man's most deadly enemies—Asiatic Cholera. Dr. John Murray is not one of those individuals who are content simply to examine into the circumstances of this horrible disease, and then stand paralysed and aghost at its magnitude and malignancy; on the other hand, since 1831, when he first encountered cholera in Paris, he has made constant endeavours to attack the most assailable points of this destroyer of men, and his endeavours have been crowned with no small success. Dr. Murray, early in his career, seems to have realized the fact that in cholera he had no phantom to contend with, but that whatever the active principle of the disease consisted in, it was something real and tangible,—no earth or heaven born influence which man could only hope to study in its deadly effects on his fellow-creatures; he believed that, like small-pox and other similar diseases, the cholera-producing matter was, without doubt, something that could be transmitted, and is therefore communicable from man to man, or, as he remarks, it "spreads and multiplies." It is reproduced, but whether vegetable or animal in

uncertain." Dr. Murray applied these principles with benefit to the circumstances of the prisoners in the Agra Jail in 1856, and although his views at that time were considered by many hygienical, and, if not unorthodox, certainly contrary to the opinions held by most authorities in this country, he nevertheless adhered to his views, and, in some discouragement and opposition, has seen them at last admitted as true by almost all the members of the Indian Medical Service. This change of opinion is doubtless very much due to the decision arrived at by the International Sanitary Conference of Constantinople held in 1856, and to the influence of Mr. Simon, Dr. Farr, and other English authorities, but this fact does not, in our opinion, detract from the merit due to Dr. Murray of having advanced ideas on these matters some fifteen years ago, which are now, because indubitably true, admitted by most of the medical officers practising in this country. We shall look forward with no small interest to the opinion taken by Dr. Murray as Inspector-General of the Indian Medical Service in this presidency, with regard to preventive treatment of the disease in its endemic area. The Constantinople Conference, and more lately the Registrar-General of England, have stated their belief that the matter may safely be left in the hands of the Indian Government; but we fail to notice as yet the slightest evidence of any response to this call on the part of our rulers.

The nature of the active principle of cholera, or even its mode of action on the human body, are but briefly referred to by Dr. Murray; he evidently inclines to the theory which attributes the symptoms of cholera to the effect of the poison on the sympathetic system, inducing diminished action or total paralysis of these nerves according to the intensity of the poison. This seems to us rather a dangerous doctrine to inculcate, because we know so little as yet of the action of the sympathetic system in health, that we can hardly, with safety, speculate on the effects of the loss of its influence in disease. And yet the matter is of great practical importance, as we cannot hope to arrive at correct ideas as to the treatment of cholera until we can comprehend its pathology.

Admitting the existence of a poison as the cause of cholera, there are two theories at present which divide men's minds as to its *modus operandi*: the one party, led by Dr. Johnson, and having no able advocate in this country in Dr. Cannon of London, hold that the cholera matter entering the blood acts as an irritant poison, affecting the nerves, and through them the coats of the smaller arteries of the lungs, obstructing the circulation of fluid through these organs, and thus the blood receives less oxygen than in health; this deficiency of oxygen in the circulating fluids leading to the symptoms of the algid stage of cholera. The other party maintain that in consequence of the algine flux the body loses its serum, the corpuscles, their water of composition, and becoming dehydrated they can no longer fulfil their office as carriers of oxygen; the *vis atrata* of the equillates is destroyed, and hence algid symptoms are induced. These theories differ essentially as to the remote cause of collapse of cholera, but they merge very closely towards one another, and probably to the truth, in that they recognise the want of oxygen in the circulating fluids as the chief factor in the production of the collapse of cholera. We will not attempt to determine which of these theories is correct, but we may confidently state that a number of the leading men in Europe dissent to the proposition of any blood poisoning at all in cholera. They believe the action of the poison or principle of cholera is limited to the destruction of the epithelium of the intestinal canal, giving rise to the algine flux or drain of serum from the blood, which, in its turn, induces the consequences above noticed. Dr. Murray, however, avows all symptoms of this kind, and expressly affirms that "the object of the investigation is to discover what facilitates its dissemination, the germ of cholera, and increases its reproductive power, and what practical means have proved useful to relieve the human body of a poison or resist the action of the poison, and thereby its injurious effects."

In addressing himself to the question of this most important problem Dr. Murray considers his subject under three headings: 1st, the ordinary; 2nd, the precautionary measures; and lastly, the treatment of the disease.

With regard to ordinary conditions he very justly remarks that, however bad these may be, they cannot induce cholera, *per se*; the germ of the disease must be *imported* into a healthy human system, and he maintains that among its inhabitants. There is no such thing as self-generated Asiatic cholera. But when once the germ has been imported into a locality, it will prevail among the individuals in proportion to defects in

the purity of the air they breathe, the water they consume, and the food they eat; "bad coarseness and all sanitary defects, which act essentially on the general health, predispose to the action of the cholera poison." "The human body appears to be the chief medium of reproduction or multiplication and dissemination of the poison."

Our author thinks there can be no reasonable doubt as to the power which drinking water exercises in the extension of the disease. It also spreads in or near drains or sewers. "Contact with the excretions from cholera patients or with articles of clothing" may induce an attack of cholera. The poison may also, Dr. Murray thinks, be inhaled into the lungs, and so enter the blood; this is particularly the case in ill-ventilated rooms occupied by cholera patients. He says the period of the incubation of cholera "in general is an interval of 12 or 24 hours after imbibing the poison, before active symptoms appear. Two days are not generally exceeded; but it is sometimes four days before the disease shows active signs." This is a most important axiom; and coming from a man of Dr. Murray's shrewdness and long experience it is of peculiar value, bearing as it does directly upon the circumstances of quarantine in relation to cholera.

We entirely concur with the other remarks above quoted from this report, but wish that Dr. Murray had become more definite with regard to the matter of contact. Does he or does he not consider that the act of touching moist or dry cholera excretions may induce an attack of cholera? From the text we are left in doubt on this matter, and hope that in any republication of this report, Dr. Murray will explain his views more fully on this point.

With regard to the preventive treatment of cholera, our author bases all such measures, distinctly and clearly, on the fact that the disease depends on a specific germ, and therefore our main endeavours must be directed towards "destroying, isolating, or excluding the generating source" of the disease; consequently he advocates quarantine regulated by the circumstances of the case, and still more by the dictates of common sense. He insists strongly on the necessity for having special hospitals for cholera patients, thereby confirming the opinion formed on this subject by the Epidemiological Society; Sir T. Watson and other distinguished men protesting like Dr. Murray against the admission of cholera patients into our General Hospitals. He justly observes that "perfect isolation of the sick is impossible; but that should indicate the course to be followed."

Our author has naturally, from the opinions he holds on the communicability of cholera, been a strong advocate for the removal of infected troops from cantonments into cholera camps, and, from the valuable tables appended to his report, we learn that "the admissions in 29 stations attacked in the three epidemics of 1856-60-61 amounted to 127 1/2 per mille, while in the three epidemics of 1862-63-67, in 31 stations it only amounted to 47 3/4 per mille." Dr. Murray attributes this vast improvement in the health of the troops with regard to cholera mainly to the fact of the men having, during the latter period, been instantly removed into cholera camps, when the disease has appeared among them. The rules laid down by Dr. Murray for the removal of troops under these circumstances were, like all the other suggestions contained in this report, concise, eminently practical, and decisive; there is no uncertainty in the measures he advocates, they are founded on a clear conviction of the nature of the disease; he writes of it like a man who has grasped and realized his subject; he discusses facts and conclusions formed in the best of all schools, that of experience.

With regard to the treatment of cholera, Dr. Murray divides the disease into four stages. In the first, diarrhoea, he gives a very decided opinion against the use of purgatives; but speaks as strongly in favor of opiate together with wine in moderation, and nourishing diet with little change from routine.

In the second stage of the disease, choleraic diarrhoea or choline (as the latter Dr. Murray insists on very strongly as cholera to all intents), and extending the disease over the country quite as much as cholera, he still advises opium to be given, the patient's pulse being distinctly felt, but the stools frequent, the countenance or features appearance peculiar to Asiatic cholera, in this condition opium "is of the utmost value in checking in the action to the bowels," "there is danger of its being continued into the following stage, however, when it would be most injurious" and hence cannot well be used except by professional men.

In the third stage, or that of collapse, Dr. Murray recommends water to be given in moderation, but like most other authors on the subject, he considers that little can be done in the collapse of cholera; in fact "powerful remedies are recommended, but in the collapse of cholera they are powerless, but may accumulate in the system to a fatal extent." Opium is always harmful, and, in most instances, stimulants also; "calomel, the old idol of Indian Doctors, is inert." He does not advocate the use of acids nor astringents, but speaks favourably of quinine as a prophylactic.

In the fourth stage of the disease, that of reaction, "careful nursing is of vital importance," and the various complications that may arise must be treated upon principles generally applicable to similar forms of disease arising under other circumstances.

Want of space prevents our following Dr. Murray through the second part of his appendix, which consist in an analysis of the answers received from a number of Medical Officers in various parts of India on the subject of cholera. We are by no means sure that data of this kind are of much value; it seems to us it is not the amount of evidence collected which is of importance, for when we find questions answered by a considerable number of medical men—questions which persons like Mr. Simon and Dr. Farr or Pacini would hesitate to give an opinion on; we rather doubt if the information thus obtained can be turned to any practical advantage. For our part, we prefer the individual opinions of a man like Dr. Murray, who, we know, has made the subject his special study for 30 years; and we have no hesitation in saying this report of his is a most valuable addition to the literature of cholera. We recommend it with confidence to the study and careful consideration of medical men in India and other parts of the world; and most sincerely trust the author may be spared to initiate fresh measures, and place those he has for so many years striven to establish, upon a firm basis, and thus realize the hopes we are convinced are so near his heart—the relief from intense suffering and untimely death of many of his fellow-creatures.

A Dictionary of Materia Medica and Therapeutics. By Dr. A. WAHLBACH, M.D., &c., &c. Churchill and Sons, London, 1868.

This is a very handy book, and one which must have cost infinite trouble in its preparation. It contains the Latin, English, Italian, German, and Russian synonyms; and, under the column headed "Physiological Effects and Therapeutics," there is a brief resume of the modes in which the remedy is supposed to act, and the diseases to which it is applicable. Under the head of "Prescriptions" the chief formulae of distinguished physicians and surgeons are arranged, into the composition of which the article enters.—*The Lancet.*

Asculation of the Heart. By T. CHURCHILL, M.B., London: Churchill and Sons.

This little compilation is calculated to be of great use to beginners, who have not unfrequently considerable difficulty in mastering the subject of valvular disease. Mr. Churchill arranges his materials in two columns—one dealing with the systole, the other with the diastole of the ventricles. The mitral valve, in health and disease, is first considered; then the causes of its normal and abnormal sounds are discussed, as are the characters of the pulse. The aortic valve is considered in the same way, in health and in disease, both during the systole and the diastole. The causes of the abnormal sounds and the nature of the pulse are all taken in order.—*Medical Times and Gazette.*

Official Selections.

REPORT ON THE JAILS, &c., OF EASTERN BENGAL, BY OFFG. DEPUTY INSPECTOR-GENERAL OF HOSPITALS, H. B. BUCKLE, C.B.

THE Dacca circle of medical inspection includes a large portion of Eastern Bengal, the Cossial Hills (Shillong), the valley of Bradmapootra from Gawalparah upwards, and Assam as high as Debrooghar. The jails naturally follow this arrangement. Those in Eastern Bengal, namely, Dacca, Mymensing, Furrcepore, Barisal (Backergunge), Soakhally, Tipperah

(Comillah), Chittagong, those in Sylhet and Ca-char; at Shillong; and those in Assam, as Gawalparah, Gowlatty, Nowgong, Tezpoore, Seclabaugor, and Debrooghar.

To a great extent the jails in Eastern Bengal are placed more or less under similar influences with regard to climate and the sanitary state of the districts. The Dacca division comprises the districts of Dacca, Mymensing, Furrcepore, Backergunge, Sylhet, and Ca-char; this in its whole extent is a low alluvial tract, intersected in every direction by rivers, subject to excessive rainfall and periodical inundations; the climate damp and moist; vegetation luxuriant; added to which the habits of the people intensify the causes of disease. The healthiest localities are on the banks of the rivers, the ground there being higher, while in the interior, between the rivers from the ground gradually sloping away from the higher banks, there are large jheels communicating by khals or inland creeks with the different rivers during the rainy season when they are full; but as these subside, and the waters dry up, they are converted into stagnant jheels and marshes—a prolific source of malarious disease.

The habits of the people in digging holes for earth to make mounds on which to raise their huts sufficiently high above the inundation, surrounding the villages with a hedge of bamboos, planting fruit and other trees, then allowing the undergrowth to grow to such a degree that the village is lost and buried in a jungle, while the holes from which the earth was excavated fill (with stagnant water, half putrid with rotten vegetation, now normally become a tank, is used indiscriminately for drinking water and as a cesspool,—all add to the wide-spread unhealthiness of the districts.

The medical history of such a locality is simply to detain periodical visitations of disease—cholera and fever.

Dr. James Taylor, in his sketch of the Topography and Statistics of Dacca, published in 1839, mentions a "malignant distemper," the nature of which is not described, as having in the year 1781 carried off a large number of the inhabitants of Calcutta; and in September of that year, the Magistrate of Sylhet writes—"it was now raising with the greatest fury in Sylhet;" in the year 1797 the Collector alludes to the sickness and mortality in a Pergumnah of Backergunge, and states that in one house, 17 deaths occurred in 11 days. Dr. Taylor mentions that, in 1817, epidemic cholera appeared in the Pergumnah of Sonorgong, Dacca, and that up to the period of his writing in 1839, it had appeared at uncertain intervals. "Between 1828 and 1837 only 28 cases were treated in a regiment of Native Infantry and a detachment of 30 Artillerymen; in 1825, 127 persons died from it in the city of Dacca."

Dr. Wise, the civil surgeon of Dacca, states in his report on cholera, that between 1830 and 1835 the mortality at the native hospital at Dacca was 48 per cent.; "taking the decade from 1810 to 1819, it appears that cholera was most prevalent during 1812 and 1815, but in all the other years it broke out with more or less severity."

During the next ten years the outbreak in 1855 is noted as particularly severe; "since 1845 no such sickly season had occurred;" 1857 is spoken of as a healthy year. The other years, the normal state is recorded, cholera always present with occasional outbreaks.

The history of cholera outbreaks since 1860 up to the present date is fairly complete; it is that of an annual occurrence of one or more outbreaks, the disease being always present; the years 1865 and 1867 exceptional, the disease not raging with the usual virulence; this was especially the case in 1867.

Dr. Wise, in his report to the Sanitary Commissioner of Bengal, dated April, 1868, states, "during 1867 several villages in different parts of the district were reported in which fever of a deadly type was prevalent. The fever prevalent was intermittent, but a low remittent was also met with among the adults. In several cases large quantities of blood were passed by vomiting or by stool."

The villages visited were found in the condition already described; "the houses buried in dense jungle, and each one had close to it a hole filled with stagnant water," rank vegetation, malarious exhalations, decaying animal and vegetable matter, fermenting excreta, and the drinking water if not on the banks of a river from the same stagnant hole; even if from the river that was also contaminated with decaying matters; "the villagers were very sickly, the majority being anemic with a tendency to dropsy."

These sojourners were not exceptionally unhealthy, every year more villages are reported as being smitten with an epidemic fever which sweeps off a large proportion of the inhabitants.

It is only within the last 15 years that these severe outbreaks of fever have been heard of in Coimbatore and small parts of the country at intervals of years, and carried off thousands; but the health of the population at large was better than it is now.

Through out the district there are 7 houses of old tanks, 5 now filled in the midst of jungle, and the traces of former cultivation in what are now barren tracts all indicate the existence of a population which has disappeared.

Samargong, once the seat of Government and capital of Eastern Bengal, is now half a jungle, and the thousands who lived there are represented by a few Mohammedans living in poverty and wretched by constant fever. Bardhaman and Bickrampore were formerly the residences of Hindu Rauls, and of a flourishing population; these too have disappeared; the inhabitants are sickly, the children are almost all subject to spleen, cholera and cholera are yearly visitors.

From this hurried and superficial sketch of the medical geography of Eastern Bengal, it is obvious how seriously the health, both of the individuals and of the soil population, is affected.

Every influence usually considered to engender endemic disease is present; the diseases, cholera and fever such as would occur, are anticipated under the circumstances; this all tends to support the opinion expressed by the members of the Cholera Conference, that Eastern Bengal is the birth-place of cholera. It is this, or, if there are grounds to justify this belief only in a modified degree, the sanitary state of Eastern Bengal becomes a very serious question, and likely to affect the future salubrity of Calcutta. The exports to Calcutta, and the facilities and rapidity of communication are daily increasing at the different depots and railway termini, large towns will spring up; the sanitary state of these towns more directly in communication with Calcutta should be carefully attended to, is most important. It would be better, instead of leaving this to the discretion of local communities, that a general system should, after due enquiry, be adopted, both with reference to draining fever districts, if such be possible, and also as regards the cleanliness and conservative of towns and villages.

To give an average idea of the state of sickness in the Delta, a return (No. 1) is appended to this report, showing the mortality in cholera, fever, and spleen for nine months. The return is deficient in not giving the months of January, February, and March; in these months the deaths from cholera would probably have been numerous. The return is copied from the monthly reports forwarded to the Commissioner.

Table Statistics of the Jail at the Barrack Circle for the year 1868.—The average number of prisoners or men in population in the jail was 3,567,935, the total number treated 5,303, which gives a rate of sick to strength of 14.11 per cent; deaths 174, being at the rate of 3.19 per cent, to the numbers treated, and of 4.77 per cent, to the average strength of prisoners in jail. The average daily sick 122.93.

Zymotic diseases have been the chief causes of the sickness and mortality, and more so in instances described above, being generally 1 in 10 about the districts than in the sanitary state of the jail themselves; in fact, the prisoners in jail die more by sickness and as regards health than the population at large.

The deaths amounted to 174, giving a daily average on mean population of 3,567,935, which gives a rate of 1.47 per cent, or 14.70 per 1,000.

| The cause of deaths were from— | |
|--------------------------------|-----|
| Zymotic diseases | 116 |
| Constitutional diseases | 25 |
| Fatal | 25 |
| Development of disease | 6 |
| From violence | 1 |
| From unknown causes | 1 |
| Total | 174 |

Sixty deaths from prisoners are recorded in the ages of 10 to 15 years, and it is to be noted that tubercular disease is by no means so common in the younger.

In the monthly reports of the Medical Officers, Sanitary Reports, the following statement has been made in any jail

are reported as the influence on the prisoner's health, exercised by the diet and the clothing, and any remarks as to the salubrity of the jail being noted. The conclusion is that the supervision of the jails has been carefully conducted, and the material benefit of the prisoners sedulously promoted.

Remarks.—The number of vaccinations during the past year are 9,639, of which 7,089 are reported as successful; this is a less number of vaccinations by 324 than in 1867. In many parts of the circle, the practice against vaccination is very strong, especially in Cuttack, G. Sylhet, Cachar, Sibsagar, and most of the stations in Assam; and it is only in the neighbourhood of the larger stations, and where medical officers have resorted themselves, that it has made any progress.

As there has been no opportunity of a quantitative inspection, practically with these jails, the remarks in this report are of a general character, gathered from the perusal of the several Monthly Officers' Sanitary Reports, and the other returns in this office, detailing the general history and statistics, both medical and otherwise, of the different districts.

RETURN No. 1.

Deaths from Cholera in the Delta Division, from 1st April to 31st December, 1868.

| District | April | May | June | July | Aug. | Sept. | Oct. | Nov. | Dec. | Total |
|-------------|-------|-----|------|------|------|-------|------|------|------|-------|
| Barak | 56 | 28 | 48 | 27 | 39 | 25 | 76 | 39 | 46 | 476 |
| Mymensingh | 227 | 20 | 22 | 47 | 1 | 28 | 41 | 36 | 6 | 1,153 |
| Burghoosah | 47 | 30 | 28 | 47 | 3 | 46 | 22 | 35 | 105 | 288 |
| Buckong | 616 | 241 | 401 | 48 | 13 | 28 | 22 | 67 | 314 | 3,753 |
| Sylhet | 153 | 36 | 22 | 18 | 13 | 27 | 50 | 52 | 125 | 1,022 |
| Cachar | 8 | 3 | 1 | 14 | 22 | 4 | 4 | 10 | 69 | 135 |
| Grand Total | | | | | | | | | | 8,474 |

Deaths from Fever.

| District | April | May | June | July | Aug. | Sept. | Oct. | Nov. | Dec. | Total |
|-------------|-------|-----|------|------|------|-------|------|------|------|-------|
| Barak | 69 | 2 | 33 | 35 | 30 | 25 | 26 | 36 | 42 | 374 |
| Mymensingh | 155 | 17 | 113 | 108 | 61 | 93 | 29 | 49 | 13 | 904 |
| Burghoosah | 121 | 14 | 114 | 82 | 97 | 84 | 141 | 572 | 994 | 2,213 |
| Buckong | 61 | 24 | 62 | 29 | 13 | 28 | 22 | 61 | 51 | 1,035 |
| Sylhet | 110 | 3 | 2 | 38 | 11 | 27 | 29 | 32 | 105 | 1,029 |
| Cachar | 3 | 1 | 1 | 14 | 22 | 4 | 4 | 10 | 69 | 135 |
| Grand Total | | | | | | | | | | 8,674 |

Deaths from Diseased Spleen.

| District | April | May | June | July | Aug. | Sept. | Oct. | Nov. | Dec. | Total |
|-------------|-------|-----|------|------|------|-------|------|------|------|-------|
| Barak | 17 | 22 | 26 | 29 | 38 | 57 | 73 | 36 | 65 | 347 |
| Mymensingh | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 10 |
| Burghoosah | 3 | 1 | 27 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 26 | 0 | 1 | 158 |
| Buckong | 3 | 4 | 11 | 20 | 22 | 14 | 0 | 29 | 9 | 118 |
| Sylhet | 1 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 24 |
| Cachar | | | | | | | | | | 0 |
| Grand Total | | | | | | | | | | 628 |

H. B. BECKER.

Local Correspondence.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE.

SIR,—It is now more than a year past since G. O. No. 450, of the 16th June, 1868, was issued, but nothing has yet been decided when we are to get the increased rate of pay sanctioned thereon. On enquiry from my Deputy Inspector-General, I find that I am not to be paid Hospital Assistant or get any advantage of the new G. O. for another year. It is very hard upon me, Sir, that upon the strength of that Order No. 457, we draw increased rate of pay for two or three months with retrospective effect from the 27th May, but owing to our non-attendance the amount has been deducted from our pay of subsequent months, thereby not only increasing our difficulties, but making us very poor men. One poor old man, Sir, draw the increased pay, and I have been invalided, and they want to trench him and make him pay back what he received out of his present to be a month. There are many sufferers in various circum-

stances, but if Government would promise us the arrears of pay they would all be happy. You can easily imagine, Sir, that the bare pay of our grade, which we now get on the old scale, is inadequate to meet with the common necessities to support ourselves and families, and as the medical subordinates whose pay and positions are also settled by the same Order are enjoying the benefits with effect from the 27th May, 1868, we poor Native Doctors, cannot understand why our case has not been decided.

I hope, Sir, you will be so kind as to urge on Government to settle the question on an early date, and relieve us from the anxiety of mind and distress as well as pecuniary embarrassment which we are now suffering.

I remain, your humble servant,
MILITARY NATIVE DOCTOR.

Extracts.

IODIDE OF POTASSIUM IN SYPHILIS.—To obtain the wished-for effect of this medicine in syphilis, its use should be limited to a certain class of symptoms, which modern Syphiliographers have termed "tertiary," such as nocturnal pains in the head and the shafts of the long bones in the extremities; nodes; affections of the bones and cartilages generally; tubercles; gummy tumors; and transition states, by which I mean foul, sloughy, and rapidly-spreading ulcers, which succeed to the softening of tumors, of gummatia, or the rupture of pustules, &c.

In the primary form of syphilis, whether in the soft or hard sores, the iodide is utterly useless as a controlling or curative agent; and in the secondary forms its effects are most uncertain; but, in the tertiary, it frequently works excellent cures. To accomplish this, however, it must be administered in proper quantities, for we frequently see it powerless in a small dose, whilst it is most efficacious in a larger. The iodide of potassium appears to exert two separate therapeutical influences in cases of syphilis. In the first it acts as a general tonic in subjects broken down and weakened by long continual disease. Combined with quinine or bark, and given in small doses for long periods, it restores the appetite and recruits the strength. In such cases the dose may range from five to fifteen grains a day. In the second form, given in large doses (thirty to sixty grains a day) it acts as a direct antiseptic upon one or more symptoms of syphilis then present in the system. In fact iodide of potassium, although frequently failing to benefit certain tertiary local manifestations of syphilis in small doses, is very frequently curative of the same symptoms when the dose is largely increased.—*Mr. Langston Parker, in British Medical Journal.*

SULPHITE OF SODA AND SULPHITE OF AMMONIA IN INTERMITTENT FEVER.—Dr. W. J. Chandler (Medical Record) reports twenty cases of intermittent fever thus treated in the service of Dr. Austin Flint, at the Bellevue Hospital. He draws the following conclusions:—

1. That in a few cases the paroxysms of intermittent fever are relieved, and possibly arrested by the remedies.
2. That in the large majority of cases these remedies fail entirely to arrest the paroxysm, or to lessen either their severity or frequency.
3. That these remedies require to be given in large doses for a length of time to effect any appreciable improvement.
4. That when given in doses sufficient to modify or arrest the paroxysms, they produce considerable irritation of the stomach and intestinal canal.
5. That as remedies for intermittent fever, they are in every respect vastly inferior to quinine.—*American Journal of the Medical Science, April, 1869.*

GLYCOGENIC FUNCTION OF THE LIVER.—Dr. Austin Flint reports (N. Y. Med. Journal) some experiments and allusion by him for the purpose of reconciling the discordant opinions maintained by C. Bernard and Dr. Pay in regard to the glycogenic functions of the liver. His remarks:—"Although these experiments are not entirely new, my interpretation on their services to harmonize in my own mind, at least, the results obtained by Bernard and Pay."

"1. A substance exists in the healthy liver, which is capable of being converted into sugar, and inasmuch as this is formed into sugar during life, the sugar being washed away by the

blood passing through the liver, it is perfectly proper to call it glycogenic, or sugar-forming matter."

"2. The liver has a glycogenic function, which consists in the constant formation of sugar out of the glycogenic matter, this sugar being carried away by the blood of the hepatic veins, which always contain a certain proportion of sugar, and subserving some purpose in the economy connected with nutrition, as yet imperfectly understood. This production of sugar takes place in the carnivora, as well as in these animals that take sugar and starch as food; and is essentially independent of the kind of food taken.

"3. During life the liver contains only glycogenic matter, and no sugar, because the great mass of blood which is constantly passing through the organ washes out the sugar as fast as it is formed; but after death, or when circulation is interfered with, the transformations of glycogenic matter into sugar goes on, the sugar is not removed under these conditions, and can then be detected in the substance of the liver."—*Ibid.*

W. C. KRYLOW, ON FATTY DEGENERATION OF THE HEART.—From his observations under the direction of Dr. Roussier of St. Petersburg, the author concludes:—

1. That fatty degeneration of the heart is now confined to people advanced in life, but occurs more readily in them than in younger people.
2. That the typhoid process, especially when accompanied by other severe diseases, induce it.
3. That it is frequently caused by long-standing diseases of bone, suppurations, phthisis pulmonalis, and emphysema.
4. Chronic alcohol poisoning seems to induce the extreme degeneration.—*Virchow's Archiv, in Edinburgh Medical Journal.*

ERGOTINE AS A PROPHYLACTIC AGAINST PUULENT INFECTION AFTER AMPUTATION.—M. Labat publishes an interesting paper with the above title in the Gazette des Hôpitaux. When the first began to use the remedy, M. Labat gave it only after the symptoms of poisoning of the system had appeared, and used to lose patients; now he gives it from the first to the fifteenth day, and he cures them. Under the influence of ergotine, the inflammatory swelling is almost absent, and the suppurations much diminished. There may be sleeplessness and also delay in the later stages of cicatrization. The dose of the medicine is 32 grains daily. His last series of amputations is a remarkable one—twenty major amputations, and twenty recoveries.—*Edinburgh Medical Journal.*

CASE ILLUSTRATING THE USE OF GALVANISM IN SEVERE POST-PARTUM HÆMORRHAGE, BY DR. PATON, BURTON-ON-TRENT.—A stout, pale, flabby woman, and the mother of eight children. All her labors had been easy, but after the last seven there had been considerable hemorrhage.

There was no hemorrhage with the expulsion of the child. An assistant rubbed the abdomen gently while the cord was being tied. This was just finished when I was told that the uterus was not so hard as it had been. It was found to be relaxed, and a stream of blood was soon running over the edge of the bed and internally on the floor. The uterus was immediately manipulated both externally and internally, and the placenta removed. No full contraction, however, ensued, and severe hæmorrhage continued. Cold water was splashed over the face, abdomen, and vulva, but without any result. The feet, cooled in fresh water, was then introduced to the fundus of the uterus, and kneeling with both hands kept up for several minutes before a moderate but strong contraction ensued. More than a very large quantity of blood had been lost, and exhaustion was rapidly coming on. Whisky, ergot, and ammonia were given occasionally. The pillows had been previously removed, and the window opened, so that she was kept as cool as possible. She was now of a leady pallor, with gasping respiration, and extremely rapid, but almost imperceptible pulse. She complained of great soreness and difficulty in seeing things distinctly. The uterus remained contracted so long as constant pressure with kneeling was kept up, but when this was discontinued for a few seconds, relaxation again took place, and a considerable quantity of blood was lost.

This state of the uterus continued as Knapp's galvanic battery was obtained, and a strong current passed through the uterus (but was two hours after delivery). Immediate postural contraction was the result, but slight relaxation returned, and the current was withdrawn. A milder current was then used.

of the artery, before will be the perfect contraction of the vessel, and the blood, and the laceration had entirely ceased.—*Lancet, Medical Journal.*

CHIEF TAILOR'S SORE IN THE TREATMENT OF SCARLET.—M. J. B. reports a case of scarlet in a soldier, in 1790, in 20 grains of the salt of tartar, dissolved in water, this was to be continued till the affected parts should heal. In two or three days, every case, even the most inveterate, were completely cured. This is to be imitated by a solution of tartar emetic, in the same dose, carbonated, or merely by sea salt, as a counter-irritant, and decoction, in the proportion of 16 to 24 grains of sea salt of water.—*Practical.*

SARFETI TRICHOMALIAE IN LARIS.—At a recent meeting M. J. B. Vallart communicated a note on a monstrosity in the eye, in which attacks the human subject. The specimen was removed from a patient, 37, H. B. D. D. and belongs to the *Trichomaliae* of M. J. B. Vallart. It presented some very remarkable deviations from the normal type, and is the only one since that described by Knechtelstein, in his *Hist. Nat. Trichom.*, that has been examined.—*Scientific Opinions.*

ACADEMY OF SCIENCES, MONTE.—Herr Velt presented a paper by Herr Bauer on the absorption of albumen matters in the large intestines. The details show clearly that all albumen matters, in the case, at least of carnivorous animals, are very easily absorbed by the large intestines. The proofs collected by Herr Bauer consist in a number of experiments on dogs. He proposes in a future paper to give the results of his experiments on the absorption of fatty and starchy matters by the large intestine.—*Id.*

A TEST OF GOOD VENTILATION.—General Mojon, on giving an account of the Académie des Sciences of the successful application of his ventilating apparatus in a large weaving factory employing 1000 work people, and in which were included 1000 pigs of 208, observed that its advantage might be judged of from the fact, that during October, November, and December, 1867, when the ventilation was defective, only 15,000 kilograms of beef were consumed, while during the same months of 1868, as if it had been improved, 20,000 kilograms were required, being an gain of 25 per cent. in the health and vigour of the animals.—*Id.*

MR. NORTH, SURGEON TO THE PRISON HOSPITAL FOR SICK CRIMINALS, states—I have observed typhoid to follow the use of foul drinking water in the following instances:—

1. Typhoid typhus in a girl aged 11, and in the same house 18 months afterwards typhoid succeeded by typhus in a man aged 24. Drinking water procured from a shallow well near to the cess-pool of a privy used by the inmates of seven cottages.

2. Severe typhoid in a boy aged 8. Drinking water derived from a water-dribb never cleaned out.

3. Typhoid in six inmates of one house, of various ages, seven in three, one died. The drinking water did not at first, and came from a cistern, which had never been cleaned out. No sign of the disease being communicated by infection.

4. 11. Two cases of fever (typhoid type) in a house where the drinking was procured from a well, in no twelve years in which were two large cess-pools in a sandy subsoil, in the immediate.—*Medical Times & Gazette.*

In the *Practical Medical*, M. J. B. Vallart relating a very interesting and curious case, probably unique case of systematic typhoid, which was found in a very old woman, the size of a single egg, in the palm of the hand.—*Id.*

ON THE USE OF CARBOLIZED SILK LEADERS BY MR. SIMON, DEPUTY SURGEON OF SURGICAL COLLEGE, UNIVERSITY OF GLENBURG, &c. (Cochran's).—I have had some experiments on the utility of the human subject, and for one thing concluded to try an extensive series of experiments on the effects of high air of cotton on the lower limbs, but I never saw a case in which the ordinary ligature of silk or linen thread yielded or slipped, and never knew of a case in which the substituting such gave way in any case. Under those circumstances, whilst I believe carbolized silk or linen thread

may be perfectly safe, I cannot avoid the conclusion that catgut, however prepared, is liable to become softened, rotted, and disintegrated by the heat and moisture of the living tissues around it, and thus allow the delicate vessel to become again permeable. I learn also that, in a case of amputation of the thigh, in which the femoral artery had been tied with catgut, hæmorrhage occurred from the ligature slipping off.—*The Lancet.*

DR. BRACE ON ANIMAL VACCINATIONS.—Apart entirely from animal vaccination, I believe to the large majority of those who feel entitled that the lymph now in use has lost much of its former essential qualities, and I undistatingly give as my opinion that it is not satisfactory. What is Vaccinia? A disease of the cow. Why is it used as a protection against small pox? Because, on its being inoculated into man, it presents in a mild form the same evolution as that much dreaded disease. If vaccine is not deeply impressed on the system, of what value is it? None.

In these facts, the whole question is summed up. The shape and appearance of the vesicle is something, but not all, the further we depart from the symptom presented when spontaneous cow-pox is inoculated, the more certain we are that the prophylaxis is uncertain. What has experience taught us? That when no centres are seen, the liability to contract small-pox, and the mortality, are almost on a par with the unvaccinated, and why on such occasions always throw the blame on the vaccinators and not on the lymph, the too often ready guilty party.

We learn from Mr. Marson's tables that only those who have four or five *Centres* can be considered as well protected, and when inoculated by contagion, most of them will suffer from it, only in a modified form; whilst we know, on the other hand, that Jenner and his followers only made one *passage*, and in the great majority of cases this was sufficient to insure immunity against contagion.—*Id.*

An Editorial on the LANCET (12th June) states—We have had opportunities of inspecting four patients vaccinated by Dr. Hume from calves. Two were infants under 5 months old, one under 3 years, and the fourth a young woman of 18. The general phenomena were the same in all. The vesicles are somewhat slower in their development than those from cow-pox vaccination, and do not arrive at maturity until the tenth day, while the inflamed areola is at its height on the eleventh day. The local inflammation is somewhat more severe than that which follows cow-pox vaccination, but not severe enough to cause pain or fever, or to constitute any objection to the method.

MORTALITY AT DIFFERENT AGES.—As the question which is the average death-rate of the English population at different periods of life occurs very frequently, and is not at all times easily to be answered for lack of the official documents in which such statistics are periodically published, we subjoin the latest authentic information upon the subject, derived from the 20th Annual Report of the Registrar-General, just presented to Parliament. For the benefit of any of our readers who may not be much accustomed to the study of statistics, it may be said that the two columns here given represent the *average annual deaths* occurring in the thirty years, 1838-67, to persons of either sex at the stated periods of age, out of every thousand persons of corresponding ages, estimated as representing the average yearly population during the thirty years.

| | Males. | Females. |
|----------------|--------|----------|
| All ages | 23.33 | 21.51 |
| 0-1 | 72.42 | 62.16 |
| 5-10 | 8.79 | 8.67 |
| 10-15 | 4.95 | 5.10 |
| 15-20 | 7.90 | 8.22 |
| 20-25 | 9.93 | 10.15 |
| 30-35 | 13.03 | 12.70 |
| 35-40 | 18.16 | 15.67 |
| 40-45 | 21.03 | 28.56 |
| 45-50 | 18.74 | 37.52 |
| 50-55 | 14.74 | 135.56 |
| 55-60 | 20.22 | 282.07 |
| 60 and upwards | 116.87 | 132.65 |

The supplement to the Registrar-General's 25th annual report contains, perhaps, the most valuable information on record as to the mortality of children in different parts of the country.—*The Lancet.*

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF THE POISON OF THE COBRA, THE DABOIA, AND THE BUNGARUS, AND OF CERTAIN METHODS OF TREATMENT.

By J. FAYRER, M.D., C.S.I.

Presented by DR. FAYLER and MR. SELVA.—July 10th, 1899.

EXPERIMENT NO. 1.

A large and powerful pariah dog was bitten in the thigh, by a dabolia russali at 3:22 p.m.; the dog showed signs of pain when the fangs penetrated. 3:25—Walks, but drags the outer limb. 3:28—Is lying down; on rousing the dog he is unable to stand; delirium and incontinence occurred; shows no signs of suffering beyond occasionally a suppressed whine; tries to stand, but is unable to do so; contents of bladder dribbling away. 3:32—Respiration hurried; pupils dilated; rolls his head uneasily, but keeps the neck turned more to one side; twitching of eyeballs; stretches out the fore-legs in a convulsive manner. Lies otherwise quite paralysed. 3:35.—Breathing regularly, but lies motionless. 3:38—In the same condition; respiration 40 in a minute; slightly raises his head at intervals. 3:45.—Still breathing, but lies perfectly still, giving occasionally a low suppressed whine. 3:53.—In the same condition; has watery purging. 4 p.m.—In the same condition; respiration 45 in a minute. 4:7.—Can just raise its head when roused, the limbs seem quite paralysed. 4:9.—Mucro-sanguineous purging; other symptoms the same. 4:18.—Still breathing; more mucro-sanguineous purging. 4:20.—In the same condition. 4:40.—In the same position; lying on his side; legs extended; breathing still. 4:45.—Slight twitching of the muscles generally; respiration irregular, and feeble. 4:50.—Dead; a slight tremor, but no convulsive movement preceded death.—Bitten at 3:22 p.m.; dead at 4:50, or in 85 minutes. The body was examined one hour and twenty minutes after death. The lungs were not congested. The liver was darker colored than natural. The blood in the heart and great vessels was perfectly fluid, nor did it coagulate when collected and set apart.

I examined the blood at noon on the 11th July most carefully and deliberately under the microscope, with a high power. There was no change. The red and white corpuscles were in their natural relative quantities; a very few of the red ones were crenate. But there was not a trace of any new cell or medullary matter in the blood.

The perfect and permanent fluidity in the blood was remarkably illustrated in this experiment.

EXPERIMENT NO. 2.

A pariah dog was bitten at 3:28 p.m. in the thigh by a large bungarus bangarus said to be quite fresh, and about four and a half feet long; the bites drew blood. Walking about, drags the leg slightly. 3:31.—Lies down, depressed and is convulsed. 3:36.—Walks about; looking convulsed. 3:40.—Bitten again in the thigh by the same bungarus; the dog evinced no sign of suffering. 3:42.—Looks depressed; foaming at the mouth; salivates. 4:7.—The dog is sick and vomited a quantity of frothy mucus; vomiting repeated on 4:19. On walking he looks depressed, as the right eye is convulsed, and hups in the bitten leg. 4:12.—Vomiting continues; lies down for the first time; breathing heavy. 4:17.—The mucus and vomiting continues; looks soiled and depressed. 4:20.—Excessive vomiting of frothy mucus. Lies down; is convulsed in the hind legs; looks very ill. 4:29.—Hemiplegic on the right respiration; twitching of the hind legs. 4:32.—Walking slowly and feebly with a dejected look; vomits frequently; and

foots piously from the mouth. 4:33.—Strands with his head drooping; still very sick; leans his body for support against the wall. 4:45.—No change. 5 p.m.—Appears better. 5:15.—Looks better; no vomiting; respiration more regular. 5:40.—Lying down; when raised on his feet, appears weak, but otherwise better. On lying down, arranged his legs in a natural position as if for sleeping. 6:10.—On being again roused, he walked about; his legs appeared feeble at first, but appeared to recover the use of them. 9:15.—Sleeping comfortably on being roused, looks brighter and intelligent.

11th July, 6 a.m.—Remained during the night with a changing his position; on being placed on his feet appears weak, particularly in the hind legs, he appears somewhat dumb in the legs.

I received the following report on the 13th July—

"The dog died at about 10:30 p.m. of the 12th. Bitten at 3:25 p.m. of the 10th July; dead at 10:30 p.m. of the 12th, or in about 53 hours. Yesterday morning (the 12th) I observed that he was very weak. During the day, and up to the time of his death, he remained lying on one side, with the legs extended, passing at intervals mucro-sanguineous matter. On opening the body this morning, I found the blood coagulated in the heart and great vessels. The blood sent to me on the 13th was firmly coagulated. Under the microscope, it presented innumerable needle-like crystals of hamato-globulin. The red corpuscles visible were very few in number, and were not, so far as I could judge, changed in any way. But I would speak with reserve about the corpuscles of this blood, as the field was so entirely filled with the crystals that little else could be seen, even after careful dilution with water and agitation. It is possible that new cell forms may have been there, and escaped detection. The mass of the red corpuscles seem to have been converted into crystals. In both this and the preceding case, the blood was examined some time after death, but I failed to detect any new cell growths."

EXPERIMENT NO. 3.

A young cobra, about ten inches long, was bitten at 3:45 p.m., by a fresh full-grown cobra (kechara) near the tail, so that the viscera might not be injured. The fangs were seen to penetrate, and no doubt could exist that the poison was fairly introduced. Being put on the ground, it crawled away vigorously, seemed unaffected by the bite. 5 p.m.—No change. 11th July, 6 a.m.—No change; it is quite well and active. On the 13th July, I saw it quite well. On the 17th it was found dead; apparently it had been dead about 42 hours.

EXPERIMENT NO. 4.

Another young cobra of the same color as the last (No. 3) was bitten by a fresh dabolia near the tail like the last. 4:15 to 28 p.m. strated, and the poison was fully introduced. 5:10.—No change. 6:15.—No change, except that, when moving, it stretched out the tail beyond the part bitten apparently, and it was convulsed as the rest of the body. This is a curious feature by the nature of the wound inflicted by the venomable fangs of the viper. 11th July, 8 a.m.—On the 17th, the snake is alive and apparently well. On the 17th, it was found dead and decomposed; it had probably been dead for some days. This young cobra was one of one brood; the other died a few days ago, and was said by the snake-keepers to have died a fortnight or ten days old.

There could be no doubt about their having been fully bitten by the cobra and the danger of a evil result followed on to the 16th, though they died suddenly. Surely, this is a curious proof that the cobra is but a serpent, but it is, I think, the most obvious proof. The snakes being very young may be stated from want of food, and probably from the effects

of the wound, no coagulum formed. It was very well healed in the 4th day after being bit.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

A white kitten was killed with a cobra's fangs as fresh as possible, at 4.10 p.m. on the 14th. It seemed to me to be very fatigued. 4.25—Very quiet; former position of the foreleg in air, very irregular. 5 p.m.—Very quiet, some vomiting. 6.1—It has been very restless; now seems to need to sleep, appears to be free from pain. 9.15—Does not appear now to be much affected by the poison. 11th day.—It is now better.

12th day.—The kitten was put to rest. It was evident in this case that the animal was not mortally though thoroughly bitten, for the snake was made to close his fangs on the part and draw blood. This, I believe, is just the worst case which probably frequently occurs when men or animals are accidentally bitten, and a venom is injected to cause symptoms of poisoning, but not enough to destroy life. And the minor animal recovers fully by his or its own inherent power of recovery. Had I administered any of the so-called antidotes, or injected any of the proposed remedies, the recovery might have been attributed to the means used.

That a man or animal so poisoned may be benefited by the use of stimulants, or other therapeutic measures, I do not for a moment deny, but, as I have before said, this is a very different matter to that of administering an antidote that shall neutralize the poison, and by so doing save life.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

Another kitten of the same size and age, as that in experiment 5, was bitten by a cobra in the left thigh, at 4.16 p.m. The bite was very imperfect, and was repeated at 4.20 p.m.

4.24.—The kitten very restless and springing about violently. 4.25.—Harsh breathing, restlessness. 4.45—Getting weaker; respiration irregular. 5.5—Convulsive movements generally. 5.20—Dead in one hour and four minutes. 6.20.—Body opened one hour after death. Lungs natural; no congestion; the blood, on being removed from the heart and great vessels, soon coagulated firmly.

EXPERIMENT No. 7.

A *Bungarus fasciatus* was truly and deeply bitten by a fresh cobra at 4.27 p.m., near the tail; no doubt of the penetration of the fangs and inoculation of the poison. No effect was produced. The *Bungarus* was well and active on the 16th, five days after the bite.

EXPERIMENT No. 8.

A *Bungarus fasciatus* was thoroughly bitten by a fresh cobra at 4.32 p.m., near the tail.

No visible effect followed; the *Bungarus* remains unaffected; on the 16th day very much as usual.

Several facts of importance in this, or other, probably unexplained, phenomena, are pointed out in their probability and confirmed by the preceding experiments.

It is due to my assuming by the cobra, and therefore, probably by all the supreme order of serpents, and doubtless, the coagulability of the blood is peculiarly good. I suppose they rely, because the cobra penetrates and draws blood. In the experiment on the fowl, it was found that the blood had coagulated. It is an accident after death, exposure to the air. The next careful and patient microscopic examination could detect no structural change in the corpuscular elements of the blood. Death is more protracted, but the deadly effects of the poison are even more rapid, and more fatal than in death from other causes.

I report the results, both of my own experiments, and of those made by other persons, and believe that the blood coagulates firmly and is not dissolved, and that the blood is an element

of the poison, from a study of an hour or more after death, and that the blood is to be coagulated firmly. No changes in the corpuscular elements have been seen in any of the numerous examinations I have made.

The poison of the *Bungarus* is less deadly than that of the cobra, but it is very dangerous. It also does not destroy the coagulability of the blood. Perhaps, this may prove to be the case with all the poisonous cobra-like snakes. No change was observed in the corpuscular elements, &c., of such as remained. But the red corpuscles had passed in the case of the fowl, and the dog that died from a *Bungarus* bite, into a state of excessive crystallization of a uric-like, and not a tubular form, though it is slow in producing its worse effects.

It is very doubtful if the cobra and cobra are affected by each other's poison; but the evidence on this point is not yet complete.

The *Bungarus* is also less susceptible to the poison of the cobra and cobra than *murina* snakes; if, indeed, it be affected at all.

Death was not caused by asphyxia in any of these cases. Enquiry tends to show that it is due to direct exhaustion from paralysis of the nerves-centres.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE USE OF THE LIGATURE AND CARBOLIC ACID IN THE TREATMENT OF SNAKE-BITES.

By J. FAYLER, M.D., C.S.I.

Trichy.—Dr. FAYLER and Mr. SIVA.—July 17th, 1869.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

A large and powerful cobra dog was bitten in the thigh, at 2.15 p.m., by a fresh cobra (deauriata). The hair had been previously removed from the part in order that the puncture of the snake's fangs might be distinctly seen. The moment the fangs were withdrawn, the punctures were scarified, and carbolic acid on a appliced, and well inoculated into the bites. The tissues were whitened, and the blood coagulated by the acid. 2.53 p.m. The dog looks depressed and dejected; lowering his head. 3.12—Lying down; looks dejected, but perfectly quiet. 3.45—Respiration hurried. 3.23—Furrows widely shut. In convulsions, rolled over on the other side; respiration irregular and catarrhal. 3.27—Violently convulsed. 3.30—Respiration has ceased, but the heart still beats distinctly. 3.31—Dead in forty-six minutes. The carbolic acid was evidently of no service in this case.

Post-mortem examination at 5 p.m. Blood coagulated; no crystallization under microscope.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

A fowl had the feathers removed from the thigh, so that the bites might be seen, and was then bitten there at 2.54 p.m. by a cobra. The wounds were immediately scarified, and the carbolic acid thoroughly applied to the bites. The fowl fell over in convulsions when released, and was dead in less than sixty seconds. The body was opened at 3.35, or more, at 40 minutes after death, and the blood was found to be coagulated in the heart and great vessels; some dark blood coagulated in the thorax. The lungs were not in the least congested. The condition of the blood was particularly noted, and it has generally been found fluid in the mammals dead from the cobra bite.

Post-mortem examination of dog, experiment No. 3.

Blood examined at 5 p.m.—fluid when removed, but coagulated on exposure to the air.

Microscopic examination; no crystals; no change.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.

The poison of a fresh cobra (gokurrah) was taken from the snake in its presence, and ten drops of it immediately

injected with the hypodermic syringe into a middling-sized dog's thigh, at 3-3 p.m. The tube of the hypodermic syringe was not removed; and the syringe being filled with carbolic acid, about 20 drops were injected exactly in the track of the poison, and in the shortest space of time possible. 3-8—The dog is depressed; looks scared; hangs his head; twitching of the hind legs when he is raised. 3-15—Lying on his side almost paralysed; pupils widely dilated. 3-20—Is convulsed. 3-22—General twitching of all the muscles of the body; is quite unconscious. Respiration has ceased, but the heart still beats distinctly. 3-25—Heart still beats. 3-27.—Irregular action of heart. 3-29—Dead in 26 minutes. In this case there could be no doubt of the perfect inoculation of the carbolic acid, for it followed the poison through the same channel, and in the shortest possible space of time, in which any local remedy could be applied, and yet without producing the slightest benefit. The second of time by which the poison preceded it, was sufficient to cause death; no remedy could have been applied more rapidly, unless it had been mixed with the poison and introduced with it; in which case the venom might have been probably decomposed and rendered inert. It appears to be impossible to overtake the poison, and neutralize it when once in the circulation, however rapid may be the inoculation of the supposed antidote.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

A fowl was bitten in the thigh by a daboia at 3-19 p.m. The carbolic acid was immediately applied to the wounds which had been at once scarified. 3-19-30—Fowl in convulsions. 3-20.—Dead in one minute. Body opened. Blood in heart and great vessels had coagulated.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

A small dog bitten in the thigh, by a bungarus fasciatus. (one used last week) at 3-13 p.m. The bites drew blood. 3-29—Looks dejected. 5-20—No further change.

18th July, 7 a.m.—No change. At 12, noon, the dog appears very weak; has not altered his position (recumbent) since last report. 6 p.m.—The same; refuses food; gradually drooped throughout the day.

19th July—Died at 1-35 p.m., in about 16 hours and 27 minutes. Blood examined at 7-15 p.m.: blood clotted after death firmly; the serum paler than usual; corpuscles natural; no crystallization.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

A fowl was bitten by another bungarus, which had also been used last week, at 3-32 p.m. 3-10.—The fowl looks uneasy, but not otherwise affected.

18th, 7 a.m.—Crouching on the floor; wings drooping. Noon—Unable to stand; profuse flow of watery blood from the beak. 3 p.m.—Lying on its side; eyes closed. 5-10 p.m.—Died in 26 hours and 18 minutes. Body opened at 6 p.m.; blood coagulated; under microscope no crystallization had occurred.

EXPERIMENT No. 7.

A fowl was bitten by a cobra in the thigh at 3-15-30. Ran about for a moment when placed on the ground. 3-16—Crouched; resting its beak on the ground; fell over, and was dead at 3-17.

Body opened at 5-10 p.m.

Blood fluid, but coagulated on exposure to air.

EXPERIMENT No. 8.

A daboia was well bitten by a cobra near the tail, at 15 p.m. 18th July, noon. No change. 18th July 6 p.m.—No change; no effect was produced. The daboia was alive a week after being bitten.

EXPERIMENT No. 9.

A varanus flavescens was bitten by another daboia, at 1-15 p.m. The daboia had bitten before. He did not strike his fangs readily through the hard skin of the lizard.

18th July, 3 p.m.—No change. 6 p.m.—No change.

The varanus was not affected, it was alive a week after being bitten.

The daboia was not fresh; and it did not bite vigorously, hence the escape of the varanus.

EXPERIMENT No. 10.

A cobra was bitten by a daboia, near the tail, at 1-3 p.m., and was bitten again by another daboia, at 1-8 p.m., near the same place.

18th July, 5 p.m.—No change; a week later—no change.

NOTE.—The bungarus bitten by the daboia, on Saturday, 10th July, was found recently dead on Saturday, 24th. Death may be due to natural causes. The bungarus bitten at the same time by a cobra is alive and well on the 24th July.

Presented.—DR. FAYRER and MR. SELVA.—July 21th, 1869.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

In the experiments hitherto performed, the snake has been made to close the jaws on the part bitten, and not been left to strike in the natural way. With the object of ascertaining whether there be any difference in the effect of the compulsory and voluntary bite, the following experiment was performed; and I observed in this, as on other occasions, that the snake rather attempted to fighten than to bite the dog, and it was not until the cobra was much irritated by repeatedly bringing the dog near him, that he gave the fatal bite. It struck the dog twice in the hind leg, apparently without any effect, but afterwards struck, and a for a moment fastened on to the thorax. Two slightly bleeding points marked where the dog was bitten—this was at 3-32 p.m. 3-15.—The dog is affected; vomited and was purged; very restless. 3-56.—Vomiting and staggering as he walks. 3-53.—Convulsed. 3-57.—Heart still beating irregularly; respiratory moments ceased. 3-58.—Dead—in 26 minutes. Another object of this experiment was again to search in the *post-mortem* blood for the corpuscles described by Professor Halford.

The body was opened at 5 p.m., or about an hour after death. The blood coagulated firmly, and was repeatedly examined under the microscope with a high power; but I could detect no change whatever in its corpuscular elements. The lungs, as usual, were free from congestion.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

Placed a ligature round a fowl's thigh, and tied it very tightly. The fowl was then bitten by a cobra, at 1 p.m. below the ligature. The ligature was tied as tightly as it could be drawn, and appeared to arrest the circulation completely, for the part below became livid, and the limb was paralysed. 1-13.—The fowl lies quiet, and does not seem to be affected by the poison. 1-17.—Is active and lively; hops about in the sound leg. 1-24.—Does not seem to be in the least affected by the poison; at this period, that is, 15 minutes after the bite, the ligature was removed. The limb was rigid and livid from congestion. The bird began to droop almost immediately the ligature was removed. 1-22.—Drooping; does not rise; when raised crouches again. 1-23. Head falling over; can hardly move. 1-24.—Convulsed. 1-30.—Still alive; but convulsive movements continue. 1-33. Dead. Bitten at 1-5 p.m.; ligature removed at 1-20; no effect of poison being manifested.

Dead at 1-33, *o.*. 13 minutes after the ligature was removed.

1. The patient was given a quantity of water to drink, and the operation was repeated at intervals of 15 or 20 minutes.

EXPERIMENT 2.

A few drops of the above mixture were given to a patient who had been suffering from a severe case of cholera.

142. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 14th day.

143. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 15th day.

144. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 16th day.

145. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 17th day.

146. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 18th day.

147. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 19th day.

148. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 20th day.

149. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 21st day.

150. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 22nd day.

151. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 23rd day.

152. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 24th day.

153. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 25th day.

154. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 26th day.

155. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 27th day.

156. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 28th day.

157. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 29th day.

158. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 30th day.

159. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 31st day.

160. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 1st day.

161. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 2nd day.

162. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 3rd day.

163. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 4th day.

164. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 5th day.

165. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 6th day.

166. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 7th day.

167. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 8th day.

168. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 9th day.

169. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 10th day.

170. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 11th day.

171. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 12th day.

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201. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 11th day.

202. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 12th day.

203. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 13th day.

204. Result.—The patient recovered, and was discharged on the 14th day.

ON MALADIES ATTRIBUTED TO LUNAR INFLUENCE—RHEUMATISM, PARALYSIS, OCULAR, &c.

By W. A. MOORE, M.D., F.R.C.P.

Surgeon, R. N. S. S. I. C. S. S.

IN addition to malaries fever, there are several other malarial fevers which the moon is still supposed to influence. These are: 1. The malarial form of drops of paralysis, and certain affections of the eyes. But it is extraordinary and surprising that it is chiefly among soldiers the habit of lunar power exists. Dr. Pettigrew, in the vicinity of the *Norfolk*, *Med. Mag.*, 1847, *Dec. 18*, is of the opinion that malarial fever, head-ache, sleeping sickness, and other malarial affections were amongst the diseases of the British soldiers in the Crimea, and rapidly spread if exposed to the rays of the moon. Dr. Pettigrew is of opinion that malarial paralysis is not a new disease, but a modification of the now distinct Indian Nuxia, and is quoted to have been first noticed in 1803, when it was first destroyed by exposure to the moon, and afterwards subsided when the rays of the moon were excluded by the use of a black cloth. The assertion of Dr. Pettigrew is not only true, but is supported by the fact that he had never independently seen it destroyed by exposure to the moon, and afterwards subsided when the rays of the moon were excluded by the use of a black cloth. The assertion of Dr. Pettigrew is not only true, but is supported by the fact that he had never independently seen it destroyed by exposure to the moon, and afterwards subsided when the rays of the moon were excluded by the use of a black cloth.

On the subject of lunar experiments made with malarial fever, Dr. Pettigrew is of opinion that he has never seen it destroyed by exposure to the moon, and afterwards subsided when the rays of the moon were excluded by the use of a black cloth. The assertion of Dr. Pettigrew is not only true, but is supported by the fact that he had never independently seen it destroyed by exposure to the moon, and afterwards subsided when the rays of the moon were excluded by the use of a black cloth.

of the moon. Even admitting the lunar ray hastens decomposition of dead matter, *viz.* that living matter must be so affected, is certainly not a very invulnerable argument. And it would be still more ridiculous to reason, that because the moon has been supposed to exert power over vegetable substances,* living animals are so affected.

Hence the idea of any *direct* lunar influence may be discarded. But that the maladies named do occur, specially on board ship, cannot be denied. It has frequently happened, that persons sleeping on the deck of a vessel have found themselves more or less paralysed, when attempting to rise. Sometimes a leg or arm only suffers, at others, pains and aches—rheumatism in fact—without loss of motive power, is only complained of. In the worst cases, however, there is no real paralysis using the term as now somewhat erroneously applied in medicine. But there is inability to move a limb, as I believe, from the pain motion causes. However stiffened and contracted the member affected may be, a man of strong will is able to demonstrate that no paralysis (vital relaxation) exists. But, unfortunately for the theory of lunar influence, direct or indirect, I have known the same to occur to individuals sleeping on deck, when the moon was *not* visible. And similar remarks apply to instances of swelled face, which moreover are generally found to be connected with a carious tooth. The whole of the ailments are, indeed, simply due to cold caused by exposure to land winds, from being drenched by the falling dew, from sleeping near a sail which directs the wind on the body, or from laying in the current of air entering by a port-hole, or wind sail. A strong breeze playing on a surface wet with dew or perspiration is the real cause of the maladies named. And they present more frequently on board ship, because persons laying on deck are more exposed to changes of temperature, and draughts, from sails, and ports, and position, than people on land. But such affections do occur on *terra firma*; and at the present time I have a patient affected with rheumatism and inability to move the right leg from the hip downwards—just the condition which has been erroneously termed paralysis,—and contracted, from sleeping exposed to the cold night winds of the neighbouring hills.

On this subject I venture to quote from former writing—“Any medical officer, who has served in the Persian Gulf or Red Sea as I have done, will admit the impossibility of a ship's crew sleeping below, although, indeed, they might be *there by command* during the night, and suffer from disease, as was the case in one of Her Majesty's ships of war some years since cruising in the waters of Iran. During my period of service in the Indian Navy, whether in charge of troops, or simply with the ship's crew, I invariably recommended awnings be spread at night during the hot months for the men to sleep under. Nautical men, however, appear to have an insuperable objection to spreading awnings at night; the reasons advanced for non-compliance with such a recommendation from the medical officers being, that a sudden squall might gather under them; that it interfered with the ventilation or working of the ship; that a spark might set fire to them; that it was not man-of-war like; that exposure to the dews of night rotted the canvas! During some portions of the year in the tropical seas, the frightful heat of day is succeeded by a copious deposit of dew during

the night. Any one sleeping under the six-foot canopy of heaven only, becomes deluged with dew, if he wrings his garments, water falls from them as though just removed from a well, and handfuls of fluid may be scooped from the ship's scuppers. What wonder then, that the man rises (as I have frequently done) cramped, cold, and with aching joints in the limbs! What wonder that the seeds of rheumatism, of albuminuria, and other chronic diseases enter into the system, destroying health almost before manhood is arrived at. Yet the captain made of brass and solid teak wood was religiously covered with canvas every night, while tender flesh and bone—men going to fight their countries' battles—might be exposed, without remorse, to the destruction of their health, and the impoverishment of the state.”

The treatment of the rheumatic and pseudo-paralytic maladies thus induced, consists chiefly in warmth, friction, stimulating liniments, sudorifics, and rest. In obstinate cases blisters may be beneficial.

The ocular maladies, *viz.* *Amblyopia*, with its varieties *Nyctalopia*, and *Hemeralopia*, or nocturnal amaurosis, presumed to be due to lunar influence, cannot, however, be thus referred to cold. According to my experience, neither *Nyctalopia*, (blindness during the day, and vision by night,) nor *Hemeralopia* (the reverse) are so commonly met with as the mixed form *Amblyopia*, in which, although vision may be more impaired at some particular period, it is always more or less affected. The *Nyctalopia*, or day impairment of sight, is quite different from the aversion to light, or photophobia, as exemplified in the albinos, or in scrofulous ophthalmia, and at first no altered condition or sensitiveness can be detected. Similarly, when either *Hemeralopia*, or the mixed form prevails, there is no apparent structural change. After the disease has continued some time in *Nyctalopia* especially, there is congestion and hyperaesthesia, and the eye is unable to bear the stimulus of bright light. It is also asserted that intolerance to the bright light thrown on the retina by the ophthalmic speculum, is often an index to retinal changes where there have been no previous symptoms. In all varieties of the malady in the latter stages, there may be headache, and sometimes the pupils become dilated. All forms of the disease may exist in very varied degrees of intensity, from a slight impairment of vision, of which careless people take no notice, to the appearance of mist before the eyes, to total darkness. The duration may be days, weeks, months, years. The disease is liable to recur. Natives are said to be more frequently attacked than Europeans, and it often prevails epidemically. But although more commonly observed in tropical climates, it has frequently been noticed, both as a sporadic and epidemic malady, in Europe. In one large ship, it is recorded that sixty men suffered. In some parts of Hungary it has also prevailed epidemically. In 1834, at Oldendorf, 138 soldiers of the Prussian Army were attacked with night blindness. At Vienna and Strasburg, epidemics of *Nyctalopia* have occurred. It has also been noticed in Great Britain. *Hemeralopia*, or that condition in which the patient can see well in the daytime, but not at night, is more frequently found among soldiers who have passed quickly from a northern latitude to a tropical station.

It is also well known that night or day blindness, particularly the former, are often feigned. When this is the case, the diagnosis is difficult, and can only be correctly arrived at by having the patient watched when he supposes himself to be unobserved. A case of feigned day blindness was under my treatment but a few weeks back. The patient, a native, appeared, as usual, morning after morning at the hospital, apparently unable to see his path. One afternoon, I accidentally met him running along the road, gazing with the utmost pleasure at the Melbourne Tabernacle. Suspicious of meddling with, or causing

* Dr. Frost mentions, that a wood resembling mahogany growing in Demerara, is said to be very durable and tough, but in the dark night, before the new moon, but the reverse is felt on the moonlight nights. A similar assertion has been made with regard to trees growing in the Mauritius, and also named as thus affected. But the latter growing hereabouts, (on the Aracotis) however, their durability may be lessened by cutting them at the wrong season of the year, are certainly not under lunar influence.

to be a kind of "nearly" or "almost" as they would be to a person who had not the heat. He has, however, so stated that the body could "nearly" have been "entirely" at rest in the work.

Obviously it appears certain that overstimulation of the system of the eye, probably arising from the action of the retina, is the only explanation of the condition of the eye in the case of "nearly" or "almost" as they would be to a person who had not the heat. It is not probable that great heat, or any intense light, or continued exercise of the eyes on minute and dazzling objects, or long and long exposure to the glare of the sun, or the reflection of the sun in water, all tend to an exhaustion of the retina and a consequent of vascular nature. When *Heat* is the most powerful, there is probably more loss of the nervous power, and a consequent general debility of system. This, comparatively to all ways of the work, are not sufficient to prevent objects to render them visible to the weakened visual powers. The *Atropia* there is in a cooling stimulant and hypæsthesia, and the eye is unable to bear the stimulus of bright light. Such cases, Mr. Leiguer states, are not infrequent among soldiers involved in the heat of an impeded vision.

But the light of the moon does not appear alone sufficient to produce any form of *Atropia*. Leiguer, who noted the cases, prevailing in Africa, does not think it caused by the moon. He remarks—"You may sleep at night, looking up to the moon, and you take no sleep without a thought of moon blindness." And I will give the instances of the almost occurring to persons who had not been exposed. Still lunar light on the eyes during the hours of the day may act as an additional excitant. The return and chill from previous stimulation during the heat, glare, and busyness of the day, when exposed to the brilliant moonlight of the tropics, are not permitted any season of rest. Hence the malady, often first noticed after exposure, has been altogether attributed to lunar light.

Exactly the same condition often results, especially in the arctic regions, from exposure to the glare from snow. But as in the northern latitudes, at particular seasons, there is no rest for the eyes, the period of darkness, so elevated objects to relieve the dazzling white snow blindness, unlike the mildly abundant to other cases, it frequently attend with considerable irritation and pain. (Hull, often illuminating in produce lachrymations and acute ophthalmia (Cayley).)

The state of the general health has much to do with the occurrence of any form of *Atropia*. The naturally weak and feeble, and those debilitated by long periods of hard work, poor diet, and persons suffering of the common or latent scurvy (the latter condition very frequently present, but unsuspected) are, *scilicet pariter*, most likely to become affected.

The treatment of the cases concerns in attention to the general health and prevention of exposure to the exciting causes. But to reach the eye, or to the temple, I have been recommended, but rarely benefited. A moderate cup applies to both. It is always required. But the most important means of relief is a continuous during the day in a darkened room. I have found this preparation of the eye, useful within a week, and it is largely recommended by others. Exercise should be taken in the weak, and the opportunity provided for the patient to rest in a darkened room.

As a preventive means, I have recommended "a flexible leather net, enclosed in a cloth covering," when not used to be applied in a hat. It may mention the inhabitants of the Tropics and India, to protect their eyes from the snow, by periods, much of their skin. The wooden portion of Grenlander's preparation only a minute of time, thus preventing the entrance of new light on the retina, are also well known. For the glare of the sun, and in an animal to think, blue glasses are the most effective, but Cayley recommends a neutral tint glass, as the best protection against the sun's rays.

BELLADONNA AN ANTIDOTE TO OPIUM.

By J. R. SERRIN,

Trustee of the Medical School.

That Belladonna, or its active principle atropine, is antagonistic in its effects to opium has long been believed, and this, as well as the converse proposition, has been exemplified, as usually in practice, yet cases have not been sufficiently numerous either to have assumed the importance of an established fact.

The idea was first proposed to me, in a paper published by Dr. Thomas Anderson, a long ago as 1851, and I have, from time to time, been the question touched upon in the medical journals. Against those that I am now able to refer to, at Lahore, however, I find only a very few papers bearing up in the point. Two cases of opium-poisoning, treated by Belladonna, are related by Dr. Morris of Pennsylvania. (See Brathwaite's Report, Volume XLVII, page 377.) In one of these, very large doses of extract of Belladonna were given, the whole amounting to fifty grains. The quantity of morphia taken was enormous. The patient recovered.

In the second case, an ounce of laudanum had been swallowed. The pupils did not dilate till 47 grains of belladonna had been administered. This was the only obvious effect, and the patient died. In both of these cases, emetics were used before the Belladonna. On belladonna poisoning treated by opium, I find in the *Medical Times and Gazette*, of 8th October, 1864, page 488, a case related under the care of Dr. Francis, at the London Hospital, in which 1/20 of tincture of opium twice administered, was sufficient to counteract the influence of about half an ounce of belladonna tincture that had been swallowed by mistake. Part of this, however, had been previously evacuated by emetics.

In the *Medical Times*, of 8th May, 1869, page 657, another successful case is related by Mr. Balfour Child. In this, 30 or 40 grains of opium, twice administered, could be counteracted by the positive effects of six grains of extract of belladonna. Nausea, and a stomach pump was used in this case. I am sorry that I cannot lay my hand on Dr. Anderson's paper. From Mr. Child's case, in which none of the original opium was removed from the stomach, it appears that one drachm of the tincture of opium, equal to four grains of opium, proved an effective antidote to six grains of belladonna.

In determining how much belladonna is necessary in opium-poisoning, the cases alluded to do not assist us much, but, that it may be given in doses that would otherwise prove rapidly fatal, is, I think, obvious.

Though I had borne Dr. Anderson's suggestion in mind ever since I read his paper, it never had come before me in which I felt it to be worth adopting a now and as yet untried remedy, until a few days ago. The following is the history of the case. A boy, 17, suffering from an acute due to liver disease, had been given some five grains of opium to quiet restlessness. The quantity was said to have been very small, but the previous amount could not be ascertained. The laudanum was administered at Lahore, on 7th July, at 7 he was seen by the house-surgeon of the Medical School Hospital at Lahore, who found him deeply comatose, the pupils contracted, the face livid, the pulse almost imperceptible, the breathing difficult and stertorous. He could not be roused, could not be made to swallow, and no reflex effect could be produced in any way. The house-surgeon dashed cold water in his face, and placed some students at the bedside, to strike continually the palms of the hands and sides of the feet. In this way the circulation improved, and the lividity was somewhat diminished, but the breathing appeared a diffi-

cult as ever, and was accompanied by a loud deal of rattling in the throat, and to accumulation of mucus, which excited no coughing, and could not be displaced. In this condition I saw the boy at 8. It appeared to me that the house-surgeon had rightly judged, that to introduce the stomach pump would be dangerous in a case that had gone so far, and, indeed, as to removing the poison by its means, this, of course, was impossible, as the opium had been given at 4 a. m. in form of tincture. I therefore ordered the boy an injection of eight ounces of infusion of tea and a little rum; but, finding no improvement, I determined to try atropine. At 9 o'clock, therefore, I injected 15 minims of solution of atropine (grs. iv and v) into the rectum, in half an ounce of tea. This contained, of course, $\frac{1}{2}$ of a grain of the alkali. I also dropped a little of the same solution into the left eye, and one drop into the mouth, and this was repeated into the eye and mouth once during the next hour. The right eye was reserved for watching the constitutional effect of the remedy. The clapping of the soles of the feet and palms of the hands was continued for sometime; but as neither this, nor pinching, pricking, nor any other kind of stimulus was in the least degree noticed by the patient, it was discontinued about half past nine. The left pupil dilated rapidly and fully, under the influence of the drop of atropine, and at 10 it became obvious that the right one was slightly larger than before. It was now observed that, on putting the finger into the mouth, a very feeble effort was made to close the teeth upon it, but, to every thing else, the boy continued as completely insensible as before. The pulse was very small and rapid, but distinctly felt; the extremities were warm. At 11 a. m. the right pupil was more dilated, the pulse had improved, but the breathing was the same. At half past twelve the injection, containing $\frac{1}{2}$ grain of atropine, was repeated, and at 2 p. m. the right pupil was fully dilated, the pulse had still further improved, but the breathing was the same. At 3 p. m. a nutritive enemata was administered, consisting of eight ounces of milk and half an ounce of rum. I saw him again shortly afterwards. His pulse was now tolerably good, though rapid, and a slight reflex effect was noticeable on touching the eye ball, or tickling the sole of the foot. At 6 p. m. he was decidedly better. He occasionally moved his limbs a little; and though there was no very distinct evidence of sensation, on pinching, pricking, &c., yet he certainly felt and resisted the passing of the catheter, which was now used to draw off the urine, as he had not passed any the whole day. There was slight pyrexia.

At 8 p. m. another nutritive enemata of milk was administered, half of which came away again immediately, thus affording further evidence of restored reflex action. All the other enemata had been retained. At this time the boy could speak a little, partly answered some questions, and opened and shut his eyes. At 10 p. m. he was able to swallow, and was freely fed with bread and milk the night. At 11 he appeared to be well, and answered questions plainly. He was a little feverish however, but even this had ceased by 2 a. m. on the 8th. At 3 a. m. he said he was hungry, and took some milk. At 6 a. m. he seemed to be quite well, but the tongue was dry, and both pupils were dilated, there was no other obvious effect of the atropine. The boy was restless and peevish, but the father said this was habitual to him, and it need not be remembered he was suffering from opium. On the 9th the right pupil was no longer dilated, to give the full it was on the following day he was taken away by his friends.

In this case $\frac{1}{2}$ of a grain of atropine was administered, without any symptoms, except dilatation of the pupils, and recovery from an extreme prostration of temperament. We can scarcely

believe that so powerful a medicine had no influence, and are almost driven to the admission that its poisonous effect was counteracted by the opium; in fact, that the two poisons were mutually antagonistic, and neutralised each other. This point, however, can only be satisfactorily proved by an accumulation of evidence, though it is very strongly supported by the crucial test of Mr. Child's and Dr. Frazer's cases. Thus, much, however, I think, must be admitted from the evidence of my case, of Dr. Morris' of Pennsylvania, and, I believe, also of Dr. Anderson's, though I have not his case here to cite, viz., that the system, under the influence of opium, has a great tolerance for belladonna, and, therefore, that it may be carefully administered without danger; so that the road is at once open for further investigation.

An antidote that acts powerfully in a concentrated form is surely a great desideratum, for at best the ordinary antidotes to opium, such as tea and coffee, are bulky, difficult to administer, and, withal, not very satisfactory; while cases like mine must occasionally occur, in which the stomach pump cannot be used, and swallowing is impossible. From this case it would appear that, if the circulation continue, even though feebly, the atropine acts very well given by the rectum. With equal propriety, of course, it might have been sub-cutaneously injected in smaller quantity; and had the circulation been still feebler, doubtless, this would have answered best.

HINTS IN PRACTICE.

By DR. BAILLIE,

Surgeon, Calcutta Native Hospital.

ICE IN CHLOROFORM ACCIDENTS.

IN cases of syncope from inhalation of too large a quantity of chloroform, there is no means upon which I should naturally to restore the movements of respiration, than the introduction of a *good-sized lump* of ice into the rectum. This is much more easily effected than one would suppose, a little pressure with the ice being made over the sphincter causes it to relax, and the ice slips in, followed almost instantaneously by a prolonged inspiration, the precursor of natural breathing, and restoration of the heart's action. This measure, but with a *small* bit of ice, would, doubtless, answer equally well with still-born children.

II.—BURNT ALUM IN FINGER'S TESTS.

INCASES, not unfrequently occur in this complaint when either the patient objects to submit to Syde's operation, or where it and pressure have failed; in such circumstances, I have seen the best result follow the treatment below indicated.

If the fistule be much constituted by the surrounding tissue, this should be first divided by a few shallow incisions, then the fistule and parts divided are to be thickly covered with burnt or de-aerated alum, which may be returned over the parts by means of soap plaster, and over this a carefully applied bandage. Daily dressing is required; the loose alum should be removed and fresh applied, and well pressed down, and that which adheres and cakes must be allowed to remain till it falls off, when it may be renewed, in addition to this, it is well now and then to pour tincture of iodine over the salt, nor should constitutional treatment be omitted, such as generous diet and the preparations of iodine with iron, &c. The cure is generally complete in three or four months, but where the protrusion is very great, double that period may be required.

III.—AT WHAT POINT IS IT BEST TO OPEN THE KNEE.

POINT FOR THE REMOVAL OF PUS.

This question, although seemingly a trifling one, is, I believe, of some importance, both as regards the result of the operation and the future movements of the joint. On this every surgeon would avoid, if possible, the operation of trepanning, or the employment of crutches; but if it is necessary the operation of *trepanning* is to be avoided, that I would not consent to attempt in the joint, if it were made in the middle of the joint, as it is in the

The cause of death here was evidently cardiac anæmia, due to the formation of coagula in the right cavities of the heart. The origin of the septic condition that induced this can only be attributed to the mischief which had insidiously supervened in the occipital region. It is very remarkable that it should have manifested itself so late after the accident, and that it should have proved so rapidly fatal. The swelling of the scalp was not noticed until I accidentally put my finger on it in examining his head, and there is every reason to believe that it was quite of recent occurrence.

For a moment the question of the trephine was suggested, on the supposition that pus might have formed between the bone and dura mater. But the evidences of constitutional mischief were so marked, and the chance of relief so very faint, that it was at once abandoned.

The body was examined on the 23rd July, about 11 hours after death. The back and other parts of the body were already much discoloured by suppuration.

H. A.—The scalp was reflected; all round the wound it was thickened and infiltrated with a dark red serum; probably partly purulent fluid. This occupied an area of an inch in each direction; beyond this and down to the neck it was infiltrated with yellow turbid serum. All this part of the scalp was oedematous. The wound itself was healthy, and reached nearly, not quite, to the pericranium, which was therefore un wounded.

The pericranium, though, was detached from the bone for about a square inch, corresponding to the site of the superjacent wound. The bone was bare, but did not appear dead. The bones of the cranium were healthy; the section revealed no suppuration in the cancellated texture.

The longitudinal and other sinuses were distended with blood and contained coagula.

The brain was much congested on the surface; the vessels between the convolutions were engorged; the surface of the base, especially over the wound, was slightly ecchymosed under the arachnoid. There was no indication of any arachnitis; nothing suggestive of tuberculosis. The brain substance, when cut, was not congested; the ventricles were normal; the membranes were also healthy.

Thorax.—The lungs were pallid, almost blanched, except just at the back. They contained little or no blood, but some air.

H. A.—Pericardium natural; heart firmly contracted; the right auricle and ventricle contained a peculiarly tough desiccated fibrous clot, which was firmly wedged in the auriculo-ventricular opening. It did not extend into the pulmonary vessels; but it did worse by obstructing the pulmonary circulation at the very outlet. There was also a small quantity of post-mortem clot in the right ventricle, and also in the left cavities of the heart. The plura were natural.

Abdomen.—Viscera healthy.

ON THE USE OF PETROLEUM OR EARTH OIL AS AN ANTISEPTIC IN THE TREATMENT OF SURGICAL DISEASES.

By Dr. FAYRER, C.S.I.

I HAVE recently been using petroleum, as an external application, on the antiseptic principle, in the treatment of various surgical cases, and I submit a brief abstract of a few of these so far, which I think, so far, warrant the conclusion that it has been applied with benefit; as it possesses some, if not all, of the advantages assigned to carbolic acid in this respect. The petroleum in question was kindly supplied to me by Mr. Goodenough of the firm of Messrs. Mackillop, Stewart and Co., and is a dark oily looking fluid, with a penetrating, though not unpleasant aromatic odour. It struck me that this hydrocarbon might be as efficacious as carbolic acid for surgical purposes; and as it is produced in this country and in Burma, it might be obtained in large quantities and at a smaller cost than carbolic acid, and I have, accordingly, its use brought extensively over a wide range for vegetable purposes. The present memorandum has reference to the use of it as a surgical application, on the antiseptic principle of purifying the parts that undergo access to the blood vessels. This petroleum is produced in India in large quantities in Assam, and from various regions doubtless may be procured; but it should if possible be first examined to be tested for therapeutic and toxic qualities.

I have used it undiluted, or diluted with equal parts of oil, or glycerine, and whilst it certainly has some disinfecting power, it appears also to have that of limiting suppuration, and of restraining the development of septic miasmata in the discharges, whose decomposition it probably retards.

It is also useful as a stimulating and detergent application in sloughing and ulcerating surfaces, and I have remarked, especially in one case of carbuncle, that it proved most efficacious as an external application. It is not irritating, or very slightly so, to raw surfaces, and I have not heard any complaint made beyond that of slight smarting, when it is applied to granulating and ulcerating wounds. The evidence of its virtue is as yet but limited, yet it is such as to suggest the advantage of making further trial of what may prove to be a valuable addition to our surgical resources, and has the advantage of being produced in the country.

CASE I.

Judonath, aged 30, had a large ulcer above the right ankle with a sinus leading to the bone. This had been treated with carbolic acid dressing. Since the 30th April the carbolic has been applied, and the ulcer is granulating healthily, is much contracted and is exuding only with very little discharge. The dressing causes no pain.

CASE II.

Darsi Sirdar had a cystic tumour, size of a walnut, removed from the root of the nose on the 12th April. The carbolic dressing was applied immediately after the operation. The wound had nearly closed, without any suppuration on the 25th April. The integument being redundant however, a portion was removed on the 4th of May, and this wound dressed with earth-oil. It has healed satisfactorily, and he was discharged about the 18th. A small portion of integument sloughed; but there was almost no suppuration.

CASE III.

Degum, aged 35, admitted on the 10th May, 1869, with a deep cut in the upper and inner side of the right arm. No arteries of importance divided. The wound was dressed with petroleum, and it healed rapidly with very slight suppuration.

CASE IV.

Rajeshwary, a Hindoo woman, aged 65, admitted with an ulcer of considerable size in the right leg. There was a profuse fetid discharge with considerable pain. It was dressed on the 30th April with petroleum. The discharge diminished, and the sore assumed a more healthy aspect. To remove thickening round the ulcer, liquor lyttae was applied, and after this the ulcer rapidly granulated with very slight discharge.

CASE V.

M. M., an East Indian, admitted 12th May, 1869, aged 19, with sloughing of cellular tissue of the palm of the right hand. Petroleum applied, and the sore assumed very rapidly a healthy action. The wound is now, 8th June, nearly healed.

CASE VI.

Glimma, a Hindoo female, admitted 29th March, 1869, with a deeply excavated ulcer exposing necrosed bone, near the left cranium. She was extremely syphilitic. The wound was dressed with the petroleum, whilst internally potash iodide and cod liver oil were administered. The sore healed rapidly; the diseased bone separated, and she is now nearly well.

CASE VII.

Hamaich Chindler, aged 50, had a serous tumour removed on the 16th March, 1869. The wound at first was dressed with the carbolic acid dressing, under which it was doing well. On the 30th April the petroleum dressing was substituted, and the wound continues to granulate most favorably, and without almost any suppuration.

CASE VIII.

Mosun Aky, aged 35, had a most extensive serous tumour removed on the 14th April, 1869. Carbolic acid dressing was first used. On the 30th April the petroleum was applied, the wound granulating healthily, and with very little discharge. He is still in hospital.

CASE IX.

S. K. P., aged 19, admitted 14th May, 1869, with a laceration of the forehead by a riding horse, a through and through perforation of the scapula. The scapula was approximated as a first step, and the discharge was very slight. The patient died on the 17th, but 8 days previous to his death the boy was discharged on crutches on a few days later.

CASE X.

K. S., aged 35, admitted 16th May, 1869, eight days after severe gonyorrhoea, swelled and on the left limb; the distal phalanges, except that of the thumb, were all involved. The wound was suppurating when he came in. He has done well since. A collection of matter formed in the forearm, which was let off. But the wound in the hand has cicatrized; and singularly so, in the toes were dressed in a similar manner, and they have done well.

CASE XI.

Chombar, a native, aged 18, admitted 16th May, 1869, for having had his left eye a few years ago by a carriage wheel. Earthoil was used from the very beginning, and the sloughs separated on 15th March, 1869, and the wound cleaned by the 17th March, 1869; and it is now healing up with little discharge.

CASE XII.

Babu, Sheik had his ring finger removed on the 26th April, 1869, with the head of the metacarpal bone, for an injury. The earthoil was used since the 29th. There was never any great discharge from the wound, which began to suppurate on the 30th. Granulations were rapidly growing, that by the 6th, most of the iron wire sutures were seen imbedded within them. Sutures removed on 7th, and cicatrization began on the 9th, and he was discharged on the 20th cure. He never complained of much pain from the oil.

CASE XIII.

J., aged 40, admitted on 10th May, 1869, transferred from the medical wards for an ulcer on the left shin. Earthoil applied. Sore has been contracting, with hardly any discharge, and completely cicatrized.

CASE XIV.

A., aged 39, admitted 2nd May, 1869, for ulcers in his right leg. Earthoil used from the beginning, and liquor hydra applied on 10th May, 1869; the sores nearly healed, though on admission they were each about two inches square. They are now cicatrized.

CASE XV.

G. H. M., aged 28, admitted 6th May, 1869, for a cut in the popliteal space involving some of the hamstring tendons. Earthoil used from the beginning; and the wound has not yet suppurated, though the flaps are becoming adherent now.

CASE XVI.

H., aged 25, admitted 7th May, 1869, from measles, with a boil on his right breast about 6 inches long. Dressed with earthoil from beginning, and it is now very nearly healed. He complains of but slight burning at the beginning. The wound completely cicatrized.

CASE XVII.

A. P., aged 16, had a laceration about 2 inches long on a cheek, which was healed up in about a week and a half with earthoil and flaps.

CASE XVIII.

J. R., aged 20, got two compound wounds on the head on 12th May, 1869, and they were dressed with earthoil from the next day. The sloughs separated on the 17th with some healing, and the wounds have since been healing with slight discharge.

CASE XIX.

A. Khan, a Chit, aged 44, came for a large carbuncle in his back, of a fortnight's duration, a full of dark sloughs, and there is no pain. It is now covered with the oil, and the discharge is diminished so that the sore looks healthy. He recovered completely.

CASE XX.

A. S., aged 45, admitted on 11th May, with a wound in the left eye region. A ball had struck him with his horn, and it entered the abnormal cavity. The intestines protruded, but were retained. He recovered rapidly with leum dressing, without a single bad symptom.

FIBROUS TUMOUR OF THE UPPER JAW —
REMOVAL.

By ASSISTANT SURGEON A. NEIL,

C. I. N. G. O., Lohana.

The patient, of whom a faithful likeness is herewith given (drawing made by Dr. Vachas before the operation) is a young man of 26 years of age. He was admitted into the Lodiana Charitable Dispensary early in May last, but transferred to the Dispensary at Bullandpur, in order that I might have the assistance of Dr. Warburton, the Civil Surgeon of that station, in removing the tumour.



The tumour states that about three years ago there appeared a slight swelling in the cheek, which gradually increased until it reached about half its present size about six months ago. At this time, from some unexplained cause, there occurred a sudden and most profuse hemorrhage in the mouth on the inner surface of the tumour, and after that the whole tumour increased more rapidly in size in every direction, until it more than half closed up the mouth, pushed the tongue over to the left side to a considerable extent, and reached up into the cavity of the orbit, and pushed outwards the zygomatic arch.

Since it has appeared on his presenting himself to me at the dispensary. The teeth, from the upper corner of the left side, were separated from each other and included in the tumour, but they were still irregularly in situ. The hard palate looked to be inflamed, but there was no abrasion of surface. From the size which the tumour had attained in the mouth the soft part of the tumour back of the mouth could not be observed. The right nostril was apparently entirely closed up, but he could speak with apparent ease through the left. The right eye, both from contraction of the tumour and tumefaction of the lower eyelid, was almost invisible, but sight still remained.

On the 11th May I went to Jullundur, and with the aid of Dr. Warburton, the Civil Surgeon, Dr. Verchere, of the 13th Native Infantry, and Dr. Tolmie, of Her Majesty's 92nd Highlanders, I removed the entire tumour. With regard to the steps of the operation there is little to tell, which would not suggest itself on looking at the above sketch of the patient's appearance. He was first put under the effects of chloroform, and the operation was commenced by removing the first bicuspid tooth of the left side. The cheek was raised by first making two incisions, one commencing from the middle line and carried upwards along the right side of the nose to a level with the orbit, the other from the angle of the mouth to a little above the expanded arch of the zygoma. The divided facial artery was then tied, the only artery that required ligature during the whole operation, and the cheek dissected up to a level with the terminations of the two incisions. The zygomatic arch and the point of junction of the maxilla with the frontal were then divided by the saw. The hard palate was divided by a strong pair of scissors, but only kept to within a little distance of its junction with the soft palate, in order that the palatine process of the palate bone might be saved, if possible. The nasal process of the superior maxillary required no division whatever; and the cause of this will be presently explained. The whole mass was now quite movable, and little downward pressure was required to disengage it entirely from its bed. The margin of the orbital plate of the maxillary was included in the tumour and came away with it. No forcible separation from the nasal bones was required. The soft palate was carefully looked to, and it, along with apparently the whole of the palatine process of the palate bone, was preserved entire. There was no hæmorrhage while the mass was being removed from its bed, and no stopping of bleeding by means of actual cautery was required throughout the whole operation. A plate of bone, apparently a part of the orbital plate of the superior maxillary, and doubtless the small orbital process of the palate bone, were left for the support of the orbit. Their structure appeared quite healthy, and their preservation was very desirable. The cavity thus left was cleaned and partially filled with a few fields of lint soaked in a dilution of Condy's Disinfecting Fluid. The cheek, which had of course been held up during the separation and removal of the tumour, was replaced and retained at its borders by wire suture, and a single piece of lint soaked in the same solution placed over. The time occupied by the operation did not extend over twenty minutes. I left the lad under the care of Dr. Warburton.

After-treatment and progress.—At 10 p.m., four hours after the operation, a grain of opium in an ounce of camphor mixture was administered.

12th.—Slept well during the night. Parts cleaned externally with a fresh piece of lint, and solution applied. No hæmorrhage from the wound. Slightly feverish early in the morning, and more so towards afternoon. Diaphoretic mixture ordered.

13th.—Did not sleep well during the night. Skin still hot. Pulse hard and rapid. Lint removed from the cavity, and fresh lint soaked in diluted Disinfecting Fluid again introduced. Bowels opened. Continue Diaphoretic mixture.

14th.—Slept well during the night; bowels moved once. Has slight fever. Continue mixture.

15th and 16th.—Still slight fever.

17th.—From this date to the 7th of June the patient improved steadily. The parts healed mostly by the first intention, except near the lip, where a slight tendency to sloughing appeared, but was on checked. On the 19th, the ligature was removed from the facial artery and the lint taken out of the cavity, in which a healthy granulation was very apparent. It was cleaned out daily by syringing with Condy's Disinfecting Fluid.

7th June.—Discharge quite well.

About a week after the date of his discharge, he presented himself at the Louisiana Dispensary and exhibited himself as quite free from pain or uneasiness. The nose had fallen back very considerably towards its natural position. The right eyelids were as widely open as the left. The cavity appeared gradually filling up with healthy granulations. He could articulate so as to be readily understood by those about him.

REMARKS.—This is a case in which the large maxillary bone, with the apparent exception of a portion of the orbital process, had been replaced by bony structure. In its general and microscopic structure there is no departure from the ordinary characters of the bone of tumours which are common to this as well as to other bones of the face. The tumour had not its origin in the antrum, which is enlarged and contained a large quantity of serous fluid, retained thereby distention of the opening and in the natural condition of the parts, the maxilla, with the

middle meatus of the nose. The mucous membrane of the antrum is very much thickened and is the only structure forming its wall, it very nearly the portion of the orbital process which forms its roof in the natural state. None of the surrounding bones appeared at all affected, and indeed the generally smooth surface of the tumour leads to the belief that they have escaped.

A solitary instance of success in a case where the disease had attained a very formidable dimension, scarcely excites me to speak with confidence of future successes in operations of the same kind. Yet I cannot help stating that the operation is neither so difficult nor so hazardous as one would be naturally led to anticipate, and judging from my own feelings of anxiety before I undertook to perform it, I am inclined to believe that the formidable appearances which these tumours often present, the dread of uncontrollable hæmorrhages, and an over-estimate of the difficulties attending the operation generally, have led to many deferred and abandoned attempts.

THREE CASES OF TYPHOID FEVER.*

BY ASSISTANT SURGEON A. DOIG,
79th Highlanders.

[Communicated by Dr. W. Murray, c. w., Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals, II. M.'s Forces.]

PRIVATE JAMES MUIR, 92nd Highlanders, age 26, service eight years, time in India 1½, married, was sent up from Jullundur as one of the convalescents of the season. At Jullundur he is said to have had repeated attacks of fever, which so debilitated him, that a change to the hills was considered necessary for his recovery. He arrived here on the 16th April, and was on that day admitted to hospital. Then he was suffering from fever daily, with but slight intermissions. The form of fever is described as remittent. His general state was very low, and tongue and mouth covered with sores. No further statement of his symptoms is given at this period. He was treated with quinine in full doses, and stimulants were given. On the 22nd April he is stated to have been very low and feverish, and an inflammatory swelling on right side of the neck made its appearance, which suppurated, and was incised on the 27th of the month. On the 28th April he is described as improving; and the abscess discharging healthy pus. On the 3rd May the febrile symptoms appear to have returned, and he was in a low drowsy state with delirium at night.

On the 12th May he came under my charge. He was then suffering from a low typhoid form of fever. He was in a dull listless sort of state; had to be spoken to in a loud tone before he would answer questions. Tongue had a dusky sallow hue, and was hot and pungent. Tongue brown and furred; a little sore at the root; pulse rapid and small, 115; slept well during the previous night; had no delirium, but most profuse sweating. There was no diarrhoea or tenderness of abdomen. Bowels were stated not to have been opened for three days, there was no eruption. Quinine, bed-tea, and wine were ordered. In the evening pulse was 118, skin very hot and pungent; had a drowsy, stupid look; bowels moved once during the day; motion loose, entirely feculent and of natural colour, no tenderness of abdomen.

May 13th, *Morn.*—In a very low state; wandered a little during the night; had most profuse sweating, his whole bedding being saturated; was in a dull, drowsy state, skin dusky, very hot and dry; pulse 120, bowels moved twice during the night; motion had a greenish colour, and was about the consistence of pea-soup. There was a little tenderness and gagging on pressure over the iliac region. No eruption present. Another small abscess on the left side of the neck burst during the night. Quinine, bed-tea, and wine continued.

May 14th, *General state much the same as in the morning; bowels moved twice during the day; motion of the same colour, and consistence as that passed during the night, but contained a little mucus; abdomen slightly swollen and tender all over; pulse 118, tongue and mouth very foul; could with difficulty be made to answer questions; pulse very feeble, 120; skin very hot during the night; motion had the same colour and consistence as on most previous evenings; during the day the colour of the motion had become red, and the*

* From the *Journal of the Army Medical Department*.

lined, which he also wore, was torn in several places, but showed no signs of having been burnt. The clothes he wore were: 1st, regimental coat, which was rent up the back in several places; 2nd, two light under shirts also rent up the back; 3rd, pyjamas rent down the left thigh. None of these showed any signs of having been burnt, nor was any cloth deficient. The burns were dressed, and the man forwarded to the Field Hospital at Ogleby.

October 23, Camp Ogleby.—Re-admitted to regimental hospital tents much reduced in strength and weight, considerable foal discharge, as might be expected from so large a raw surface, and two large patches of rather deep sloughs in process of separation. No part of the burn has yet begun to heal. Ordered tonics, brandy, and morphia at night. To be dressed with calamine ointment. The burn now healed very rapidly, and under the influence of good food, &c., and scrupulous attention to cleanliness, his health rapidly improved.

November 17.—Perfectly well; with the exception of slight contraction of the left thigh; leave for three months.

CASE II.

Jewant Sing, sepoy, No. 1 Company, age 25, healthy. The whole length of the back of the left thigh was severely burnt; he was not sensible so long as the other two. Bayonet struck in three places, presenting the same appearance as in the former case; brass end of bayonet case struck in one place. The clothes he wore were: 1st, choga (cloak), which was spread over him, was rent and torn in several places up the back; 2nd, coat and shirt, neither of them touched; 3rd, pyjamas rent and torn in front and down the left thigh; 4th, pyjamae torn in several places. No signs of having been burnt were apparent in any of the clothes he wore, nor was any cloth deficient. Dressed and sent to Field Hospital, Ogleby.

October 23, Camp Ogleby.—Re-admitted to regimental hospital tents, showed scarcely any constitutional disturbance; the burn was very painful, and a considerable slough was in process of separation, much foal discharge. Tonic and brandy, dress with carbolic acid, one part to seven of linseed oil. This however did not seem to suit it, and was afterwards changed for calamine ointment. After the separation of the slough the burn was slow of healing, and was not complete till the 10th of January, 1869.

January 12.—Leave to proceed to his home for three months; the burn is quite healed; there is slight contraction of the leg, but not more than will, I think, be easily overcome by time and gentle use.

CASE III.

Clauda Sing, sepoy, No. 1 Company, age 30, healthy. The burn extended all over the back from the shoulder to the loins, and slightly down both thighs; it was mostly superficial, but here and there were deeply burnt. The leather of the cartridge box, which he wore, was rent in several places, chiefly down the stretching, and the lining of the compartment containing the caps was struck and bent. Bayonet struck near the point, and a piece of the wooden stock of his musket was clipped off. There were no signs of burning. The clothes he wore were: 1st, choga (cloak), which was spread over him, rent up the back in several places; 2nd, regimental coat, rent and torn in several places up the back, and showed no signs of having been burnt on the edges of the coats; 3rd, two under shirts rent completely up the back, no signs of burning; 4th, pyjamas rent down the left thigh, no signs of burning; 5th, regimental trousers on which his head reclined were rent, and showed signs of burning over left thigh and right leg. Dressed and sent to Field Hospital at Ogleby.

October 23, Camp Ogleby.—Re-admitted to regimental hospital tents, much reduced in strength and weight; considerable foal discharge, and over the back were three patches of sloughs in process of separation. Ordered tonics, brandy, and morphia at night. To be dressed with calamine ointment; sloughs soon separated, and the healing was very rapid. His health soon improved, and on the 17th November being quite well, was allowed to proceed to his home on three months' leave.

CHRONIC ARSENICAL POISONING—COMPLETE RECOVERY.

By A. S. G. JAYAKAR, F.R.C.P., F.R.M.S., LONDON.

It rarely falls to the lot of the Indian practitioner to meet with cases of chronic poisoning by arsenic. This may be due

principally to the large quantity of arsenic which is generally either administered or taken for homicidal or suicidal purposes in this country. Amongst the symptoms which mark their appearance gradually after the administration of the poison, those in connexion with the nervous system are not very common. On the contrary, a method man is often thrown off his guard while trying to discover the cause of such symptoms, as the nodes of the present case will fully illustrate.

Foola Mema, a cultivator, aged 35, was admitted into the Hatterings Hospital, Ahmedabad, on the 8th of February, 1859, with an extensive fungous disease of right foot, which presented a number of sinuses on its front aspect, discharging a copious quantity of black fungous matter. On his admission he complained of anaesthesia of both the hands, which was then supposed to be due to the commencing stage of lepra anaesthetica. The fungous disease itself was of 12 years' standing, having arisen in a local injury to the sole of the foot caused by a stone. His right leg was amputated the day after his admission, about three inches below the tubercle of the tibia. The stump progressed very satisfactorily, excepting an attack of secondary hemorrhage which he had on the night following the operation. On the 11th of February, the anaesthesia in the hands having increased, I directed more attention to that symptom. The hands were found partially paralysed, and the flexors of the fingers strongly contracted. On going more carefully into the history of the case, it was discovered that, two months before his admission into the hospital, he had applied to a *Hakeem* for the cure of his foot. The *Hakeem* had applied a poultice for about a week, containing nearly three ounces of arsenic and an incredible quantity of cayenne pepper (7 lbs.). This having given rise to constant vomiting and purging, the arsenic was omitted after the second application. It was followed by a burning sensation all throughout the body, which continued to be present after the operation in the extremities, the stump not excepted. The symptoms in the hands made their first appearance a fortnight after the last application. The patient was ordered to take potas. bromide, gr. viii, tinct. bellad. ℥ss, sp. chloroformi ℥ssss, aqua comph. ℥iij, ℥iij, thrice daily. Under this treatment he went on gradually improving, the stump soon healed, but the nervous symptoms remaining, the treatment was continued till the 17th of April, when he was discharged cured.

CASE OF LOCOMOTOR ATAXY.

By ASSISTANT SURGEON B. EVELES,

18th Native Infantry.

Locomotor ataxy is, in my opinion, a disease that is much more common in India than is generally suspected. In almost every case, the patient complains of "shooting pains" in the extremities, and the disease may be mistaken for rheumatism. This in the early stage of the disease, but when the symptoms have progressed so far as paralysis, the case again is returned as one of pure ordinary *india* paralysis under the head of paraplegia.

The following are the particulars of a case, that was reported by me to the Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals of the Allahabad Circle, in April last.

A soldier 28, a sepoy in the 18th Native Infantry, was admitted into hospital on the 23rd March, 1869, on coming of slight difficulty in breathing, slight palpitation, and great weakness in the lower extremities, with a sense of tingling when the feet came in contact with the ground, that same kind of feeling which one experiences on attempting to walk, when the foot is known to be "ask-ep." The patient's legs trembled under him when he stood. I have seen cases of extreme tremor in the extremities induced by excessive tobacco-smoking, and thinking that the man might have indulged too much in that way, I took measures to prevent his doing so again. The dyspnoea and palpitation disappeared in a few days, but the patient still complained of increasing weakness in the legs. The limbs were well developed, and the muscles all appeared quite healthy. He did not tremble so much now when he stood. On his attempting to walk, I observed that there was a certain amount of pressure only so far as locomotion was concerned, but that all *weight-bearing* power was lost. His gait, on attempting to walk with his eyes shut, although attendants were by to support him, was one of necessity, became very staggering indeed. He reported that his legs that he might *break* them. Not the slightest anaesthesia present anywhere. Intellect quite clear.

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In the Press.

A TREATISE ON ASIATIC CHOLERA.

BY

C. MACNAMARA,

Surgeon to the Calcutta Ophthalmic Hospital.

Messrs. WYMAN & Co., Hare Street, Calcutta, will be glad to receive early orders for this work, so as to enable them to procure copies from England, immediately on the issue of the Book from the Press.

DRINKING WATER IN BENGAL.

The fifth report by Dr. F. Macnamara on the analysis of potable waters recently published, shows that, except where drinking water is taken from the main rivers of India, at two or three stations perhaps out of the many, its source and method of supply are alike disgraceful, and unworthy of the knowledge and wealth of the country.

These reports have been publishing during the last two and a half years under Dr. F. Macnamara's superintendence, and we can now ascertain the character of the drinking water in use at fifty stations of the army, we will examine the account in the cantonments of Bengal Proper.

Fort William (Calcutta) is the only station in the Presidency where a water-supply for the garrison (one British Regiment and Artillery and one Native Regiment) is laid on and distributed by mechanical appliances. The surface rain-fall water is collected in two large tanks on the glacis, thence it is pumped into a reservoir high on the ramparts, and from this it is distributed by mains and hydrants throughout the barracks and etc.

temperature (in the axilla) averaged 98.3°F. at 6 a.m., 100°F. at 12 noon, and 101°F. at 6 p.m., the highest registered being 102.2°F. There was no cough, but the respiration were quickened, being on an average 26 per minute; the extremes were 20 and 36.

There was a white furred tongue with loss of appetite from the first. The stools were natural in colour and consistence till four days before death, when a dysenteric diarrhoea set in. The urine was clear, rather paler than natural, of an average specific gravity of 1015, decidedly acid in reaction. In only one instance was it cloudy from lithates, and of specific gravity 1028. The average amount secreted in 24 hours was forty ounces (nearly), the extremes being twenty, and forty-eight.

Edema of the ankles, dysenteric diarrhoea and hiccup preceded death, which occurred at 3 a.m. of 1st February, 1869, after an illness of about four months. Autopsy, nine hours after death. Body rather emaciated, but of precisely 90½ lbs., the primary weight of the prisoner fourteen months previously. Rigor mortis still present.

The peritonium contained about two ounces of straw-coloured fluid, but was nearly and shining, and presented no signs of inflammation.

The liver was very large, weighing one hundred and fifty-five ounces, nearly one-ninth of the body weight. It was of a dull, yellowish brown colour, and had its surface studded with elevated yellowish white, moderately firm nodules, varying in size from a hazel nut to an orange. It cut firmly and exhibited sections of similar masses. One was the size of a small cucumber, occupied the whole thickness of the right lobe, and was softened in the centre into a yellowish gummy matter consisting of fatty cancer cells and oil globules. The cancer masses were pretty uniformly distributed, and occupied nearly the whole organ. The intervening tissue was mottled greenish-yellow, the centres of the lobules being green, and the outer parts yellow. The cells of the latter were seen to be fatty under the microscope. The gall bladder was empty.

The mucous membrane of the large intestine was of a slate grey colour, more or less congested on the transverse folds. Some whitish hard cancerous deposits, half the size of a pin's head, were found arranged in irregular lines on those congested folds in the transverse and descending colon; in the sigmoid flexure these deposits were smaller and more universally diffused, and here there was oedema of the mucous membrane.

The lungs were moderately collapsed, and seemed healthy, except that the pleural surface of each was studded with hard cancerous tubercles about the size of a pin's head, at about five to the square inch on the pleurae of the base and fissures, and one or two to the square inch on that of the apex. Some of these appeared as white prominences, others as blood-red spots with yellow centres. No other pleurae contained fluid. The spleen presented thickening of the capsule over a surface to which the liver was adherent. It was healthy. The kidneys were small and fatty. The brain and other organs seemed healthy.

Answer to Correspondents.

In reply to a communication from *Natives*, *Doctors*, *concerning their receipt of the new code of regulations for Education in the G. O. No. 5509 of 5th June, 1868, we will state for the benefit of those who have not a copy of it that we have compiled the right and correct copy of such administration of it for the Bengal Presidency, under the sanction of the Head of the Department, that when those who are in the receipt of the original copy, or a copy of it will be very glad, should send the same, upon application, to any of our Native Doctors in the service, and that they, but not tell them, even the whole question, be settled.*

Notices to Correspondents.

Communications to be sent to the Editor.

- Dr. FAYE, U.S.A.
- Native Assistant Surgeon BANYAMORE, B. B.
- Natives A. CHOL, D.D.S., M.D.
- Assistant Surgeon D. P. PALMER, M.D.
- Surgeon A. WACHLEN, R.A.
- Dr. MELROY, D.D.S.
- Assistant Surgeon B. EVERS.

Acknowledgments.

- Lancet, Medical Times, and Gazette.
- British Medical Journal.
- Proceedings of the Sanitary Commission, June.
- Medical Review of Calcutta.
- Gk. Report of Sanitary Charitable Dispensary.

The real existence as a result of direct transmission is very doubtful. The occurrence of fracture of bone, or extravasation of blood, opposite the part of the skull which has been struck, being rather attributable to the lateralization of vibrations resulting from the varied consistency of the coverings of the skull, the structure of the diploe, and the great density of the vitreous tunic.

The structure of the interior of the skull also favors lateral vibration of shock, rather than direct transmission; and so adjusted are its provisions that as much injury is to be apprehended from their influence where they meet, after travelling round the skull, as at the part where they were set going. Hence it is that ecchymosis and laceration of the cerebral substance is found at one of these points nearly as often as at the other. Fracture of the base occurs from the same cause; the disturbing influence of severe vibrations, the skull having given way at the weakest point, as any other body of unequal strength at different parts, would, if allowed to fall, or be in any way subjected to violent concussion, break where it was weakest. If this opinion is correct, as the writer believes, it will be seen that the term *Contre-Coup* is fanciful and unnecessary. That both the opposite fracture and extravasation, or ecchymosis, are the natural results of a mis-direction of what was intended to assist in securing the safety of the contents of the skull, *viz.*, lateral vibration, as opposed to direct impulse or transmission.

THE NAGPORE MEDICAL SCHOOL.

THE second annual report of this institution has lately reached us. It is peculiarly worthy of our notice, for the Chief Commissioner, in March, 1867, forwarding to Government the scheme for its establishment proposed by the Civil Surgeon, Dr. Townsend, remarks that it is prepared on the principles recently suggested in the *Indian Medical Gazette*. Government sanctioned the establishment in the following June, and the first session soon after commenced.

Thirty-three pupils were under instruction, at the close of the last session in April, of whom a large proportion are Mussulmans: by next year the majority are expected to be capable of entering the service of Government as well grounded and educated hospital assistants. English training, also, has not been neglected, for the present superintendent, Dr. Beaton, himself gives instruction in that language three times a week.

The Chief Commissioner, in his review of the year's proceedings, remarks on the importance of cultivating the adherence of the principal race of the Central Provinces, the *Mahratta Brahmin*; but hitherto attempts to educate them have been a failure. It appears that they object to touch a corpse, except that of a Brahmin; they possess little aptitude or liking for the study of medicine; are very prejudiced, and are incapable of appreciating information. The two men of this class who were present throughout the first session failed even to learn the names of the bones of the skeleton in that time.

The Chief Commissioner gives a hearty acknowledgment to the earnestness of Dr. Beaton's superintendence. The work of the school seems to have been admirably carried out by the three masters, sub-assistant surgeons, one of whom teaches anatomy and surgery, a second, materia medica and chemistry, and the third, physiology and the practice of medicine. During

last winter, 21 bodies were dissected, and a demonstrator of anatomy was especially engaged during that time.

There appears, however, to be one great and crying want, not only for the proper clinical teaching of these pupils, but for the charitable mitigation of disease at this station, the head quarters of the Governor of the Central Provinces: there is no proper hospital.

The city hospital now consists of two unventilated and leaky sheds, built end on to the prevailing wind, and, in every way unfit, both from space, position, and structure, for the purpose to which they have been temporarily applied. "The construction of a new city hospital is under the Chief Commissioner's consideration," but the Government appears to have long evaded the expense of proper buildings, although some support has now been promised. There seems still, however, a lukewarmness of the authorities on the subject, which can hardly be understood at this distance, in contrast with the energetic administration of the district generally.

The school certainly is prospering; and if it turns out soundly educated hospital assistants at the end of its third session, it will have admirably fulfilled the want that it was intended to supply.

BOILS.

A RECENT *Indian Public Opinion* has an article upon this subject. He asks if there is no cure for them? no course of diet or medicine that will prevent them? We think not, but much can be done to mitigate them; we believe, however, that they will ever appear in certain skins and temperaments as the result of long continuance of external heat; they are a real local inflammation in fact caused by heat, to be subdued by a few days' residence in a cooler climate. We speak merely of the ordinary and simple form; there are many varieties, some depending on a depraved state of blood from bad food, water, &c.

The article in question thus concludes:—

"Who has not heard the dictum that boils are healthy? A healthy body surely has not so much bad matter to eliminate. It is surely an insult to a man lying sick for eight or ten days with a most painful disease to tell him he is only showing signs of being very healthy. At this season of the year, hundreds all over India, both on the plains, and in the hills, are groaning under this affliction and seeking a cure. Is there no specific for it, nothing to clear the blood or diminish the pain?"

CHOLERA HOSPITALS.

WE understand that arrangements are being made for the immediate erection of a building, near the Medical College Hospital, where cholera cases can be treated separately; and also that a similar building is to be built near the Native Hospital from the private funds of that institution.

Hitherto native cholera patients have been treated in the same wards as other sick, a practice alike painful to their feelings and dangerous to their health. In the regimental hospitals of the British army such a procedure is almost unknown, but space has always been available, and perhaps the principle of segregation has been more recognized.

The difference of the two systems is shown in that since the year 1861, 66 patients (natives) in the Medical College

It is not admitted for various reasons. I have seen an attack of cholera in a woman 75 years of age while in the Presidency General Hospital for Europeans which is managed on the basis of a well ordered British Hospital, but cases only have

occurred during the last twelve years in which cholera has prevailed generally in the wards. These had been all admitted from India, and it is not very probably the fault of cholera in their system of diet but of food.

For the six years past and ever since the natives attacks of cholera have been entirely segregated from the healthy population. The hospitals and buildings provided for the purpose, but we are glad to see that these measures, which are carried out "by division and isolation," are being now definitely laid down as a system by the Government.

India is now directed that whenever cholera appears in an epidemic form among the general population of military cantonments or temporary camps or huts are to be placed in the outskirts of cantonments, and a very liberal establishment granted for their maintenance.

NATIVE MIDWIVES.

Dr. COMBES, the Civil Surgeon of Bangalore, in his report to the Report on Dispensaries for the year 1897, gives an account of the establishment of a school for educating native females in midwifery. There are a few medical officers in India who have not witnessed most horrible and fatal cases from the ignorance and intimation of the present class of "Dhals," the movement, therefore, is an enlightened one and well worthy of extension. At a meeting of the committee of the Charitable Dispensary, a wealthy banker of the city, Mr. Lalla Lakshmi Narain, read a paper, setting forth the great evil and mortality that resulted in all cases of female society from the ignorance and prejudice of their midwives, and the need that was felt of trained and educated nurses, and he went so far as to state as a fact that any respectable native would rather let his wife, sister, or mother, die than permit her to be examined by any one of the opposite sex. At his suggestion the Dispensary Committee decided to try the experiment of educating a few female nurses, and as a beginning, I entertained five professional midwives who are well known in the city. The sub-assistant surgeon is taken to them daily in the dispensary, under my superintendence. They are making a very fair progress in the knowledge of the female structure. They still continue their usual occupations in the city, but every bath at which they preside is attended by the dispensary, and at this system is kept up, and a number of our citizens, and foreigners, may, perhaps, in a measure, receive some check. When first they came to the dispensary, although called professional midwives, their utter ignorance of every thing connected with midwifery quite astonished Mr. Lalla Lakshmi Narain, and from that time and of ever since I, during pasturage, enjoy the use of knowledge and skill.

SUBSOIL WATER.

At March 1st, Dr. Cunningham and I carried out a motion experiment to test the value of the "P" in the "P" theory of the propagation of cholera in the subsoil water of Calcutta by

drawing the water from the level of subsoil water, they also carried out experiments to be undertaken in Oadh.

The measurements are now ordered by the Government of India to be carried out in every military cantonment, and most civil stations, throughout the Bengal Presidency. The only next year will give us some very curious results, or at all events, a very enlightening whole of this subject, which I hope to swallow very constructively as regards the drainage of the country and streams, through we would at it will add much to our knowledge as to the cause of cholera.

The following memorandum has been prepared, showing what the "P" in the theory really is, and the means that should be employed in testing it.

A.—FRESH WATER THEORY.—

1. *Fresh water* of cholera is developed from a germ, which, as long as it remains a germ, is not capable of producing the disease.

2. *Fresh water* is developed into infecting matter in the subsoil, if the soil is a suitable nidus.

3. *Fresh water*, if the superimposed layers be permeable the infecting matter ascends and produces the disease.

4. *Fresh water* matter may enter water and render it poisonous.

5. *Fresh water* is not capable of undergoing development in water.

6. The conditions in the subsoil rendering it a suitable nidus for the germs are—

(a) *A certain degree of moisture*.—A soil may be either too dry or too wet to favor the development of the germs, so that an excess of moisture in the former, and a decrease in the latter, will produce a like result.

(b) *The presence of organic matter*.—In any permeable soil, it almost invariably results that organic impurities are washed down through it, and accumulate in the subsoil water, or, in other words, over the first impermeable layer.

B.—POINTS TO BE OBSERVED IN TESTING THE THEORY.—

There are various, comprising the nature of the soil, &c., but the most important is the following, viz:—

The association of the occurrence of cholera in any locality with a change in the amount of subsoil moisture, the development and decline of an outbreak coincident with alterations in the amount of subsoil moisture, and if so, what are these alterations?

C.—METHOD OF CONDUCTING OBSERVATIONS ON SUBSOIL MOISTURE.—

The level of the water in wells kept exclusively for the purpose is the best means of estimating the amount of subsoil moisture.

The variations of water level in such wells can be most satisfactorily observed by means of a simple apparatus.

TATHES AT NIGHT.

The Government of India have issued an order directing that, where considered necessary by the medical officer of a regiment, there shall be used at night in barracks, hospitals,

* There is a thin mat-like membrane up with the walls of each of the hollow tubes (A) and in some cases (B) and placed in order to fill up the joints between the tubes. It is slowly blowing through the screen kept tight to prevent the entrance of air or any other gas.

and cells, whenever at 9 p.m. the thermometer indicates a temperature of, or in excess of 95 F.; provided the wind is not from the east, when tatties can have no good effect, as then the air is already too moist to cause evaporation, and their use, in such circumstances, only adds to the distress occasioned by the excessive temperature.

FEES FOR INQUESTS.

It has recently been ruled by the Government of India that when a medical officer, other than a civil surgeon or officer in medical charge of a civil station, is summoned to give evidence in a Criminal Court, touching the result of a *post-mortem* or other examination conducted by him, in cases not falling within the ordinary discharge of his duties, he should receive a fee of Rs. 16 in addition to the usual expenses payable to witnesses.

With such restrictions, however, the Government will not have to disburse the money very often.

JAMAICA MEDICAL NEWS.

SEVERAL interesting particulars relating to medical matters in Jamaica have reached us (*The Lancet*) by the last mail. In the first place, cinchona cultivation seems to be progressing favorably. About 20,000 young plants of the *C. officinalis*, and 10,000 of the *C. Saccubra* will be ready for sale at the government plantations early next year. The trees grow with surprising luxuriance, as has been evinced by upwards of 1,000 plants, temporarily planted fourteen months ago, then a few inches high, being from now three to four feet in height. The Jamaica Lunatic Asylum has been much improved in its management, but it is overcrowded, and two new ranges of buildings are to be erected. Yellow fever has now left the island; good results have been obtained in the treatment of cases of this disease by the free exhibition of carbolic acid. The dry-earth system has been adopted with great success in several of the public institutions. A board of examiners is to be appointed under the Medical Act of 1859, to examine medical men wishing to practice who do not possess a British degree. The new Medical Bill has not yet been brought before the Legislative Council. What it will be is not yet known, but it is hoped that it will be of such a nature as to hold out advantages to medical men to settle in the country districts, where they are so much needed.

EXTENSION OF KNOWLEDGE IN RAJPOOTANA.

JYPORE.—The *Indian Volunteer Gazette* remarks:—In our last we noticed the formation of the Rajpootana Social Science Congress, and placed before our readers the objects of the Association. We understand that at a recent meeting of the Congress Dr Valentine was enabled to pass a bill for bringing in all the sons of the nobles of Jeypore, from 8 to 18 years of age, into the capital of Jeypore for instruction. The bill was in abstract as follows:—

“That the nobles of Jeypore in order to feel the responsibility that rests upon them in the exalted positions in which they have been placed by Divine Providence to govern and regulate the affairs of their subjects, and that they may be taught the principles upon which all good government depends, the Jey-

pore Social Science Congress would recommend His Highness the Maharajah to use his influence with the chiefs to send in their sons to Jeypore for education.

“The Social Science Congress would further recommend to His Highness the Maharajah the establishment of a separate school to be entitled the Jeypore Nobles’ School, with a competent staff of teachers in Sanscrit, Hindee, Arabic, Persian, Oordoo and English;—where lectures in the natural and physical sciences should be delivered, and instruction afforded in the higher branches of education not generally taught in public schools, such as social and political economy.

“That His Highness the Maharajah be recommended to establish scholarships and prizes for those students who shall distinguish themselves in their studies.

“That His Highness the Maharajah should establish a large boarding house, with ample accommodation for the pupils and their suite, attached to which there should be a riding school and gymnasium, with regular hours set apart for instruction in riding, the sword exercise, and other athletic exercises. The object being to qualify the pupils both mentally and physically for the high position which they will be called upon to occupy.”

The bill was laid before His Highness the Maharajah in Council by the Prime Minister, Nawab Faiz Ally Khan Bahadour, who is president of the Congress, and who takes a lively interest in all matters concerning the welfare of the state. His Highness the Maharajah highly approved of the recommendations of the Congress, and entered into arrangements for their being carried out.

THE *Lancet* notes that, in the Annual Report of the Coroner for Central Middlesex, Dr. Lankester complains of the imperfection of post-mortem examinations. In a case of sudden death, a medical man, having opened the head, and finding an effusion of serum, gave a certificate to that effect. The post-mortem examination was completed by another medical man, who, on examining the chest, found that a piece of meat had got into the larynx, and had caused death by suffocation. Dr. Lankester suggests that, if the Coroner could command in all cases the services of a competent expert to make post-mortems, it would contribute to the interests of justice. For ourselves we look rather to a general improvement in the qualification of medical men, and we are by no means sure that the employment of experts would not be a greater evil than the occasional miscarriage of justice under the existing plan.

THE *Zooner* remarks that Dr. Moore’s Report on the working of the Dispensaries in Rajpootana during 1863 confirms what was previously known, or at least very strongly suspected, viz., that the sanitarium of Aboo suffers more from intermittent fever of a malarious type than any station in the plains, owing to the malarious nature of its climate. Among the European population, however, owing to better sanitation and drainage, this malarious fever at Aboo has been brought within more manageable dimensions.

Dr. Moore justly observes that, in adopting measures to prevent malarious fever, a blow is at the same time struck at many other diseases, such as liver complaint, dysentery, pleurisy, &c., which take so much mortality in India.

no little astonishment to hear of doses of opium, equivalent to *fifteen or eighteen grains*, being swallowed repeatedly without producing any ill effect. On this point, I have ascertained that the opium in use at that period was *buzar opium* grown in the province of Mysore, or the Hyderabad country. The Mysore opium was certainly of good quality, as it is to this day, but I can't say what Hyderabad opium may be like. Only late in the year 1867 did the Medical Board make arrangements to secure regular supplies of "Patna opium" for hospital use. But with opium of any known quality, we should hesitate in these days, in the use of doses so heroic. In the second place, we can scarcely avoid noticing the severity of the types of dysentery prevailing amongst our European troops sixty years ago. We see, now-a-days, occasionally dysentery of the true hemorrhagic type, but it is not a common thing to find, as did Mr. Howard in Her Majesty's 30th Regiment at Wallajabad, that men "on guard, at parade, or in bed, became first cognizant of the existence of their malady by passing a large quantity of fluid blood unattended with gripping or tenesmus."

Dysentery in those days had more of the epidemic character than we often see in the present time. In some Regiments, I notice that the monthly returns give from 70 up to 150 cases under one treatment at one time.

Flux, next to fevers, was the commonest disease of the period. Looking back to the condition of the British soldier, to his accommodation, and habits of life, and to the severity of the disorder in particular corps and stations, one cannot help suspecting that the disease at that time often assumed a contagious form, such as in modern times, with improved barrack space, and the absence of foul privies, we rarely witness.

But in those almost forgotten days, we must bear in mind that although violent "fluxes" destroyed vast numbers of British troops, they were happily strangers to that mysterious pest of modern times, against which all the resources of our art appear to be powerless. The very name of "cholera" rarely appears in the official returns of the Medical Board, prior to the time of the great outbreak of 1817.

(To be continued.)

Official Selections.

EXTRACTS FROM THE RECORDS OF THE BENGAL MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

Pro. 1st April, 1789.—All regimental baggage would seem to be carried on elephants at this period. The 1st Battalion of Europeans was obliged to await the arrival of the animals in changing station from Dum-Dum to Berhampore.

Pro. 22nd April.—It would appear that surgeons were not allowed leave to Europe. The Board reports to the "Secretary to the Military Department of Inspection" that "there are no surgeons in Europe on leave of absence, as they were all obliged to resign the service before they took their departure from Bengal."

Pro. 30th April.—The Board are informed by the Secretary to the Government "that the Governor-General in Council has passed a resolution, that the Secretary to Government should be authorized to send to the Secretaries of the subordinate Boards for any papers required to elucidate points before the Government, and that, on information from him, the papers should be furnished at once without waiting to copy."

Pro. 15th June.—The price of wine and empty bottles and freight is noted in the following account from Mr. John Ferguson, one of the head merchants of Calcutta.—

| | |
|--|----------|
| Average cost of 1 pipe of good madeira at Calcutta | Rs. 400 |
| Freight to Dinnapore and Cuttack | " 15 |
| Rowana duties | " 16 |
| | 431 |
| Risk of the river at 5 per cent. | Rs. 23-8 |
| 40 dozen empty bottles for drawing off at per 100 | " 77 0 |

Pro. 24th July.—In the Boards which periodically assemble to examine recruits as they arrived, selection was always made by the other commanding artillery of men deemed fit to serve in that corps.

Pro. 29th August.—Captain Henry Grace having compiled a digest of the existing military regulation, the Governor-General directs that the work shall be revised in the several departments to which the different sections appertain.

The Head Surgeon of Berhampore writes to ask for an allowance of house-rent, as he has to pay Rs. 140 a month for a house at a distance from the cantonment of the three European Regiments, which obliges him to keep a carriage; adds it a singular case, because at the upper stations, head surgeons can better accommodate themselves with habitations, and at Dinnapore there is a house for him; Rs. 90 a month is eventually recommended to him by the Board.

The Hospital Board, in answer to an inquiry from the Military Board regarding extension of hospital at Cawnpore, for reception of insane or infectious patients, or whether such should be housed in separate buildings, reply that the latter plan (detached buildings) is certainly best when required for the above classes; but they do not see the necessity for incurring the expense for either, as "infectious disorders in this climate are seldom met with, except small-pox, and a temporary building for such patients can always be procured at the season when it is prevalent, while an insane hospital exists at Calcutta, to which all such patients should be sent."

Pro. 23rd Oct.—An assistant-surgeon of artillery of three years' service, in Fort William, appeals to the Commander-in-Chief against his commanding officer, "who has unjustly interfered with my treatment as a surgeon," apparently having stated that he had mis-treated a corporal of artillery recently deceased. The Commander-in-Chief orders the Board to assemble and examine the assistant surgeon regarding his treatment of the case, with direction to call for such witnesses and evidence as they require. The Board reports unfavourably of the treatment applied to the case, and the Commander-in-Chief orders the assistant surgeon to be removed from the artillery, and to attend the Presidency Hospital as a pupil, and not to be permitted to prescribe until the head surgeon can report favourably of him.

1790.

12th Feb.—The Board furnishes the Government (by order) with a "comparative statement of the annual expenses of the Medical Department, under the present system, and under that which prevailed before the receipt of the Honble Company's regulation of 21st September, 1785. The best comparative statements we could form upon systems, &c., so dissimilar."

The total expenditure of the whole medical, military, and civil establishments for one year by the system of 1785 was Rs. 5,09,779. According to the system introduced in 1788, it was Rs. 7,53,490. (The budget for the civil medical service only, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal alone, is now Rs. 9,86,316.)

Pro. 5th April.—Explanatory of certain over expenditure in bazam medicine, it is stated "easton oil is deemed a much more effectual purgative in most complaints which occur here (Chunar) than salts. Infusions of senna, tamarind, and casta do not appear to excite the same heat and thirst as solutions of salt, and are consequently often preferred. Thus, while the expenditure of these medicines is increased, the far greater expense of Europe medicine on salts, &c., is saved to the Company."

Pro. 21st April.—The head surgeon at Chunar reports to the Board the enormous profits the payveyor must make; thus "all the articles in the enclosed list (of payveyor) are at least 50 per cent. cheaper in Chunar Bazam than in the payveyor's book of rates," and country vinegar, of which he charges Rs. 36, only cost him Rs. 24, and linseed oil, for which he charges Rs. 198, costs him only Rs. 2-9-6."

Notice is taken of barley for making drink for the hospital, and beanman and vinegar for fumigating and sprinkling the hospital.

Pro. 20th April.—The military audit-general writes to the Board, being now "the season for preparing the annual military statement, for the information of the Parliament. He asks for information about the probable expenses required for the medical department during the coming year, and whether they will exceed or fall short of the last-regular annual budget system in force."

Pro. 14th Sept.—Assistant Surgeon Wood also seems to be made to resign the service on proceeding to Europe.

In consequence of August, 1790, 1791, was a total patients in General Hospital, Presidency, 91, 67 under the treatment.—

condition; great expense had been incurred in clearing the space around the hospital buildings; and in doing every thing that could be done, but without avail; and I have it from the present surgeon in charge, it was considered that nothing short of the removal of the Hospital to another locality would be efficacious.

Warned by experience, I no longer insisted that the accidents, more or less serious, which occur on the drainage as on all public works, should be treated in the Native Hospital. On the contrary I studiously avoided sending any one there for a long time; however, during the years 1858 and '59 the Dhurruntollah sewer, which is one of the main arteries of the system, was completed, and the effect was to drain the soil to a depth of thirteen feet from the surface.

When the work was commenced in May, 1858, a totally different state of things was discovered. I then wished to sink a trial well immediately in front of the hospital compound. The well was to be sunk in the native fashion, as had been successfully done in other places; here, however, after the road crust, about 3 feet thick, was removed, the soil below was found to be a quicksand; and the native well sinkers found it to be utterly impossible to put two of their pottery rings one upon the other, in fact impossible, with their moccas, to make a hole eight inches in depth. The change in the state of things, when a large sewer laid with its invert upwards of 13 feet below the surface, in a stratum composed entirely of this quicksand, will readily be understood; for enquires I made from time to time, I found that the result of surgical cases was improving, and that the fatal gangrene gradually and entirely disappeared.

It so happened that, on almost the last day of my attendance at the Municipal Office previous to my departure for England in 1865, I heard a gentleman complaining to the secretary, of the inconvenience he was put to by the drainage of Hospital Lane, which is to the east of the building.

This led me to introduce myself to this gentleman, Dr. Bailey, the present Surgeon in charge, with whom for the first time I then became acquainted. Having heard his complaint, I replied that, in my opinion, he was the last person who had cause to complain of the undoubted, but unavoidable inconvenience of the road being blocked up; he did not see why this should be so. I then asked him if he knew anything of the history of his hospital? What, for instance, had been the result of surgical operations in the year 1858, and was there any difference then, in 1865? Yes, he knew the lamentable and fatal difficulty which had attended the practice of his predecessors, and he knew that this difficulty had now disappeared; a satisfactory but unexplained change had occurred.

Dr. Bailey had not seen the drainage operations in progress in Dhurruntollah, and had no idea of the magnitude and depth of the sewer there; he then, however, very candidly expressed, and up to the present time maintains his opinion that the sub-soil drainage of that locality cannot but have had a most important share in the improved sanitary condition of the hospital, and that though there are surface nuisances still surrounding it, yet he now has no fear whatever as to the result of his surgical cases, arising from the crowded locality, or the sanitary condition of the building under his charge.

I trust I may be pardoned for dwelling at so great length on this subject. My object has been to illustrate somewhat one of the important results of the works which have been so generally and previously misunderstood, and on which I have the honor to be engaged.

Your obedient servant,

W. CLARK, M. INST., C. E.,

Engineer to the Municipality of Calcutta.

19th August.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE.

SIR,—In the *Indian Medical Gazette* of the 2nd of August, there appears an article on the Medical Service and new Furlough Rules, in which is set forth the injustice done to holders of civil surgeoncies, who, by a recent order, are made to forfeit their appointments, by taking leave under the new rules.

As the writer of that article, I take leave to object to the note you have appended to it, which appears to me to place the subject in an entirely false point of view, and I must beg of you to allow me to say a few words on the subject.

My plaint is that, whereas it was declared that leave taken under the new furlough regulations, would not involve forfeiture of appointment; a special rule has deprived medical officers holding appointments of this advantage, and that so far the new furlough rules have been made to them of none effect.

The purport of your fact note is that the loss of the appointment holder will be the gain of some less fortunate officer.

But look fairly at this other side of the question, and see what may be said against it. I presume that "snug" appointments are not given to their possessors by chance merely. Those who hold them have probably been selected for professional attainments, former good service, or special qualifications.

If so, they have earned their advantages, and are entitled to retain them.

But let it be granted, for the sake of argument, that it is only fair that appointments should be vacated on leave for the benefit of others. Why should this be the case only in the Medical Department?

Let the modified rule be applied to the Military and Civil Services; there would then be no class injustice. Only, I think, a general cry that one of the chief benefits of the new furlough rules had been abrogated.*

I am, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

THE WRITER OF THE ARTICLE.

A HARD CASE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE.

SIR,—I entered the service under G. G. O. No. 1060 of 1864, which guaranteed me pay, as an assistant surgeon, under five years' service, at the rate of Rs. 450 a month, when in charge of a native regiment. Last year, I was in charge of a regiment, the surgeon having gone home on furlough, and received Rs. 450. This year, owing to the paucity of medical officers, I am sent to officiate in charge of a regiment, the surgeon of which has gone on medical certificate to the hills, under the furlough rules of 1868, and I am only allowed Rs. 362-8-9, that is, Rs. 88 less than I was promised in G. G. O. No. 1060. Rs. 362-8-9 consist of my unempLOYED pay Rs. 286-10 and half the staff of the surgeon on leave. As I was only officiating in my last appointment, I am not allowed to draw half my own staff, *viz.*, half the difference of Rs. 286-10 and Rs. 450.

It is, surely, unfair that, because another medical officer chooses the furlough rules of 1868, Government should break faith with me, and that I should lose nearly a fourth of my whole pay.

AN ASSISTANT SURGEON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE.

SIR,—Seeing the subject of subordinate medical education under discussion, I am induced to submit the accompanying note.

Your proposed text books for Native Doctors, in the vernacular languages of India, would certainly be a desirable boon to them. But we understand that it would be better to insist upon the possession of English qualification, which we find is most necessary for the Native Doctors, as they are bound to keep the medical records in English, and besides it will enable them to improve their professional knowledge. Indeed, they are so poorly paid by Government, that they can hardly purchase the necessary English works for their improvement; but I see that they are equally required to possess English qualification, both when placed under Civil Surgeons and in independent charge. As far as I know, a Native Doctor under a Civil Surgeon has to keep ready all the daily Registers, &c., before his master's arrival to the Hospital; who, coming to the Hospital, minutely and attentively observes the patients, looks, as, kept by his Native Doctor under his instruction, and leaves the Hospital after putting his signature upon those books. In this way the daily work is carried on till the last day of the month. When monthly returns are due, the Native Doctor prepares them carefully and with his utmost labor, in order to submit them earlier to the higher authorities, and when ready he takes them to his master,

* The medical charge of a regiment, or a Civil Station, is the normal duty of a Medical Officer; therefore such a charge is not a staff appointment.—*Ed. I. M. G.*

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF SNAKE-POISON, AND THE USE OF CERTAIN REPUTED ANTIDOTES; AND THE EFFECTS OF EXCISION, &c.

BY J. FAYREB, M.D., C.S.I.

Present.—DR. FAYREB and MR. SCEVA.—July 31st, 1869.

EXPERIMENT NO. 1.

Mr. R—'s (of Jounpore) antidote, the powdered root or bark of a plant, name and family unknown, was tried to-day on a dog.

The drug had been sent to me for the purpose, and was fresh and potent.

Half of a powder, the quantity directed by Mr. R—, was given, having been first carefully rubbed, and mixed with about an ounce of water.

A pariah dog was bitten in the thigh by a cobra at 3-3 p.m., and was much excited by the bite. At 3-6 p.m., as symptoms of poisoning appeared, the first dose of the antidote was given, and was all swallowed. The dog was led about, and cold water dashed on its face and thorax, when it seemed drowsy. 3-8.—Lies down; very restless. 3-9.—Hurried breathing. 3-10.—Dog lies down; rises again, and runs about in a restless and excited manner. 3-12.—Restless and uneasy; head swings about as though it were giddy; breathing accelerated. 3-17.—It staggers as it is walked about; cold water sprinkled on its head and chest. 3-18.—The second dose given, that is, the other half of the powder, as directed. 3-20.—The dog is worse; cannot stand, staggers and reels when walked about, and falls over; convulsive movements of head and neck. 3-22.—Convulsed; pupils widely dilated. 3-24.—Dead—in 21 minutes.

The dog was not a large one, but it was healthy and vigorous; the instructions sent with the drug were carefully followed. The result is not favourable to the drug as an antidote in the canine race.

EXPERIMENT NO. 2.

A dog had a ligature made of stout cord, soaped to make it knot tightly, thrown loosely round the fore-arm. It was then bitten by a cobra below the ligature, which was tightened as firmly as a man's strength could draw it. Immediately after the bite, a red hot iron was then introduced into the fang wounds, and the bitten part thoroughly cauterized, strong carbolic acid having first been well rubbed in.

Bitten at 3-31 p.m.

Ligature tightened within five seconds.

Carbolic acid and actual cautery applied at 3-33, that is, in two minutes after the bite, and one minute and fifty-five seconds after the ligature was tightened. The limb seemed to be completely strangulated, it became livid; blood oozed from the fang wounds, and the limb was all but paralysed. There could be no doubt that the limb was thoroughly strangulated, or that the bitten parts were well cauterized. 3-35.—Notwithstanding all the above precautions, the dog is already much affected by the poison; is lying prone, unable to rise or to walk; the breathing hurried; and convulsive movements occurring occasionally. 3-40.—Convulsed. 3-41.—Dying. 3-42.—Dead—in 21 minutes.

There was at the most an interval of five seconds between the cobra's bite and the tightening of the ligature, which was not afterwards relaxed. This experiment clearly proves that

the poison is taken into the circulation very rapidly; certainly five seconds did not elapse between the bite and the application of the ligature, which had been previously thrown loosely round the limb, in order that no time might be lost in tightening it after the bite, and yet the dog (it was a small one) died of the poison in 21 minutes.

During that very brief interval sufficient poison entered the circulation to destroy life. It is possible that more may have entered after the ligature was tightened, but the quantity must have been very minute, as the ligature was very tight. In an ordinary snake-bite it is difficult to conceive that a ligature could be applied more speedily than in the case of this dog. So that, even this method of treatment, rational as it certainly is, can only be regarded as of doubtful benefit.

I should note, and it is a subject, I believe, that I have not alluded to before in other experiments, that the rigor mortis took place in about 1½ hour after death, in these two dogs. The blood coagulated after death.

EXPERIMENT NO. 3.

A fowl had a ligature placed on the thigh loosely; it was bitten by a cobra at 3-17. The ligature was tightened at the same time that the snake bit; before its fangs were withdrawn, the ligature was thoroughly tied, so tight that the limb seemed completely strangulated, the part becoming livid and disabled. 3-50.—No sign of the poison taking effect; the fowl hops about on the sound leg. 3-52.—Actual cautery applied to the fang punctures, which were bleeding freely venous blood from the congested limb, and the wounded parts surrounding were thoroughly disorganized.

The ligature was then divided; the fowl being placed on the ground ran about; the ligatured limb still paralysed.

3-54.—Fowl crouching, but rises and runs about when disturbed. 3-55.—Looks drowsy; is crouching, and begins to hang its head, closing the eyes. 3-57.—Head drooping, beak resting on the ground. 3-58.—Fallen over on its side, rises with a convulsive movement, and falls again. 4 p.m.—Is unable to stand or walk. 4-1.—Convulsive movements. 4-11.—Dead—in 24 minutes. Blood coagulated after death, when removed from the great vessels.

This experiment, more than ever, proves the subtle and deadly nature of the poison. The ligature in this case prevented the entry of the poison into the circulation, which was evidently retained in the congested part of the limb below the ligature. Carbolic acid and the actual cautery applied to the wounds, most thoroughly, failed to destroy it. Yet no sooner was the ligature relaxed than the poison entered the circulation, weak and altered as it must have been after the severe pressure of the ligature, and rapidly killed the bird. This proves that there is danger after removal of the ligature when it has been most effectually applied. The poison spreads itself by diffusion throughout the juice of the strangulated part; so that nothing short of destruction or removal of the whole of that part seems to offer a hope of subsequent escape from toxic absorption.

With reference to the application of a ligature above the bitten part, I would here remark that it is almost physically impossible with the power of one pair of hands so to tighten a cord round a dog's leg, as thoroughly to strangulate the limb. The experiments seem to prove this, but also to shew that it is possible completely to arrest the circulation through a fowl's leg in this manner.

With tourniquets it might be done no doubt, and a man's arm or leg, certainly his toe or finger, might be so strangulated, but, as ordinary snake-bites, do not occur where any tourni-

years after that sticks and cords, or the like, are forthcoming. The desideratum is to obtain the most perfect compression of the limb, in the simplest way possible, sufficient at all events to prevent immediate entry of the poison, through the circulation of the blood. This may be done with an ordinary cord or strip of cloth, covered with the common black tourniquet, and the nearest extent that the strength of the hands is able to twist it. But it must be borne in mind that this compression only extends to a certain depth, and that deeper, the circulation still goes on without it, the poison retained by the ligature in the partially strangulated portion will soon communicate by diffusion, and symptoms of poisoning will supervene. In such a case, we may fairly hope that the amount of poison entering the blood has been so far limited, as not to be fatal, and that we may, in return, be able to help the sufferer, though the troubles caused by the increased dose of the poison. But it is obvious that the urgent necessity is for the application of some agent that will rapidly diffuse itself, and reorganize or destroy the poison, whilst yet retained, and only partially diffused through the strangulated part.

In this, as far as I can understand it, lies the only hope of safety in a real emergency.

Carbolic acid or other allied substances would probably be useful. But it is obvious that the success of this, or indeed, of any mode of treatment, lies in the promptitude and tension with which the ligature is tied, and the decomposing agent applied.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

Dr. W. J. PALMER, Professor of Chemistry, was present also.

A fowl had a ligature thoroughly tightened round the thigh, and it was then bitten below it, by a cobra at 4.7 p.m.

4.19.—No effect of the poison visible. 4.22.—Breathing rather hurried, but otherwise seems unaltered. 4.30.—Begins to show signs of the effect of the poison, looks not well, droops, rests its back on the ground; it is evidently affected. 4.35.—Much the same; 30 drops of the liquor ammonia injected in three doses with the hypodermic syringe. 4.37.—Fowl is drooping fast, cannot move. 4.41.—Convulsed. 4.44.—Lies unconscious, but convulsed. 4.50.—Dead.

In this case the ligature, which consisted of a cord soaked to make it run easily and knot firmly, was tied round a fowl's thigh from which the feathers had been stripped with the greatest amount of tension that a man's hands could exert. The part below the ligature became livid, and the limb paralysed. In this condition it was bitten at 4.7 p.m. The ligature was never relaxed, and certainly did not slip, yet at 4.30, perhaps a few minutes later, it began to show that the poison had, notwithstanding the ligature, found entry into the circulation. In about 21 minutes later proved that sufficient poison had entered to destroy life, and, as before, I think that it is impossible to give our power to keep it out. The question is, suppose the strangulation of the limbs to have been complete, how and the poison enter? It must have passed the barrier of the ligature, how did it do so? I can only explain it by supposing that because it was, it was not sufficiently contracted to prevent some diffusion of the poisonous fluids through the annular slit made, and that in the next 23 minutes, enough found its way into the system.

In another experiment, I thought it was fairly desirable to amount to the ability that may be exercised in the ligature. That is, to extend the entry of the poison to the artery, plexus, and distal division, thereby, by preventing the returned venous action, to destroy it. But it is a very curious fact, so I take it to be a general one, that in the case of this kind of strangulation,

the most rapid and effective application of the ligature, and the immediately subsequent application of some decomposing agent, can in a *long file* corroborate, other any hope of safety.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

A fowl was deeply bitten in the thigh by a cobra at 1.31. The snake had been in confinement for some time, but it was vigorous and vigorous, and plunged its fangs deeply into the bird's thigh drawing blood. 1.36.—Not affected, 5 p.m.—Not affected.

No symptoms of poisoning occurred, and the fowl was alive and well on the 2nd of August.

This experiment is a most instructive one, and proves that a poisonous snake may bite without poisoning. It is not in the least probable that this cobra was altogether exhausted, for although in captivity it had been at rest for many days, and had been exhausted its poison by biting another cobra that had been six months in captivity, and had eaten nothing during that period, killed a fowl rapidly by one bite. It finishes a very curious case of some of the social recoveries from snake-bite, in which, when the snake has been seen and the punctures of its fangs are visible, the patient recovers from the mental alarm and prostration after the administration of one of the supposed antidotes. That such alarm does cause temporary physical as well as mental prostration I have had a fair amount of the following case.—Some time ago, on visiting the hospital one morning, I was told that a man had been admitted during the night suffering from a snake-bite, and that he was very low.

I found him in a state of great prostration, he was hardly able to speak, and seemed to be in a state of great depression. He and his friends said that during the night in going into his hut, as he bit him in the foot; that he was much alarmed, and finally passed into a state of insensibility when they brought him to the hospital. They and he considered that he was dying, and evidently regarded his condition as hopeless. He was in that in that condition not infrequently described, from which the sufferer has been snatched by the timely administration of an antidote. On asking for a description of the snake, they said they had caught it and had brought it with them in a bottle. The bottle was produced, and the snake found out to be a small innocent *Lycodon*. It was alive, though somewhat injured by the treatment it had received. On explaining to the man and his friends that it was harmless, and with some difficulty making them believe it, the symptoms of poisoning rapidly disappeared, and he left the hospital as well as ever he was in his life in a few hours. Had the snake been found, and had an antidote been given, who would have been prepared to dispute its efficacy? I am sorry to destroy popular and favorite notions, when they are harmless, but in a matter of this kind, it is well that the truth should be known.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

A fowl was bitten by a cobra in the thigh at 4.49 p.m. The snake has been over six months in captivity, during which time it has steadily refused to take food or water. It was active, vigorous, and vigorous, it plunged its fangs deeply into the fowl's thigh and drew blood.

In 20 seconds the bird was violently convulsed; in 60 more seconds it was dead.

Out of this experiment with the prosering one, and I think it curious what I find as to the occasional uncertainty of a snake bite. These two cobras were both old, that is to say, in captivity. They were both, notwithstanding the poison, kept in captivity. In one case, it was excited from the bite of another cobra.

The blood of the fowl was examined after death. Dark colored coagulated blood was found in one of the great vessels near the heart. In others, and in the cavities of the heart it was fluid, and remained so after death.

It is worthy of notice that in the mammals poisoned by the daboia, the blood was found to be fluid, and to continue so after death. In birds it was sometimes coagulated. Could this be due to the rapidity with which life was extinguished in the bird?

Present:—DR. FAYRER, DR. W. PALMER, Professor of Chemistry, and MR. SCEVA.—August 7th, 1869.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

A pariah dog was bitten by a cobra (Eturiah Keantiah, of the snake-men) in the hind leg at 3-5 p.m. At 3-8 p.m., thirty drops of liquor ammoniac sp. gr. 959, diluted with three parts of water, were administered. 3-12.—Dog lying down, licking the wound; when walked about, limped on the bitten leg; breathing hurried. 3-15.—Thirty more drops given as before. 3-22.—Lying down; limbs twitching. 3-23.—Thirty more drops given. 3-24.—Convulsed; lying down; unable to rise. 3-25.—Dying; limbs convulsed; pupils widely dilated; *tapetum lucidum* very brilliant. Heart still beating, no respiratory movements. 3-26.—Pupils contracted again (this is a phenomenon I have not before observed). 3-28.—Another thirty drops of liquor ammoniac administered. 3-29.—Heart still beating irregularly. 3-30.—Dead—in twenty-five minutes.

Ammonia has long been considered one of the most potent of all remedies in snake-bites. The object of this experiment was to test its value. The result is not encouraging.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

Mr. R—'s "antidote" was again put to the test. The powder was rubbed into a pulp mixed with water in the proportion directed; it was then administered to a dog at 3-31 p.m. The dog was then bitten by a cobra in the thigh. 3-35.—The dog is affected by the poison, looks scared, and limps in the bitten limb. 3-37.—Staggered, lies down; breathing hurried. 3-39.—Another dose administered. 3-43.—Limbs convulsed. 3-45.—Paralysed; heart beating irregularly. 3-59.—Heart still beats; no respiratory movements. 4 p.m.—Dead—in 28 minutes.

I am afraid the antidote must be regarded as inapplicable to the canine race.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.

Jugular vein of a pariah dog exposed at 3-42, and a diluted solution of liquor ammoniac sp. gr. 959—one part to water two parts—to the extent of 30 drops, injected. No apparent inconvenience caused to the dog by the injection. At 3-43, the dog was bitten in the thigh by a cobra. 3-48.—Dog showing signs of the poison; 30 more drops, diluted in the same way with 6 of water, again injected into the jugular vein. Shortly after this, the dog began to turn round and round in the most restless manner; 30 more drops injected similarly diluted in the other external jugular, as a large thrombus had formed in that part exposed. 4-10.—Dog convulsed. 4-12.—Cannot stand, limbs paralysed. 4-13.—Violently convulsed all over. 4-20.—Dead—in 37 minutes.

The cobra was not fresh in this case, and yet it killed in 37 minutes. The injection of the diluted ammonia was not more satisfactory than that of the undiluted, as far as its immediate antidotal effects were concerned; but it would appear that the injection of diluted liquor ammoniac into the jugular vein is not followed necessarily by convulsions, or other violent constitutional disturbance.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.

Some of the blood of the dog killed by the cobra in the first experiment, where the ammonia was given, was removed

from the body about three-quarters of an hour after death. It was found to be firmly coagulated, but some of the serum and part of the clot mixed with water, to the extent altogether of 40 drops, were injected with the hypodermic syringe into a fowl's thigh, the actual quantity of blood thus used could not have been more than a few drops. The injection was made at 4-20 p.m. 4-35.—Slightly affected by the poison. 5 p.m.—Crouching, head drooping, appears giddy. 5-30.—Lying on one side; convulsive movements. 5-35.—Dead—in 75 minutes.

What can more forcibly illustrate the extraordinary virulence and potency of the poison than this experiment? A few drops of the blood of a dog poisoned by a cobra, diluted with water, injected into a fowl's thigh, killed the bird in 75 minutes. The quantity must have been excessively minute, but it proves how it retains its power although diluted and mixed with the blood.

Present:—DRS. FAYRER, W. PALMER, and MR. SCEVA.—August 14th, 1869.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

A gentleman residing in Koltsuck having forwarded to me the powdered root or some other part of a plant, name and family unknown, which he had found useful in the treatment of snake-bites, and having requested me to test its efficacy, the following experiment was made:—

5i of the powder was rubbed with six peppers into a pulp and mixed with water.

A pariah dog was then bitten by a cobra (variety *Karric Keantiah*) of the snake-men, in the thigh at 3-13 p.m., part of the antidote was then, according to Mr. F.'s direction, rubbed into the punctures, and the remainder administered internally, immediately after the outward application. 3-18.—The dog is affected by the poison, he is restless, nauseated, making efforts to vomit; walks with a staggering gait. 3-22.—Limbs partially paralysed. 3-23.—Convulsed, unable to rise. 3-25.—Lies perfectly motionless, muscles generally twitching. 3-26.—Dead—in thirteen minutes.

The drug had evidently no effect in retarding the action of the poison. The dog, which was a medium-sized animal died even sooner than usual.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

A Mahomedan hakeem, Mahomed Khan, presented himself with some medicine with which, he said, he had successfully treated several cases of snake-bite in men. It was a strong aromatic smelling powder, dissolved in water, but he could tell me no more than that it was a jungle root. He asked to be allowed to try it, and appeared quite confident of success. A very large and powerful pariah dog was then placed at his disposal, also a cobra, which was not fresh, having been in captivity for some time, and had bitten before. He had the dog bitten in the thigh by the cobra at 3-35 p.m. He was allowed to do, or direct to be done, whatever he liked. At 3-36 he administered a quantity of the drug, which was swallowed by the dog. 3-37.—The bitten leg is partially paralysed. 3-45.—The dog is sluggish and lying down. 3-46.—A second dose administered. 3-48.—Hurried breathing. 3-50.—The dog is nauseated and rejected some half-digested meat. 3-55.—Uneasy; hurried breathing. 4-2.—Lying down, panting, frothing at the mouth. 4-5.—Retching. 4-7.—Lying down; looks depressed, but quite intelligent. 4-15.—When roused staggers as he walks. 4-18.—Lies prone, with the legs outstretched. Has very little control over the hind legs when roused. 4-20.—Another large dose of the drug administered by the hakeem. 4-21.—Limbs convulsed, unable to rise. 4-21—Fries to rise, falls over. 4-26.—Convulsed. 4-32.—Is quite paralysed; pupils widely dilated. 4-35.—Heart still beats, no respiratory movements. 4-40.—Pupils contracted again (1

was observed to symptoms in another dog just before death; 4-12.—Death; pupils again dilated. Bitten at 3-35; dead at 4-12—in 67 minutes.

The dog was a remarkably powerful and vigorous animal. The snake was not fresh, and yet the dog succumbed in one hour and seven minutes.

The fakir expressed much astonishment at the results; he evidently *believed* that his drug would prove an antidote. He said, in a somewhat depressed tone of voice, that he had other remedies. He was invited to put them to a similar test.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.

A very large and vigorous pariah dog was bitten in the carnal fold of its gument between the thigh and abdomen by a cobra at 3-55 p.m. The part was immediately cut out with a scalpel, the places where the fangs had penetrated being completely removed. The instrument was at hand, and the operation was done at once. Two seconds, not more, might have intervened between the bites and the excision.

At 4 p.m., some brandy was poured down the dog's throat. 4-6.—Another dose of brandy administered. 4-16. He is excited, and the respiration is hurried, perhaps from the brandy. 4-25.—The dog is not yet affected by the poison. 4-33.—Much the same, the breathing rather hurried. 4-42.—No symptoms of poisoning except the hurried breathing, and that may be from excitement. 4-47.—More brandy given. 4-50.—No symptom of poisoning as yet. 5-10.—Vomited; shows symptoms of being poisoned. 5-15.—Vomited again. 5-30.—Restless, breathing hurriedly; abundant flow of saliva. 6 p.m.—Slight convulsions; breathing hurried. 6-30.—Dead. Bitten at 3-55; dead at 6-30—in two hours and thirty-five minutes.

Here again the extraordinary virulence of the poison is shown. The snake bit in a fold of skin which was immediately excised. Yet in the slight interval, it could not have been more than two seconds, enough of the poison had entered the circulation to cause death in two hours and thirty-five minutes, notwithstanding the free administration of brandy. The dog, too, was an unusually large and vigorous animal.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.

A fowl was bitten in the thigh by a cobra at 1-43 p.m. The part in which the fangs had lodged was immediately excised with a sharp scalpel. 1-47.—Fowl lying down, showing no signs of poisoning. 1-25.—Fowl rather drowsy, eyes closing, head drooping. 1-25.—Breathing hurried; drowsy. 4-25.—When roused can stand, but cannot walk, and falls over; gasping. 1-31.—Convulsed. 1-33.—Dead—in 21 minutes.

This again shows the extraordinary virulence of the poison. The entrance of the fangs into which the fangs were impressed was nearly cut away within three seconds after the bite, and yet the poison sufficient had found entry to cause death. That death was much retarded there can be no doubt, for the fowl lived twenty-one minutes, instead of three or four, after being bitten. Surely the encouragement is to be derived from such experiments as this, in yet points in the right direction in which we are to look for any rational treatment.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

A fowl was bitten in the carpal extremity of one wing, in a thoroughly vascular part, by a cobra at 1-40 p.m. This was amputated at the carpal joint immediately the fangs were withdrawn. The scalpel was ready, and it was removed within three seconds of the completion of the bite. The amputation was about half an inch above the highest fang's mark. 1-48.—No symptom of poisoning, no bleeding from the wing. The fowl is running about quite indifferently to either

poison or amputation so far. 4-55.—No symptom of poisoning as yet.

August 15th, Noon.—The fowl is alive and well; in this case, the poison has evidently not entered the circulation, the excision having been in time to prevent it. These experiments all prove that the poison takes effect chiefly through the venous circulation, and that if excision be practised immediately and thoroughly, either the whole or part of it may be prevented from entering the circulation. No doubt some of the poison finds way into the circulation by diffusion from the centre of excision, and this all may not be removed by even very free and very early excision. The material of infection, that the part should be cut out as rapidly and extensively as possible; otherwise, as in the cases of these animals, delay of a few seconds may prove fatal.

RESULTS OF SANITATION IN INDIA.

By W. J. MOORE, L.R.C.P.

Sanitary Report on Political Affairs.

UNDER the title heading, an article of mine appeared in the *Indian Medical Gazette* for June 18 7. It was then demonstrated, that notwithstanding the close attention paid to sanitation during 1867 years, in spite of an almost excessive expenditure on palatial and historical barracks, and in defiance of the excursions of sanitary reformers, the total loss of men in the European army in India, on a count of sickness, had only been reduced by 7 per 1,000 per annum! It was seen, that as the death rate decreased, the *mortality list* was, including total loss to the service in India, almost equal to the gain with which Lord Herbert's sanitary commission, in 1857, started the Secretary of State, the House of Commons, and the home press, all of whom up to that period appear to have been ignorant of the writings of Macpherson, Chevers, Ewart, Cornish, and others, who had previously displayed similar statements. But the idea of a mortality of Anglo-Indian troops at the rate of 69 per 1,000 yearly (being the average for the first half of the present century) was nothing new to these gentlemen with the writings of the authors above mentioned. Neither, that although the average of death rate for the fifty years referred to, attains the high figure of 69 per 1,000, the first and last decennial periods show a wide difference. Up to 1820, for instance, Europeans died at the rate of 80 per 1,000 per annum; for the ten years ending 1856 the rate was only 51 per mille. Tables I and II,* prepared by the Royal Sanitary Commission, abundantly testify that a gradual decrease of mortality took place. Dr. Chevers also shows, that since the commencement of the present century, the mortality rate of Europeans serving in each of the three presidencies had gradually fallen. "In the Bengal Army, the annual mortality, during the 12 years ending 1853-54, was about 20 in the 1,000 lower than that which prevailed in the 12 years ending 1821." In Madras, the deaths diminished one-half from the commencement of 1800, to the end of 1812. The following table exhibits the above—

| BOMBAY. | | MADRAS. | |
|---------|----------------------|---------|----------------------|
| Years. | Mortality per 1,000. | Years. | Mortality per 1,000. |
| 1812-21 | 85 | 1801-10 | 88 |
| 1812-21 | 68 | 1810-21 | 69 |
| 1812-21 | 65 | 1812-22 | 32 |

In Bombay, as is demonstrated by Dr. Cole in 1856-59, the death rate had diminished to 10 per 1,000 per annum. But

* See Royal Sanitary Commission's Report, Vol. I.

for purposes of comparison the 51 per 1,000 given by the Royal Sanitary Commission, as the mortality for the decennial period ending 1856, may be fairly taken. And this, it must be recollected, was before what may be designated the *Sanitary Era* in India. At this period, as we learn from Colonel Sykes' tables, the rate of invaliding was 29·4 per 1,000. The total loss to the service, therefore, from both deaths and invaliding was 80·40 *per mille*. This, as compared (in the article previously referred to, as published in the *Gazette*, June 1867) with the death ratio from 1860 to 1864, *viz.*, 26·22 per 1,000, and the invaliding of 1866, *viz.*, 46·87 for 1,000; total 73·09, gives a total gain in the loss to the service, of 7·31 only. And this, after sanitation may be said to have been initiated.

The statistics of two more years are now available, and afford further evidence, that mortality of *Anglo-Indian soldiers is principally reduced by an increase of invaliding*. For 1866-67, the death ratio for India was 21·70, and the invaliding 47·62, giving the *total loss* to the service in this country, caused by disease, as 69·32. A slight change for the better certainly, but probably only one of those fluctuations to which all figures of the kind must be periodically subject. The following table shows the death rate and invaliding, for a period of six years, by which it may be seen, that as the former decreases, the latter increases.

| Years. | Ratio per 1,000 deaths. | Ratio per 1,000 invalided. |
|--------|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1861 | 36·74 | 31·77 |
| 1862 | 25·68 | 28·29 |
| 1863 | 23·61 | 35 |
| 1864 | 21·93 | 44·1 |
| 1865 | 22·14 | 34·70 |
| 1866 | 21·70 | 47·62 |

If the statistics of the Bengal or Bombay Presidency are regarded separately, the rise under the head of invaliding is even more apparent. Thus, in Bombay, in 1866, the sick sent home were 24·9 per 1,000 of strength; the deaths 10·5 per 1,000. In 1867, as many as 69·6 were invalided, and only 15·6 deaths *per mille*. In Bengal, in 1866, the death rate was 20·11. The invaliding 49·04 per 1,000. In 1867 the mortality amounted to 30·95 *per mille*; but this was a cholera season, and subtracting the deaths from this one disease, the ratio is only 17·11 from all other causes. But the invaliding reached 47·28 per 1,000 of strength. If the average loss, from both invaliding and deaths during the six years, included in the above table, namely, 63·50, is compared with the total loss for the years ending 1856, *viz.*, 80·40, we have a difference of 17·10 in favor of the more recent statistics. But excess of invaliding accounts for 12·59 of the gain, leaving only 5·51 to be otherwise explained! Thus—

| | |
|---|-----------------|
| Loss to the service from both causes for ten years ending 1856 | 80·40 per 1,000 |
| Loss to the service from both causes for six years ending 1866 | 63·30 per 1,000 |
| Gain | 17·10 |
| Difference between the amount of invaliding for the first period, and for the last period | 12·59 |
| Gain, excluding invaliding, | 5·51 |

If the last three years ending 1866 are thus compared, or if the statistics of the Bengal Army, with its rate at 49 per 1,000 of invaliding, are thus compared, the gain otherwise than from invaliding is reduced to a still lower figure! It may, therefore, be confidently stated, that the extension of the invaliding system is the principal cause of reduction of mortality, during recent periods, in the Anglo-Indian Army.

There are, however, other influences independent of pure sanitation, which will, doubtless, account for the small gain over the former total loss, which cannot be attributed *directly* to invaliding. These are—first, the system of short enlistments; 2ndly, change of medical treatment; 3rdly, the lessened consumption of spirituous liquor. A soldier now-days, unless in the exceptional case of a man serving nearly his full term of ten years, and again re-enlisting, scarcely ever remains in this country the full decennial period. All European soldiers arriving in India, have already completed from one to two, three or four years of their service or more. And before ten years has passed, they either return home with their regiment, or on the completion of their period of enlistment. Some may re-enlist into other regiments, but the full period of ten years in India is not often exceeded, and in the majority of instances very much shortened. And this brief period of residence tells on mortality. The old ideas of climatization, and seasoning fevers, are now totally exploded. From the day the white man enters the tropics, physical degeneration, more or less rapid in its progress, commences. It is indeed the same with the Negro or Esquimaux, removed to temperate climates. They are found by experience to sicken and die, even as the European too frequently does in India. Without entering on the *questio verba* of the existence of pre Adamites, or the unity of all races of men, it may be safely asserted, that whether or not climate has produced the differences we now see—from the Negro to the Anglo-Saxon—climate is certainly not conducive to longevity of Europeans conveyed suddenly into the tropics. The destructive influence of age and length of residence in the country was demonstrated in Table X of the Royal Sanitary Commissioner's report, which gives the average annual mortality, at certain periods of service, of the European forces of the East India Company. And these men, it must be recollected, were very differently situated, as they enlisted for life, compared with the Queen's soldiers now, who take the shilling for ten years. From the statement above referred to, it may be seen, that whereas in the Company's forces the death rate was 47 per 1,000 among men of from five to ten years' service, it increased gradually until it reached 62·5 per 1,000 among men of 20 years' service and upwards. The difference between the figures named is 15, almost equal to the total saving effected, as shown above.

The following table taken from statistics given in the "Army Statistical, Sanitary, and Medical Report for 1866," is also equally demonstrative of the deterioration consequent on tropical life, showing that physical decay is much more rapid than in temperate climates.

| Ratio of Deaths per 1,000 at different ages. | Under 20 years. | 20 to 24. | 25 to 29. | 30 to 34. | 35 to 39. | 40 upwards. |
|--|-----------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------------|
| Anglo-Indian Army, 1866 | 9·15 | 16·94 | 29·21 | 39·45 | 52·77 | 64·47 |
| Anglo-Indian Army, 1861-64 | 6·41 | 15·98 | 24·39 | 34·15 | 46·29 | 53·37 |
| Army in Great Britain, 1853-61 | 3·01 | 6·09 | 8·25 | 12·23 | 17·61 | 19·65 |
| Civil Male population, England and Wales | 7·41 | 8·82 | 9·24 | 10·23 | 11·63 | 13·55 |
| Civil Male population, England and Wales—Healthy Districts | 5·83 | 7·39 | 7·93 | 8·36 | 9·00 | 9·86 |

From this it also appears that length of service tells on the soldier, as it did in former days, before the sanitary era in India. After 20 years' service, we have seen the old Company's Europeans died at the rate of 62 per 1,000; so in 1866, the mortality of soldiers, upwards of 10 years old, was 66 per 1,000; up to this period considerable gain is apparent, to be attributed to shorter residence and invaliding.

The change of medical practice was mentioned, as assisting invaliding, in accounting for the slight reduction on the total loss to the service. The abandonment of that system of medicine, well termed *spontanea* by Ewart, must have tended to lessen

the air of the empty room after it had been two days with the door wide open.

In the second set of experiments, no attempt was made to collect the air from the different levels. In these the sepoy was shut up as before, but the period of confinement was reduced to two hours, as no thermantibute was kept going. The sample of air withdrawn measured 2.75 cubic feet. It was taken by displacement, that is, several vessels, the aggregate capacity of which was 2.75 cubic feet, were taken into the room full of water. The water was then emptied out, and as it passed out, the air of the room passed in.

The carbonic acid in the air was determined by Pettenkofer's method. A measured quantity of lime water, the strength of which was known, was poured into the vessels containing the air, and these were then well shaken, so that the carbonic acid might be fully absorbed. The fluid was then taken out and rapidly filtered, and the lime, which was in excess of that required for the absorption of all the carbonic acid, was determined in the filtrate by a volumetric process.

In these experiments the moisture of the air was not directly determined, an attempt to state its relative amount was made by observation of the dry and wet bulb thermometer, hung up in the room, with a similar instrument hung up in the verandah outside. From these observations, the relative humidity was calculated by Ajjohn formula in the ordinary way pursued in practical meteorology.

The results of all the experiments are given in the accompanying table. The general conclusion from them seems to be, that the foul air of a densely-inhabited room, very badly ventilated, does not seem to accumulate at any one level more than another.

I. Air Experiments.

| Date of experiment. | Number of feet from ground. | Carbonic acid in cubic feet per foot of air. | Carbonic acid in grains per 100 cubic feet. | Aqueous vapour in grains per 100 cubic feet. |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|--|---|--|
| 1865, Oct. 30 | On ground. | 197 | .111 | 178.51 |
| " 31 | " | 142.2 | .082 | 201.29 |
| Nov. 1 | " | 95.1 | .054 | 180.9 |
| " 2 | " | 150.1 | .089 | 144.01 |
| " 7 | " | 120.8 | .070 | 304.2 |
| " 8 | " | 110.5 | .068 | 301.2 |
| " 10 | " | 125.4 | .074 | 328.5 |
| In empty room | " | 60.1 | .045 | 228.6 |
| at top of sepoy | " | 14 | Not determined. | 251.2 |

Second Series, No Thermometer.

| Date. | CARBONIC ACID. | | Humidity in room. | Humidity outside. |
|---------------|----------------|-------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| | Cubic Feet. | Cubic Foot. | | |
| 1869, April 5 | 177.5 | .112 | 47 | 31 |
| " 6 | 207.8 | .105 | 32 | 24 |
| " 7 | 274.8 | .110 | 32 | 25 |

ON THE RELATIONS BETWEEN THE VARIOLOUS DISEASE OF CATTLE CALLED "GOOTIE," AND TRUE VACCINIA, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO INOCULATION AND VACCINATION.

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It is perhaps necessary to offer some apology to the readers of a journal of human medicine, for soliciting

space and attention for a discussion relating more immediately to the disorders of the lower creation. But a study of epizootics is in itself so interesting a matter, that it hardly needs the additional zest of the consideration of their relations to epidemics to render them admissible or welcome. Besides, the great group of variolous diseases and disorders has, since the grand discovery of Jenner, and the consequent practice of vaccination, acquired a peculiarly human interest. It is here that sanitary science and preventive medicine hold their trump card. There is another reason, however, which gives a claim to the admission of such discussions to these pages, namely, that, with three or four exceptions, all that has been done in the way of the observation and description of epizootic diseases hitherto in India, has been done by the practitioners of human medicine; and in any epizootic out-break of exceptional severity, medical officers are always appealed to for opinion and advice.

This results from two causes: 1st, the paucity of veterinary practitioners; and 2nd, the greater fitness which a higher training bestows upon our own profession for the investigation and study of disease. In proof of the latter assertion, which is not meant as any disparagement to the veterinary surgeon, whose scientific education is comparatively less complete and more practical, are the two circumstances that the best descriptions of former epizootics have been due to practitioners of human medicine, and that the investigations, which were conducted under the orders of the Cattle Plague Commission in England, were, with the exception of the treatment, entrusted to doctors of human medicine. The cause of this is plain. Men versed in the study of human pathology need no additional training to enable them to investigate a new field, or apprehend the true significance of analogous or homologous processes or facts presented to them. Just as the comparative anatomist or physiologist must be, in order for success, a thorough human anatomist or physiologist, so must the comparative pathologist have a profound knowledge of human pathology to start with. Indeed, it is even more necessary in the latter case, because, while comparative anatomy has come to have, to a certain extent, a language of its own, the language of comparative pathology is entirely derived from human pathology, and not only the language, but the conceptions. While, therefore, the veterinary practitioner possesses, from special training and experience, that special tact which enables him more readily to detect and identify particular diseases, the student of human medicine is prepared to take those wider views of general questions which the study of diverse phenomena and similar, or dissimilar, disease elements present.

In the poorer districts of Austria both branches are practised by the same individual, and at the Vienna Institute men are taught veterinary in addition to human medicine. In these days of specializing and division of labour, I would hardly think a system like this either desirable or feasible, but a course of instruction in comparative pathology would be a most important and valuable addition to the curriculum of all medical schools. It is not my intention, in what follows, to go very deeply into the symptoms and features of epizootics in India, or elsewhere. Any one curious in these matters will find ample information in the reports of the Cattle Plague Commission—the last of which (third) is a most valuable work, illustrated by splendid chromo-lithographs—and in the "selections of papers on cattle disease" printed by the Government of India and Bengal. I propose, rather in illustrating a series of propositions concerning variolous diseases, to focus facts which lie scattered through a number of not very accessible publications, upon some questions relating to inoculation and vaccination, which have either been already pretty well settled by experiment, or require additional experiment or observation to elucidate them.

1.—I have examined the eruption of the *goutee* and *goutee* differently from the eruption of the *goutee* and *goutee*.

The following is a general description of the eruptions which present the general phenomena of the *goutee* and *goutee*. (Kindly observe that I have also exhibited in relation to the *goutee* in the illustration a case and population as to their identity.)

| GOOTEE. | GOOTEE. | RINDERPEST. |
|---|---|---|
| <p>A. The eruption is a fever, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>A. The eruption is a fever, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>A. The eruption is a fever, attacking the system, and attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>B. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>B. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>B. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>C. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>C. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>C. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>D. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>D. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>D. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>E. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>E. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>E. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
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| <p>H. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>H. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>H. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>I. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>I. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>I. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>J. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>J. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>J. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>K. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>K. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>K. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>L. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>L. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>L. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>M. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>M. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>M. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>N. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>N. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>N. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>O. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>O. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>O. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>P. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>P. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>P. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>Q. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>Q. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>Q. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>R. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>R. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>R. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>S. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>S. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>S. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>T. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>T. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>T. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>U. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>U. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>U. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>V. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>V. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>V. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>W. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>W. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>W. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>X. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>X. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>X. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>Y. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>Y. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>Y. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |
| <p>Z. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>Z. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> | <p>Z. The eruption is a morbid condition of the blood, attended by a general prostration of the system, and a morbid condition of the blood.</p> |

The following is a general description of the eruptions which present the general phenomena of the *goutee* and *goutee*. (Kindly observe that I have also exhibited in relation to the *goutee* in the illustration a case and population as to their identity.)

and past the seab and favored the eruption of the *goutee* is more an oxidation of the normal growth of sebaceous and epidermic material over a limited space, with a somewhat peculiar similar and related cells beneath it. The cases of *goutee*, which I have myself examined, stand widely from each other as to the size of a spot, how, and how removed by the finger nail and how left a small raw pit. Other observers have described "dry patches" (1822); "pimples of scale" (Hensley), "minute elevations beneath the skin" (Green), Dr. Short of Madras, in describing an epidemic of cattle small-pox—"Ummy"—describes the eruption as "pimples" says that the skin imparted a roughness to the feel as if small grits were beneath it, and found on dissection vascular and eczymous patches beneath the skin. Other observers have given more prominent opinions as to the character of the eruption. Dr. Coates describes it as papules succeeded by pustules, and Dr. G. India, writing of an epidemic in Mysore, says that the skin became covered with a pustular eruption. It significantly remarks that the disease was more like plague than small-pox. This leads me to the second proposition which I propose illustrating, namely:—

It is the disease of cattle called "goutee" in India is identical with the *goutee* of Russia, and the cattle plague of England.

This identity, if established, will enable me to take advantage of the observations and experiments conducted so carefully in Europe. Dr. C. L. Dimer, in his report on the Calcutta Epizootic of 1864, dated 7th October, 1865, was the first to point out this fact. After carefully describing the features, symptoms, progress, post-mortem lesions and mortality of the disease, as observed in Calcutta, he states in his summary that "the symptoms, progress, and great fatality all lead to the conclusion that it is the same disease as that known as the rinderpest, which always exists in certain parts of Russia, and is the same epizootic as that at present raging in England." Subsequently, Veterinary Surgeon Gindin, describing an epizootic disease in Burmah, states "that it is analogous to, or identical with, the rinderpest now raging in England" (1866). Veterinary Surgeon Thacker entertains no doubt that the epizootic observed by him in Madras, and which correspond closely in every respect with our Bengal plague, were "rinderpest" and he calls them by that name. Veterinary Surgeon Farwell, in describing an epizootic of "goutee" in 24-Parganahs recently, expresses an opinion that it is the same disease as rinderpest. I might place the symptoms, &c., of the two diseases side by side without finding it necessary to alter a single term except in so far as the English disease has been made the subject of more accurate and complete inquiry and description than the Indian. Any one curious to verify the matter may compare the description of "rinderpest" in the reports of the Parliamentary Commission, and of "goutee" in my paper published in a Supplement to the *Calcutta Gazette*, dated 10th April, 1868, and find the two diseases accord to the minute detail. There is, however, one point of importance which demands more special notice. Many epizootics in this country, among them the Calcutta Epizootic of 1864, *goutee* and *goutee*, are perfectly identical. The symptoms and features of these are in every respect identical with those of "goutee" with this single exception, and perhaps the greater violence and more unimpaired character of the non-eruptive disease.

It is interesting to note that, while Dr. Palmer, describing a non-eruptive disease, declares its identity with the English mildness whose symptoms are described, and figured by Drs. Sanderson, Marchison and Bristowe, and which is called an exanthematous disease, and is imparted with small-pox. Dr. Murdoch of Aberdeen, the flourisher of the English cattle plague with "goutee" in India, finds it described by Drs. MacPherson, Gibson and Brown. A appendix to Third Report of Cattle Plague Com-

missioners, page 76-77). This would point strongly to the similarity of the two Indian diseases, eruptive and non-eruptive (puschima and gootee), if other evidence were wanting. Of course, if the disease is so virulent that the animal dies before the 4th or 5th day, the eruption has not had time to develop. Four days is stated by Dr. Palmer to be the average duration of fatal cases in Calcutta. At the commencement of the plague in England, the eruption was over-looked, and not until Mr. Cecily, of Aylesbury, prompted by the descriptions of old invasions of the disease, directed attention to the fact, was this feature detected or described. "It is now ascertained," Dr. Murchison remarks (op. cit., page 75), "that in most cases of cattle plague, not fatal within 3 or 4 days, there is an eruption on the hide in many respects resembling small-pox."

No mention is made of an eruption in the first two reports of the Royal Commission. Italian physicians, describing the cattle plague of 1811, and English physicians, describing that of 1745 and 1770, distinctly allude to a pustular eruption. Dr. Layard (quoted by Dr. Murchison, op. cit.) says that "it is an eruptive fever of the variolous kind, and, notwithstanding the exanthemata or pustules, may have been so frequently overlooked, yet none ever recovered without more or less eruption."

It is important to note that in both these instances the eruption was overlooked. This is not to be wondered at, when in many cases it consists merely of subcutaneous indurations, or of scabs and incrustations. Still it is of the greatest importance in determining the character of an epizootic to search most carefully for signs of skin disease, and describe them accurately. I suspect strongly that the term pustule has been used to signify what is not a true pustule. Dr. Sanderson (op. cit., page 12) quotes many continental authorities, who describe the eruption of rinderpest in "its home," and they employ terms identical with those used in England and here (tubercles, crusts, dry pustules, &c.) One observer (Falke) makes the observation that in some, not in all, epizootics an eruption appears. Seer speaks of a pustular eruption on the shoulders as occurring in some animals after recovery from rinderpest. Another authority speaks of their occurring frequently. Another in certain districts. Dr. Bristowe (op. cit., page 81) says that "a cutaneous eruption is present in a large proportion of cases," and compares it to modified small-pox. The eruption, then, seems from the above not to be an invariable feature, and to be more observable in certain epizootics and certain districts. This is clearly brought out by Professor Varnell, who visited towns around Aylesbury for the special purpose of studying the eruption. He found that it existed in some cases, and not in others, and describes those cases which he found covered with "crusts" as "mild cases." It is more probable that, owing to the malignancy of the disease at its commencement, no eruption appeared than that the many careful and skilled observers, who had their attention continually directed to it, should not have noticed such an important feature. Continental observers speak of the "disease assuming an exanthematous character," from which we may conclude that it does not always do so.

Turning to Indian experience—Veterinary Surgeon Thacker, whose experience of the disease probably exceeds that of any other observer, describes the disease as "accompanied at certain seasons of the year with falling off of the hair and formation of pustules on the skin." Veterinary Surgeon Farrell, in describing an outbreak of gootee in and about Diamond Harbour, states distinctly that in some places no eruption was observable, and in others pustules appeared. Many observers have noticed that an eruption appears in some cases, or at one period of the disease or outbreak, and it has been stated by several that epizootics, in which an eruption is absent or slight, are more malignant than those in which it is well marked, and that cases

in which the eruption is copious do better than those in which it is suppressed or absent.

Professor Simonds, in his treatise on ovine variola, says that "the formation of pustules ought to be regarded rather as an adventitious than an essential feature of the disease;" (Simonds on variola ovina, page 77), and Dr. Aitken (Science and Practice of Medicine, 3rd edition, page 272), states that the virulent form of variola ovina never produces pustules. These facts and considerations would justify the conclusions—

1. That eruptive and non-eruptive epizootics, whose features are otherwise the same, are varieties of the same essential disease.

2. That suppression or absence of an eruption is a sign of greater virulence.

3. That the occurrence of a skin eruption, or otherwise, will depend on either the essential nature of the epizootic on locality or on season (perhaps on the degree of concentration of the poison.)

How do these conclusions, which seem amply supported by observation from different quarters, tally with what is known in human pathology? It is a very well founded and wide spread belief, that the suppression or residence of an eruption in an exanthematous disease is a perilous event, or the metastasis of rheumatic or gouty action from external to internal parts. The cholera poison is sometimes so pernicious that, without the development of vomiting or purging (which we may consider the homologue of the cutaneous eruption of exanthems), the victim is struck down and dies—*Cholera sicca* on the other hand, in the exanthemata, more particularly small-pox, the more severe the eruption the more formidable and fatal the disease. Sydenham, it is true, describes "*Variolous fever*" or *Variolous Eruptions*, but it does not appear that it was more virulent or fatal than ordinary variola, and certainly not so much so as *Variola conflua* or *maligna*. I confess myself unable to solve this pathological problem satisfactorily, and with reluctance abandon the attempt, and leave it as an instance of one of the questions to which comparative pathology must eventually supply an answer.

(To be continued.)

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

STRICTURE OF THE URETHRA; DEATH FROM URETHRAL FEVER AND UREMIA.

By DR. FAYRE, C.S.I.

SOME months ago I was requested by his medical adviser, to see a gentleman who was suffering severely from urethral stricture of several years' duration. The patient was about 35 years of age; a stout, plabby, pallid and unhealthy looking person.

Several years previously I had seen him, and had then passed instruments up to No. 10. He was suffering from an irritable stricture, partly organic, but greatly aggravated by muscular spasms. Again, during the rainy season of 1868, I had seen him when in similar trouble, and was unable to introduce any instrument owing to the extremely irritable state of the stricture. He was exceedingly anxious to be operated on. I advised him to wait until the cold season, unless some urgent symptom should render immediate interference necessary.

I saw him again at 2 p.m. on the 16th day of the month, on the occasion I am about to describe, and found him looking in his usual state of health, but he was very nervous, restless and irritable; the bladder constantly attempting to empty itself, and the stricture consequently causing him extreme distress.

His bowels had responded to an aperient that day.

I immediately, and without any difficulty, passed instrument No. 19, into the bladder; being conscious both of the

the patient was weak, restless, and feverish; the structure of his bowels was resistant to the cathartic, and his urine comparatively little pain. Directly after he went into the bath-room, and voided some urine, which, I believe, was not even ten grains with blood; whilst passing the urine he had a rigor, and I thought of malarial fever during the evening. I did not see him again until the 14th, five days later, when I was requested by his medical adviser to visit him, at about 3 p.m. I found him very ill. He was evidently an ascetic, being about an Indian in an extreme state of restlessness and agitation, picking and starting at the bed clothes; his face was covise and indistinct; his pupils partially dilated; his converging strabismus, arising of internal; he was continually muttering or rather murmuring, and seemed to be in great pain; the entire nervous system was in a state of irregular spasms; his pulse was weak, feeble, and intermittent; he had been very sick during the day, and had had fever at intervals; but it was very slight, about 7 p.m. that he had passed into the condition in which I found him, and which was gradually becoming worse; his body was then cool, and his skin moist; and there was a peculiarly obnoxious ammoniacal odour in his breath and from his person; his abdomen was not distended, and the bladder was apparently empty. The feet and his lower extremities were moistened by a urinous-smelling fluid; the bowels were reported to have acted during the day; there was no tenderness on pressure over the pubes, nor was there any swelling or pain in the peritoneum; but he complained of vex during the day or previously. I could get no satisfactory evidence as to the quantity of urine that had been voided during the day, nor succeeded as to the exact quantity passed during the four days that he had been in stage I passed the abdomen. The attendants said that if he had passed it at all, it must have been a mere dribble, or when the bowels acted, there was very little aqueous excretion of any in the clothes. He appeared to be entirely unconscious, though unable to speak; he attempted to put out his tongue when I did to do so, it was dry and red at the edges, but brown in the centre.

I happened to meet that this was a case of uramic poisoning supervening on malarial fever; the kidneys, probably, originally defective, had succumbed, and rapid blood poisoning supervened in consequence.

His hair had already been cut short, and his head to the back it was now shaved and covered with ice. His fomentations were applied, also leeches and dry cupping to the loins; an ounce of sulphuric ether with asstretic, soap and water, and a powder of iodo-p and colodion was administered. He, however, got rapidly worse, the convulsions became more marked with intervals of comparative quiet, and finally, after a convulsion, he died at 10 a.m.

Until the 14th, when I was asked to see him again, there had been nothing in his condition to cause anxiety. He had feverish attacks occasionally with restlessness, and his urine had been passed until that morning. The treatment, I believe, had been kindly and salutary, with a simple and judicious diet. The bowels had been kept open by aperients when necessary.

On the morning of the 14th he was peculiarly restless, and appeared to be dull intellectually. The urine, as far as I can gather from those about him, had been less in quantity; and there had been unusual nausea and vomiting of bilious matter. The evening he passed rapidly into the state of uramic convulsions, in which I found him, and after this he rapidly sunk. I do not know much of his previous history, but I have reason to believe, that his life had been one of irregularity, and he had the truly elevated aspect of a man, whose habits are irregular and whose general health is not good. I regard this as a case of typical uramic supervening on malarial fever developed by the passage of a bungle through the structured urethra of a person of extremely irritable constitution with defective kidneys. The state of the structure, which was constantly threatening him, and had more than once effected complete obstruction and endangered his life, rendered interference necessary, and, accordingly, selecting the best season of the year, the winter, the treatment was commenced by the passage of a bungle, which I was astonished to find, was accomplished successfully. It was only he said in this case, that the faulty state of the general health was the cause of the evil consequences that followed. It indeed shows the danger that impends over any one so indolent, and proves that such assurance is not only the subject of great anxiety, but that they render the greatest care necessary, not only in the treatment, but in the mode

of the patient's life. It was supposed, I believe, that the patient had to undergo a formidable cutting operation. This only surgical proceeding was, as I have stated, the passage of a bungle, and this was accomplished with the greatest ease.

The subject of malarial fever in persons of irritable constitution, with enlarged blood-making power and defective eliminative organs in the malarious climate of Lower Bengal, is one of considerable interest, and I regard this case as illustrative of it, from its most interesting point of view.

I regret that I never had an opportunity of examining the urine, and that a *post mortem* was not obtained.

A CASE OF WORMS, DISTOMA HEPATICUM, OR LIVER FLUKE, IN THE HUMAN INTESTINES.

By SUB-ASSISTANT SURGEON-BEIK MAHER GHOSH,

Retired.

NEESEN ALTY, a delicate-looking man, aged 28, Chitragassie, admitted on 25th June, a.m.; no previous history could be ascertained. He was suffering from symptoms of collapse; temperature lower than natural; vomiting; passing frequent thin watery stools; great thirst; pulse firm and full; great pain in abdomen, increased on pressure. A rigor occurred after the more immediate symptoms had been relieved by treatment. In the afternoon passed three bloody stools mixed with fecal matter, voided with much grunting and straining. Reaction had taken place, and there was much fever. The stools consisted of blood mixed with shreds of gelatinous mucus; at the bottom of the vessel, there were four living worms; these were of pink color, flat and oval in shape, about 10 lines long by 5 broad. The cephalic end had a triangular mouth turned upwards, the caudate was terminated by a small notch. On the 26th, acute symptoms were much relieved, passed seven or eight stools of the same character, containing altogether 37 worms.

27th.—During the last 24 hours, he had three motions passed without grunting or straining; about 70 dead worms have been passed. 28th.—Fever returned; is much exhausted. From this date up to the 14th July, he did not improve, he had no more fever, and no particular symptom except constant hiccough, which no medicine could relieve, and his appetite was bad. On the 19th, he complained of soreness in the throat; difficulty of breathing and taking nourishment; voice husky; no food appearing in the fauces. He died exhausted on the 19th, not having been able to take any nourishment for the last three days.

Post-mortem examination five hours after death.—Patches of ulceration and scragging witain the throat and larynx.

The abdominal cavity having been opened, the whole of the intestines were taken out, and opened by a pair of scissors, from the rectum up to the middle of the jejunum. The alimentary canal was empty, and without any traces of morbid signs. Cutting further on, I saw several of these worms, quite alive, and firmly adherent to the mucous membrane of the intestines by their mouth. I picked every one of them (38 in number), in a living state. I kept them in three open phials with a little water, in which they moved like leeches; but not being able to catch hold of the inside of the bottle, they caught one another, so that when I tried to take out one, all of them came out. I then applied five grains of arsenic to a dozen of them in one bottle, three grains of snoutine to another, and kept the rest in a third bottle to see how long they remain alive without any thing being applied to them. Within two minutes after the application of the drugs the first set of worms began to move very freely, and within three or four minutes more most of them died, exuding out through their pores a sort of gelatinous fluid, but their color remained unchanged. Those in the second and third bottles began to die very slowly, and an hour elapsed before they were all dead. The part of the intestines, which was the seat of these cestodes, was very much thickened, indurated, and largely congested, giving in some places a knotty feel.

The duodenum and stomach, like other parts of the alimentary canal, were empty and healthy; liver and spleen normal.

The sub-assistant surgeon sent the worms to Calcutta, and the following account is given of them by Dr. Ewart, Professor of Physiology, Medical College.

I examined the cestodes forwarded for preservation in the college museum; there were no less than one hundred and thirty-three of these parasites. They are pretty full-grown

trematode entozoon, genus *distoma*, species resembling *distoma hepaticum*. The largest of them is almost an inch in length, half an inch in breadth, lanceolate in shape, large and rounded anteriorly, where it is suddenly or abruptly contracted so as to constitute a short neck. There is a well marked oral aperture—and also a large and more distinctly marked inferopore abdominal sucker, about a line from the mouth. This sucker is situated more anteriorly than in the ordinary *distoma hepaticum*. The ramified intestine is distinctly traced.

This entozoon does not very frequently invade the human subject. In the mature condition it is found in the four great classes of the vertebrata. When found in man, it usually occupies the gall bladder and bile ducts; but is occasionally observed located in the small intestines.

I have never before heard of such a large number having been taken from the digestive organs of the human subject.

CASE OF HYDROCEPHALOID DISEASE.

By DR MATHREW,

Civil Surgeon, Darjeeling.

UNDER the title Hydrocephaloid disease, Marshall Hall grouped the symptoms sometimes observed in young children, as the result of a sudden withdrawal from the brain of its normal blood supply. I cannot find that the new nomenclature of disease recognises this title, or gives any substitute for it, so that, if I were called upon to register the case I am about to refer to, I should be in a difficulty. A child, aged six months, had, in consequence of his mother's delicacy, to be weaned. From his birth he had been fairly healthy. For the first three weeks that he was on artificial diet he seemed to thrive; but, one day in the fourth week, he was attacked with vomiting and purging without any apparent cause. The purging was checked by remedies; but by an unfortunate mistake on the mother's part, the child for thirty six hours received no food, but very thin arrowroot and water. I saw him at the end of that time. He was perfectly cool, and, except for some languor, might have been pronounced well. I ordered him milk in small quantities at a time and diluted, but his stomach rejected it instantly. Various combinations of infant food were tried with the same result, and there was a return of some watery purging. Twelve hours later he was alarmingly low. He lay with his eyes half closed in his mother's arms, breathing somewhat heavily; his pupils were found to be very sluggish on exposure to light; his extremities were cold. His head was, if any thing, cooler than natural; there was no separation or fitting of the fontanelles, pulse small and slower than it should be at his age. Altogether it was a typical case of mawk hydrocephalus, as described by West, Gooch, and Marshall Hall. Strong chicken broth and brandy and water were given by the tea-spoonful every twenty minutes. Baths of hot water and mustard were used, and a mustard poultice laid on the chest. I noticed that the child rallied, but fell back again twice every twelve hours, with a strange regularity. It is almost needless to mention, that there were no febrile phenomena of any kind. No medicine was given, except small doses of Dover's Powder. The stomach gradually became less irritable. The purging ceased; and after three or four days the child was out of danger. *A thro* was procured; he was again put to the breast, and is doing well since.

No other line of treatment except stimulation would, I believe, have saved him. It misled by the vomiting and sluggishness of the pupil, I had concluded that there was active brain disease, and prescribed accordingly, the result would have been very different.

PULSATING ABDOMINAL TUMOUR.

SOME weeks ago, a Constable came into hospital with the above ailment. The tumour was well defined, as large as a cricket ball, and situated above the umbilicus. I desired Sub-Assistant Surgeon Soorjee Narain Singh, at that time in charge of the dispensary, to diagnose an I report upon the case. He decided that it was a local tumour, lying upon the aorta, and pointed it out with great clearness and accuracy all the reasons why it could not be an an-vascular or other growth. The Sub-Assistant Surgeon's diagnosis was proved by the results of treatment to be perfectly correct, for the tumour soon disappeared. There was nothing very peculiar about the case, but such are by no means common in this country, (if I remember right, the Sub-

Assistant Surgeon had not previously seen a similar one, and I consider it worthy of record as creditable alike to this officer's professional knowledge, and to the clinical teaching of the Medical College.

ABSCESS OF SPLEEN WITH EMPYEMA.

By THE CIVIL SURGEON,

Blauupare State.

MOGLI MERASSEE, aged 26 years, was brought for treatment on June 3rd last. He directed attention to his spleen, which was enormously enlarged—it extended anteriorly beyond the mesial line, and downward, nearly to the crest of the ilium. The organ was acutely tender; there was fever, anxious countenance, and dyspnoea. A puffly swelling existed in the left hypo-chondriac region—between the seventh and eighth ribs—where an abscess seemed to be pressing. At first, attention was addressed exclusively to the inflamed spleen, but on exposing the patient's body for closer examination, the entire left side of chest was seen to be distended and fixed in respiration—the intercostal spaces were tense, the nipple was pushed up, and there was absence of vocal thrill. In short, all the phenomena of fluid effused into the pleural cavity were complete. The man's history did not clearly explain his condition. He had had fever, followed by tumefied spleen some ten months previously. The spleen had remained quiescent for about nine months, when he was seized with symptoms answering to pleurisy of left side of chest, high up, in sub-clavicular region. Acute pain had extended downward into the spleen, and the entire side from chest to abdomen soon became synchronously distended. He could not define which cavity had first grown prominent; but all his suffering and distress were referred to the spleen. He received appropriate treatment until the 7th June, when deep fluctuation could be felt below, in left iliac region. By palpation with both hands, the fluid movement was transmitted throughout the splenic mass. An exploring needle determined the presence of pus in the iliac region, and the spleen was then tapped with a trocar in its depending part. Only two and a half ounces of clear pus escaped, which afforded hardly any relief to his distressing symptoms. Meanwhile, the upper fluctuating spot was becoming larger and more declared, and on the 10th, a trocar was introduced, which grated over the seventh rib. Healthy pus now flowed abundantly, and after one pound thirteen ounces had been drawn off, the cannula was secured in situ. This operation gave marked relief to the distended chest; all the matter seemed to come from the pleural cavity, while there was little decrease in the size of the spleen. Next day, the 11th, one pound four ounces more were removed through the *same aperture*, which made a decided impression on the bulk of the spleen. The thoracic and abdominal cavities were therefore in communication. Was the communication direct by perforation of the diaphragm, or was it partial, by burrowing sinuses?

Inoffensive pus continued to flow, to the amount of six pounds fifteen ounces, during the following fourteen days (occasionally missing a day); when the patient was taken away by his friends.

The compressed lung had rapidly expanded, the circumference of left chest had decreased by 2½ inches in a few days, and the heart's sounds were heard on left side of sternum. The cannula was withdrawn on the 15th, as it was difficult to keep it in position. A compress was placed upon the wound, and the patient took chlorate of potash with a little infusion. The wound was syringed daily with Condy's solution, and an *antiseptic* solution was applied. Purulent fluid continued to be discharged to the end, by pressure upon the spleen—none seemed to come from the pleural sac—but respiration was sometimes embarrassed by inward pressure upon the diaphragm, before the collected matter was expelled. When the patient was last seen, on the 25th June, he was in a promising condition. He was free from suffering, respiration was tranquil, air was heard all over the left lung, the spleen was considerably reduced, there was no hectic, and he was making flesh.

The formula for the antiseptic poultice above mentioned, is—Gambu Brozo melted 1 part, warm linsed oil 2 parts; mix. Add a sufficient quantity to the ordinary ingredients of a poultice, freshly made. Gambu Brozo or Venice turpentine is a Terrestrial exhalation of Pinus Longitoba, common in all bazars. This antiseptic agent will be found a cheap and

The Indian Medical Gazette.

Acknowledgments.

The Lancet.

Medical Press and Circular.

New York Medical Journal (July.)

Canada Medical Journal (July.)

Proceedings of Sanitary Commissioner (July.)

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"You have chosen the path, not of politics, but of science. Among those who have preceded you in it, and in our own particular department, we find some of the brightest ornaments of British history; and I will not do you the injustice of supposing that there is any one among you who would not prefer the reputation of Harvey or the Hunters to that of nine-tenths of the courtiers and politicians of the periods in which they lived."—SIR BENJAMIN ERDIE.

We have received a letter from Messrs. Thomson and Co., in reference to the article on drinking water in our last number, stating that the difficulties of cleaning and re-charging Dr. Macnamara's filter have been much over-rated. Messrs. Thomson are the manufacturers of the filter, and practically, therefore, may be better judges of its working than the inventor.

They state:—"The filter in the Martiniere has been twice thoroughly cleaned, and set to work in half an hour. The two at the Medical College have given no trouble, those at the Free School have been at work six months, and have not required to be touched, and the filter used in the 70th Regiment at Agra, has been working admirably since April."

In the course of a few months, the filter will have been well tested at other stations, and all its qualities proved.

THE SANITARY COMMISSION OF BENGAL.

We copy the following remarks from a recent article on Sir John Lawrence in *Edinburgh's Magazine*:—"He (Sir John Lawrence) directed the formation in the three Presidencies of Sanitary Commissioners for the special object of searching out abuses, and proposing means for their removal."

"These Commissioners existing in one form or another during his tenure of office have been indirectly of the greatest advantage; they have brought to the notice of the authorities evils which had long been unchecked—a state of insanitation affecting Europeans as well as Natives. At their suggestion a scientific examination of the drinking water at all the stations has been initiated, and this has already borne abundant fruit; every sanitary question is now forwarded for their opinion, and the fruit of their counsel has been manifested in the decrease of sickness and mortality, alike in the barrack and in the jail, in the town, and in the cantonment."

It would be an interesting study from the characteristic phraseology of this article to trace it to its source. At present, however, we would rather concern ourselves with the accuracy of this and similar statements, which have of late been thrust forward on the public.

In the first place, let us refer to the instance of Simla, where the late Viceroy and his "Imperial Sanitary Officer" (vide G. O., 10th September, 1868) have spent a considerable portion of their lives during the past five years. In 1865, the Sanitary Commissioner reported of Simla that "the sides of the hills are everywhere studded with human excrement;—it is not difficult to understand how filth, lying in the beds or on the hill sides, from which the streams are fed, should poison the whole waters of the station." Nevertheless, every year since similar nuisances have been reported and commented on, and yet the present sanitary state of Simla and its drinking water is as disgraceful as ever.

Sir John Lawrence and his sanitary staff when absent from Simla resided in Calcutta. Does this city owe one single sanitary improvement to their presence? Dr. Macpherson, in 1861, pointed out the deadly practices then in existence, but which are to this day perpetrated with regard to the pollution of the Hooghly, &c. &c. Under the municipal system of drainage improvement will doubtless be effected in the course of time; but it only wanted a little executive knowledge and energy on the part of the Sanitary Commissioner to have put a stop to the most crying evils long ago.

We have singled out Simla and Calcutta as instances in point, because they were evidently directly amenable to the influence of the late Viceroy and his Imperial Sanitary Commissioner. If we turn, however, to any other city or cantonment of the Empire, we find a similar state of things. Take the case of Amritsar,† witness the exposures that were made of its state during the recent outburst of cholera; who can say that cause and effect were not here strongly marked; yet the Government of the Punjab is by some means able to throw the whole blame on the Government of India, and to assert that it is owing to its false system of economy, that sewerage, drainage, and water improvements were not carried out years ago.

The Sanitary Commission was organized in February, 1864, to give effect to the 39 Articles recommended to be at once introduced by the Royal Commissioners appointed to enquire into the state of the Army in India in May, 1859; their report was published in May, 1863. But what becomes of the Sanitary Commission's laudation of itself and of its voluminous reports,

* Note the article on Drinking Water in the last number.

† See the Report, at page 221.

when it can be positively stated that not one of these 39 Articles is in force, with the exception of Nos. 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 21, relative to the plan and nomenclature of the new two-story Hospitals, with the designs of which the Commission had nothing to do, although they certainly were submitted to the Secretary of State with its approval.

What the Secretary of State addressed the Government, No. 14 of the 2nd April, 1858, as to the progress that had been made in sanitary matters in India, the Local Sanitary Commission replied by forwarding extracts from their annual reports, showing that many things were *done*, but that nothing had been *left*.

Nevertheless, if the country chooses to entertain highly-paid officials to comment on the vital statistics of British troops, we may have the subject in their hands. There is another view of the question, however, we must consider, entailing, as we believe it does, the gradual destruction, or at all events, deterioration of the Indian Medical Service, owing to the functions allotted by the Imperial Sanitary Commissioner. We can no longer view this slow but certain decay in silence, and we can consider it our duty clearly to express our opinion on the anomalous position assumed by that officer with respect to the Medical Service of this country.

The first President of the Sanitary Commission, a distinguished member of the Bengal Civil Service, commenced his sanitary career in 1861, as the presiding officer of the Purgob Chelra Commission. In 1864 he joined the Bengal Sanitary Commission, in 1866 he was promoted to the Government of Oudh, and in 1868 he was transferred to the Supreme Council of India, receiving charge of the Home Office at the same time.

It was last year that the communications from that department began, which appear to us to have been so inimical to the interests of the Medical Service. There has since been many a painful instance of a desire, in fact of a steady resolution, to exalt the sanitary above the medical administration, but none, perhaps, of such significant importance as when the Statistical Officer to the Medical Department was rudely withdrawn from it.

Under a system of this kind, the Medical Department is almost ignored. Men who, from long experience and intelligence, have been promoted to the administrative ranks, find themselves denied, their advice neglected, and, in fact, feel themselves unprofitably useless for all practical purposes, while the Civil Medical Officers, whose proper position is immediately subordinate to the Medical Department, and who look to it for advice and assistance, are engaged to report direct to a local Sanitary Commissioner, to obey his instructions and orders, and it may be even to prepare his reports for him. Indeed, so much has happened of late to the Service which "a Britisher can't understand," that we content we look with suspicion to a recent order of Government which we should otherwise have welcomed; and which runs as follows:—

"But whatever reasons there may have been when the Sanitary Department was first established for placing a Civilian or a Military Officer at its head, those reasons do not now exist. The Governor-General in Council thinks it would tend to facilitate the business of the department if the Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India should be a Medical Officer." * * *

This is complimentary to the Profession, but well nigh destructive to the Service, for this reason—every question, small

or great, medical, administrative, educational, economical, &c., are referred for report to the heads of the British or Indian Medical Departments, is finally sent to the Imperial Sanitary Commissioner for his opinion, before the Systeme Government will act on the judgment of those who ought to be their medical advisers. This was objectionable when a Civil or Military Officer presided, and it is but little better when a Junior Medical Officer occupies the same post.

Probably the Imperial Sanitary Commissioner has become the head of the Medical Department in India. He can override the advice given by the British Inspector-General in all but discipline, and he has still greater power over every branch of the Indian Medical Service. The fallacy of this position must be apparent. The sanitary administration of the country cannot be carried on without the aid and authority of the Medical Department, and the Sanitary Commissioner can only press, or do it so, in tandem with the reports which he requires from it. Moreover, no one man in the service, or out of it, however great his title and fact may be, is capable *alone* of being trusted to be the responsible adviser to the Government of India, it may be in direct opposition to the Inspectors-General of the British and Indian Medical Services.

For these reasons we view with dislike and distrust the separation that exists between the medical and sanitary administrations in this country. The enhancement and elevation of the sanitary over the legitimate administrative officers has caused a gap between them which must ever be widening, unless their relative positions are re-arranged; the one is grasping for power, the other is powerless to resist; and it is the knowledge that sanitation cannot exist without the co-operation of the Medical Department, which makes the Service desire they should pull together, and not be working at variance as at present—weakness being the inevitable result of want of union.

That the sanitary office is a most convenient one to the Government is no denial. An office created by, perhaps, the most administrative in the Civil Service, is sure to be of utility. It is the repository of sanitary matters throughout India, and it gives publicity to all interesting work in this department which had not previously been placed before the public; nevertheless, this might all have been done in connection with the Medical Department, and not by officers of its own branch acting *ex officio* for it. But if there must be a separate sanitary department in India for political sake let it be kept to its proper sphere; keep its sanitary conservancy, engineering, and inspection, but do not create and multiply the duties until it is beyond its power to perform them.

If Government have the sanitation of the country really at heart, it should follow the practice pursued in England and every other civilized country in the world, and make its sanitary service a subordinate branch of the medical. Dr. Parks, no mean authority on these matters, does not consider it compatible with his position to work under the medical authorities of the H. H. S. Grande, but he probably feels, as every right-minded man would do, that his rare talent cannot be better spent than in supporting and abetting the influence, and thereby strengthening the Director-General, and the Department to which he belongs.

We would add one word more, it is an odd but no less true maxim, and one which no Englishman living can more fully appreciate than our present Governor-General, that all successful rulers, whether civil or military, have achieved great

victories, because they have had the power of gaining the confidence, and, at the same time, of being able, fully and implicitly, to *trust* those who have served them; without this feeling of mutual confidence between subordinates and their rulers, no great ends can ever be attained; and does this feeling exist at present between the Indian Government and the Indian Medical Department?

CONTAGIOUS DISEASES' ACTS.

As evidence accumulates on the working of these Acts, local and limited as they have been made, we become more and more distrustful of the enthusiastic reports by which their first introduction was proclaimed. After the glowing language in which success was announced, the sanguine and the credulous must be somewhat startled at finding themselves suddenly brought face to face with the proceedings of committees appointed to enquire into causes of failure. Yet, from all the information hitherto given to the public, it would seem that the course of events has been precisely such as might be expected from very partial legislation. No doubt, a commencement on a moderate scale was desirable. It was only prudent that the earlier attempts of authority to reduce a disorderly class to discipline and impose restriction on license, should be guarded from internal causes of failure as well as from danger of wide-spread alarm to the peculiar susceptibilities of Englishmen. It was well too that the State, acting in the interests of the public, in view of the great injury they suffered from the prevalence of syphilis in the army and navy, should direct its first efforts against the sources within easiest reach of the soldier and sailor. Military and naval stations, therefore, became the scenes of operation.

For a time all went well. The influence of detection and hospital treatment of diseased women was speedily felt in the limited communities among which the Act was enforced. Unfortunately, the necessity for exhibiting results to an expectant public, with a willingness to elevate the character of the work done, and, perhaps, to conciliate the contentions and rather cloudy-minded class of moralists who, by aimless talk, endeavoured to lead the movements in the direction of their own imaginings, induced medical officers to inflate their official narratives with a pretentious morality and a turgid style of writing, which, betraying the scanty acquaintance of its authors with the natural history and spontaneous tendencies of prostitution, confused the records, and impairs confidence now in their data, on topics which call for dispassionate treatment as questions of calm scientific truth.

Soon, however, the pictures of success began to lose some of their brighter colors. Hospital figures appeared less favourable than at first, and difficulties of working came to the surface. Explanations were copious and satisfactory enough in assigning a cause for the falling off, but less so in showing that it arose from defects which could not be eliminated from the existing system. Local laws might reduce disease within the limits of their operation, but they could not prevent its importation from without, while places in free communication were unprotected. Organisation was wanting. There was friction in the machinery of the hospitals. The authority of individual officers was ill-defined, and discord arose where conjoint action required the greatest harmony. It was necessary to work a tentative measure with economy of money, and portions of general hospital were set apart for syphilitic cases

in preference to separate establishments. In some instances the gratuitous service of the profession was called into requisition, in others well-paid officers were employed, and hence there arose a sense of inequality and injustice, and a disinclination to conceal any longer from view the evils of piecemeal legislation.

The more closely we scrutinize the printed report, the more evident does it appear, that the fundamental defect, which underlies the leading faults now brought to light in the insufficiency of a system designed to guard only a small section of the community from an evil which exists throughout the length and breadth of the land. The special object of the Act and indeed all it pretended to do, would, we admit, be accomplished if disease were reduced to a minimum to the army and navy; but we are now in a position to maintain, on the evidence of facts, that so long as our soldiers and our sailors ashore mix freely with the general population, their exemption cannot be secured by laws which are local and very circumscribed in their action. It is true that, from defective details of administration, full benefit may not have been realised from the system in use, and that measures of internal reform may yet bring about partial and temporary improvement; but they cannot touch the organic mistake of endeavouring to keep a small unisolated neighbourhood clear of contagious disease which surrounds it; indeed it is on record that the very measures undertaken for this purpose, tend to concentrate disease on the spot itself, for while a few women from outside places are drawn by a healthy attraction to the hospitals themselves, a larger number are brought into the vicinity to fill the vacancy and supply the demand created by the withdrawal of its diseased inhabitants.

The Parliamentary Committee for the present decline, on account of its magnitude, to approach the question of extending the Act to the civil population; but that they recognize in the facts before them, indications of its necessity is seen in the proposal to enlarge the limits of the present Act by extending it to a distance of fifteen miles from stations, and increasing the number of the latter. It is no disparagement to the present Acts to regard them as insufficient even for their special purpose. They have been eminently useful in shewing that very valuable results may attend this limited and imperfect working, and have silenced the clamour of pseudo-philanthropists, who hold the power of doing vital mischief to one's neighbour to be an integral part of political liberty; and if they have proved themselves incapable of perpetuating success in their restricted form, they have pointed the way to it in a legitimate and natural extension of their scope; while their results may well allay the doubts and fears of timid or sceptical legislators in dealing with the general population of the country.

The proposed reforms in hospital management are simple, and if too much be not expected of them, may effect their object; we greatly doubt, however, that civil authority will concede to a medical officer the power of discharging a woman from the liabilities of a prostitute on any resolution she may form in hospital. It is contended that many a woman, "restored to a virtuous life," would object to apply to a justice in an open court for a discharge from attendance, but would feel no such objection to being discharged by the medical officer under whose care she had been. This may be true, but the grounds of application must be more or less matter of assumption or credibility on the part of the medical officer. Proof of such a point, in the majority of cases, must be exceedingly difficult, and

we at length the great system of local sanitary inspection by the perfected system of Paris. But irrespective of these practical objections, the power of granting discharge is a power which could be rightly vested in a medical officer under any circumstances.

We pass from doubt to a feeling of unqualified objection when we come to the recommendation of a return to the hygienic practice of periodical inspection of soldiers for venereal disease. We cannot discover or conceive the grounds on which this proposal rests, and cordially endorse the criticism of the *Medical Times* on it. If the neighbourhood and the soldier cannot be hindered by local efforts from profusing disease, it seems better criticism to expect that any good can result from a system, unless it be proved that the soldier suffers more severely from syphilis in consequence of concealment than he would incur earlier detection. So far from this being the case, it is actually disproved by experience. In the most place, it is the opinion of those best qualified to judge, that voluntary concealment does not and cannot exist in the ranks to any appreciable extent. A soldier does and must report himself sick soon after he is aware of the fact; and if he unduly delays to do so, punishment follows on his discharge from hospital. And if it be contended that disease being detected on inspection may be prevented from infecting the constitution of the man, it can only be by persons unacquainted with the literature of the subject, and the undisputable evidence which modern research has produced, that the poison is absorbed long before any local sign of its reception appears. This teaching of recent science is in strict accord with the negative results which were obtained from inspection in days when it was practised, when simple observation was the only guide, and no doctrine existed to obstruct it.

If it could be proved that inspection were either necessary or useful, it would not be wise to urge, in opposition to it, the great dislike with which medical officers and men regard it. This dislike has been treated lightly by those surgeons, whose testimony would appear to have led the Committee. In common with the *Medical Times*, we know the practice to be looked upon as a duty solely in the ranks. There must be many of our contemporaries who with ourselves can recall the scene of a regimental inspection. How the line of men, exposing themselves to the medical officer at the word of command, showed by their faces the sense of their position which was engendered. The picture was not without its hideous features, and those were accentuated in the warlike attire of some highland boys, whose increment, there was no denying it, was mainly at the expense of the officer who was forced with a grave face to conduct the proceedings. But behold, too, the serious and more important side. All-honour be to it, in many a look of sullen abasement and worse than all was the picture of degradation, which the faces of the earnest men presented, and which, we speak for ourselves, must have been strongly reflected in our eyes. Far, far, far, it is to be regretted, that we were not from the commencement that we were in transit to our new system.

From the proceedings of the Sanitary Committee with the Government of India, for June last, we derive some information on the working of the Contagious Diseases Act in Indian cantonments. Here, as in England, no case has been found since the 1st day, and the Government have called for an opinion as to whether any further orders should be issued on the subject of

preventing venereal disease, and for obtaining, in a uniform manner, means to show the effects in the diminution of disease produced by the measures now in force." The Commissioner summarises the facts which the periodical reports present, and from them it is easy to understand the dissatisfaction of the authorities. Here, however, it is not possible to prove a case against the principle of local Acts, for the administration of them has been so loose and disultory, that no conclusion of necessary probability can be drawn.

Not less loose and disultory, we are forced to observe, is the manner in which the Commissioner handles the figures he receives. He tells us that the admissions into hospital, among European soldiers, between 1852 and 1855, varied from 204 to 133 per 1,000. From the latter year to 1864 it never fell below 250. In 1864 it was as high as 369. "The occurrence of only 166 cases per 1,000 in 1867, therefore, presents a remarkable improvement." We often see reason to wish our chief sanitary authority were endowed with some little dexterity in detecting the meanings of figures. Here the rate of admission varies during a period of years between 133 and 369. In 1867 it reaches 166, that is to say, it is within the range of fluctuation of the former period, nevertheless it is confidently offered to us as evidence of "remarkable improvement."

The Commissioner, in view of this remarkable improvement, had indulged in a hope "that with the development of Local Hospitals an increased care in carrying out the rules for the prevention of the disease, a further diminution would be effected. This expectation, however, has not been realized." This is unfortunate no doubt, but if the Commissioner had based his expectation on a full knowledge of the existing laxity in working the Act, and not on a misinterpretation of the figures of 1867, he would have had to record recurring failures, but not lament disappointed hope. A few unsatisfactory statements follow, the substance of which is thus stated—"A great prevalence of venereal disease in this Presidency and relatively an increase of disease during 1868, as compared with 1867," and some particulars of the actual working of the Local Hospitals are given. The number of women admitted stands in no proportion to that of registered prostitutes, not to that of infected soldiers, and the Commissioner concludes—"It may certainly be affirmed that their cost has far exceeded any benefit which can have been derived from them."

Speaking in general terms, it is not too much to say that the Act has not yet been put into force in cantonments. No conclusion can be drawn of its capabilities from the mere pretence of administration which is all that can be discovered in a large number of stations. Registration is nominal, hospital treatment does not observe even the name, and until the broad provisions of the Act are put into some semblance of execution, it seems not to issue new orders on accessory details, such as the classification of women, the multiplication of records, &c.

In the 11th & 12th paragraphs it is recommended that all unmarried officers should be examined on their arrival in cantonment, to ascertain if they are affected with venereal, and that all soldiers admitted into hospital with venereal should be subjected to weekly examination for six months after discharge. In an *Enquiry* statement the first proposal cannot be made even to appear plausible. In the large standing camp of Aldershot, which has been found to be a fruitful source to clear the

place of syphilis, and fair success has followed, it is reasonable that officers should look with some jealousy on the arrival of regiments from less guarded stations, as likely to re-infect the camp; and the same may be said of naval stations receiving ships from abroad, but there is not even a show of reason for thus treating men who arrive at a new station in India. Until the stations themselves are in some degree purified, the Commissioner surely does not affect to think they can be made worse than they are by men who have come off a journey. When the Act shall have been fairly put in force, it will be time to consider whether importation of disease impairs its success, but it is illogical in the highest degree to propose, as a working detail of a neglected law, a return to a practice which, full of objection and complete in uselessness, had perished before the law was made. It is simply an admission that the Act is essentially worthless.

Similarly, we are unable to see what good can be expected from weekly examination after discharge from hospital. It cannot be required for the detection of the common forms of secondary disease, but it may perhaps be argued that without the recurrence of specific infection, the seat of a sore is liable to a form of secondary affection which is itself contagious; these cases, however, are exceptional, and against them may fairly be set off the diminished liability of a syphilitised man to contract new infection, so that, on the whole, it would be difficult to prove any special necessity for inspecting men so circumstanced. We observe, however, on referring back, that the object of the practice is the protection of the women. Now, in another portion of his paper, the Commissioner tells us that there is no particular class of women who confine themselves to the soldier, but that those whom he visits cohabit freely with civil inhabitants. Of their visitors, therefore, the soldiers are doubtless but a small numerical proportion, and the protection which this harassing inspection can afford is imaginary.

An opinion has lately been put forward in some quarters, that there is injustice in subjecting public prostitutes to examination, while the other sex are less at liberty. Space does not now admit of our discussing the subject, but the arguments on the other side are so over-powering, that we think there can be little fear of the opinion gaining many advocates. A very short experience in a town is needed to show that the prostitute is the real infecting centre in every practical sense. The number of men who, in ordinary circumstances, may contract disease in a single night from one of these, is alone sufficient, in the cause of public health, to remove all parallel between the woman's and the man's position, and to shew the purely ideal nature of the alleged equality between them. It is contended that the woman must be infected by the man before she can spread infection. True; and the cess-pool only furnishes a nidus of development to the typhoid germ which it receives from without; shall we, therefore, leave the cess-pool untouched in its malignity until we are prepared to arrest the germ on its way there.

CHOLERA.

We need hardly remind our readers, that cholera raged with great fury from June to September 1867, in the valley of Cashmere, and about the same time it was imported into Cabul from British India. In the city and neighbourhood of Jellalabad, the disease was most virulent, but on the approach of the cold season cholera died away, to be reproduced in the following

year (1868), when it advanced westward by rapid strides as far as the north of Persia, raging with considerable violence at Teheran, from the 24th of August to the 11th of October; it spread to the surrounding villages, but does not appear to have taken any very great hold on their inhabitants.

Early in 1869 cholera again appeared at Herat, and making sad havoc in that city, it extended to Furrak and the intermediate country; and we now hear by telegram from London, dated August, the 19th, that "cholera is travelling south from Teheran, and is raging at Shiraz and Isfahan."

As far back as June the disease was said to have made its appearance in Bagdad, but we have seen no later notice confirming this intelligence. It is well to observe, however, that the course pursued by the cholera above indicated, was precisely that which it followed from the Punjab into Cabul, and, via Herat, to the north of Persia, in 1829, 1845, and 1853; during these years the disease was imported, as it has been in 1867, into Afghanistan, and was followed by an outburst of cholera at Teheran and throughout the north of Persia, from thence extending over the Caucasus, or more commonly along the shores of the Caspian, from Razed to Astrachan, and so into Europe and America, in 1831-32, 1848, and 1854. Whilst the Punjab cholera of 1867 has been steadily advancing westward, we have witnessed a fresh, and most virulent outburst of the disease, extending well nigh over the whole of British India.

The Central Provinces are the route which the cholera of Bengal follows when advancing directly from east to west across India, in contradistinction to its north-west passage through the Punjab, and so to Cabul, as above indicated. In 1867, it is remarkable that the Central Provinces were almost absolutely free from cholera; but in January, 1868, a gang of coolies from Mirzapore imported the disease into the Gungah Gungee Valley, from whence it spread southward to Nagpore, eastward to Mandlak and westward into the Nursingpore district. Dr. C. S. Townsend reports "that on the 5th of June a heavy fall of rain occurred, which was very general over the districts of Jubbulpore and Seonee; from this time the number of villages attacked increased daily, but it was not till the middle of July that the disease reached its greatest amount of diffusion. In the beginning of August it again subsided, and by the 20th of that month had almost ceased." Nevertheless, in September, cholera was still present in the Nagpore and Jubbulpore districts; and in the following month was more severe than usual in parts of the Island of Bombay.

In April, 1869, cholera again broke out at Nagpore, and was generally prevalent throughout the Central Provinces; we hear of it at the same time far away to the west of India, on the road between Khandeish and Mhow, at Nagode, and Indore. On the other hand, our most eastern possessions were likewise under the influence of this terrible disease, for it was fearfully virulent at Akyab during the early months of the year, and it is present now in various parts of Burmah.

It is beyond our province to follow the extension of cholera over India since the commencement of 1869, but we may safely affirm that it has been prevalent throughout the Bengal Presidency, spreading over the North-West, Central Provinces, and far away into the Punjab to Unrisir (where it has been very deadly), branching off also to Sialkot, and extending along the Tibet road beyond Simla. Cholera broke out in the city of Peshawar on the 7th of September, the mortality gradually

dose of physic, that in this way the disorder has gradually changed from an acute to a chronic nature, and the patient recovered, but that a single dose of jalap and calomel would counteract it, and render this plan of no avail."

Mr. Abercrombie, on this subject, speaks as follows in his letter to me, dated 21st May, 1866:—

"I have just been perusing the extracts you sent me some years ago from Dr. Francis Duncan's letter on inflammation of the colon, and with the execution of the ardent burning fever which he describes so particularly as an attendant on his disease, I do not know that it can be said to differ materially from the disease we have had at Gooty. I cannot say, indeed, that we have been able, even generally, to trace the disease to have been, as the Doctor says his was, preceded by costiveness or immediately induced by cold; in all other symptoms however, and especially in its fatal termination, this disease and that described by Dr. Duncan resemble each other but too much. I have not got the Doctor's printed letter by me, so that I cannot draw a sufficiently close comparison of the diseases. Does not Dr. Duncan say that his disease chiefly, or only, affects recruits or young men during the first 18 months of their residence in India? We have lost upwards of 20 men, all of whom have been upwards of three years in the country, and none of whom survived the 11th day of the disease, some not the 7th. Notwithstanding the very general prevalence of this terrible disease at Gooty, I have not been able to trace anything like a remote cause of it, nor, indeed, the immediate cause, excepting in a few cases where the unfortunate sufferer evidently drank himself to death; this last, however, I am satisfied, cannot be admitted to any extent as an exciting cause. I am inclined to suspect that affections of the bowels, and this disease in particular, must be endemic or peculiar to Gooty, for not a single case, such as I have been describing, has occurred among our companies at Bellary, nor has there been by any means our usual number even of the common affections of the bowels at that station. On enquiry I find the 53rd Regiment, and particularly the 75th Regiment, when quartered here, suffered very much from this disease. I have remarked that of four women (Europeans) confined in childbirth within the last three months at Gooty, two have died of puerperal fever."

Having thus shown the probable causes and the nature of the disease which are necessary to form a just estimate of the utility of the practice followed, I will shortly state that from early in 1795, the date of Dr. Duncan's letter, to May last, the practice most approved by those best qualified to judge (for mercury was, and is still, a favorite with some) was by naseating doses of ipecacuanha and opium, blisters, warm bath, fomentations to the abdomen, warm covering, emollient injections, or ipecacuanha or opium, or sometimes acetate of lead, with a strict attention to a mild diet, bleeding when the pulse warranted, or inflammatory symptoms run high, and every means to moderate inflammation, sooth, or arrest the abrasion of the mucus, their natural defence, that the inflammation might terminate in resolution or suppuration; for if this cannot be effected, it rapidly runs into mortification and death, as numerous dissections have shown.

Mr. Abercrombie had much experience, when at Aroet, in this disease both in recruits and the men of the regiment, and had the highest opinion of its utility, and was considered a successful practitioner by it, as many of my letters to your Board will show. It was not, therefore, without the strongest conviction of the necessity of some more active practice being necessary to combat the severity of the disease at Gooty than he had yet followed, that he adopted his assistant, Mr. Graham's suggestion of a practice pursued by a friend of his in Africa, and has followed it up with success and confidence. It is this for which he deserves the greatest credit, in adopting and proving on himself the safety of so bold a practice, and in recommending its utility, for the indications of cure are not altered, nor the medicines, it is the quantities of the remedies alone that are uncommon, and which require proof of safety and efficacy to be more generally given.

I have made this a separate report from the interest and value that must be attached to this seemingly most successful treatment of so severe a flux, which I here you will approve, and think the knowledge of it worthy of being circulated to general information and trial; that if found effectual, one uniform practice may be adopted, which is always an object of much consequence in the treatment of troops.

Extract of a letter from Mr. ABERCROMBIE, Surgeon of H. M.'s 34th Regiment, to Dr. ANDREW BERRY, Superintending Surgeon. Dated Gooty, 21st May, 1866.

"Graham now informed me that a friend of his, who had been much employed in the Guinea trade on the coast of Africa, was in the constant practice of exhibiting in the dysentery of that country, large doses of ipecacuanha with a sufficient quantity of linseed oil, to prevent the ipecacuanha operating as an emetic. I began and have invariably pursued this practice for a month past, and from the result, I have no hesitation in saying that I think the fairest possible trial should be given to it, and that I am confident it is in many cases more productive of the best possible effects. The following are the particulars of my practice and experience of this remedy. On the patient's reporting himself, he immediately takes five grs. opii, ʒiʒss ʒi, and in about 15 minutes afterwards half ipecac. Of or ʒiʒss, xxv; in the evening the dose is repeated, but only of about half the quantities taken in the morning. In these proportions, and with very little variation, the remedy is continued as long as the symptoms indicate, and I have given it daily as above for 6, 7, and 8 days."

"A very few days after I last wrote you on the subject of colitis, I had myself very sudden and nearly as severe an attack as I ever have met with, and although by our new practice I got presently rid of the violent symptoms, I have not even now got the better of the complaint and its consequences."

"I shall be very happy to hear what you think of the practice, and if you have yet had any opportunities of seeing it tried. At first sight the general febrile symptoms noticed above seem such as would have forbidden the exhibition of a large dose of opium, however combined. I maintain, however, from repeated experience, that the practice is perfectly safe; in my case the third dose of the medicine produced every effect required; it seldom happens that less than double the number of doses proves sufficient, and I very commonly continue the medicine, morning and evening as in my own case, for 7, 8, or 10 days. The modus operandi of this medicine is evidently by its powerful determination to the skin, to which I conceive may be added, what you hinted to me, a certain antiperistaltic action of the ipecacuanha—the former effect appears clear, as well from the sensible perspiration as from an eruption* on the skin, which very commonly appears and resembles a good deal the prickly heat; in many cases this eruption about the mouth, face and neck runs on to a kind of suppuration, and seals are to be made in my case the lower part of my face resembled much that of a person recovering from condiment small-pox. From an account I lately read of some experiments made with opium on healthy subjects, I have no doubt that this last is an effect entirely of the remedy, and not, as I once suspected, of the disease; besides this symptom never appears except in cases treated as above. That this medicine has some antiperistaltic action or power may, I think, be argued from the nausea which it so very generally produces, and indeed from the large quantity of ipecacuanha taken. I would here make the practical observation, that if the medicines are retained for one hour, the desired effect is nearly as well answered as if the medicine was not at all produced sickness and vomiting."

From Mr. McMULLENS, Surgeon, H. M.'s 68th Regiment, to A. BERRY, Esq., Superintending Surgeon. Camp at Colar, dated 17th February, 1867.

DEAR SIR.—When I had the pleasure of seeing you at Vellore, I had some conversation with you upon the utility of opium and ipecacuanha in that species of dysentery most generally met with, and hitherto too generally fatal in India, viz, colitis.

"Every case of any importance will be found in my monthly journals, suffice it, therefore, to say that of the casualties which have occurred, at least 215 have been cases of flux. The months of July and August were the most fatal, almost the only disease then existing was flux, and the casualties amounted to about 1/4th of the cases; the treatment consisted of mercury both internally and by friction, bleeding where the state of the

* Is the result of opium being treated with opium, or is it the perspiration? I have seen many instances of a purpuric eruption having been induced.—W. R. C.

Eight or ten fresh admissions were standing at the gateway as I left the jail, and all of these had well developed scurvy.

Before I close these remarks, I will allude briefly to the epidemic disease which has for some years past prevailed in this zillah, and place on record my views regarding its nature and origin. In the first place, I think there can be no doubt that the fever, which has caused such dreadful mortality in Hooghly during the last few years, has nothing specific in its nature, and is neither more or less than the ordinary miasmatic fever which prevails everywhere in Bengal, at certain seasons of the year; but in the Hooghly District in an aggravated form, depending on certain conditions of soil and climate, which have been superadded to those which always existed in this zillah, as in all the other provinces of Lower Bengal. I do not believe we have ever had reliable information of the mortality which has prevailed in Bengal year by year, during the months most favorable for the production of fever. During the rainy season large portions of every zillah are submerged, an immense cultivation is carried on in the inundated districts (rice), which, consuming as it does the decaying animal and vegetable matters existing in the soil, aids with the inundation in keeping down noxious exhalations. During these months, moreover, the meteorologic changes which are everywhere observable, are less marked than they are at other seasons of the year; it is true the rain-fall is considerable, but the extremes of temperature are not excessive, the daily range of the thermometer being about five to eight degrees. We consequently find that disease is not so prevalent in the province, as it is later in the season; but when there is a considerable daily range of the thermometer, great variation in the humidity of the atmosphere, and great evaporation going on from the soil, with a certain amount of actual cold, then we have in full operation all those common but active influences which produce disease, and the rural population suffers at once from insufficient clothing and diet, as also from the climatic peculiarities which I have just indicated. Fevers are then rife, accompanied in nearly all cases by visceral congestions, principally of the spleen and liver, but occasionally of the lungs, and frequently of the articular structures. These fevers continue to prevail in November, December, January, February, and March, when the hot season sets in, and for three months the poor, destitute Bengalee experiences as much of health as his low state of vitality will permit; but on the occurrence of any sudden or unexpected climatic change, or on being subjected to special influences, he at once succumbs, and the type of the disease (whatever it may be) is influenced by his low state of vitality, and the unhealthy state of the tissues. It is not uncommon to find many of these cases developing into typhoid fever, or exhibiting typhoid symptoms, the state of the system being such that any prolonged attack of disease will be associated with, and accompanied by, an adynamic state; but I am convinced that the fevers of Bengal which have caused, and are producing such mortality, and exemplarily so in the Hooghly District, are simple fevers of the intermittent, remittent or continued types, originating in common causes, but influenced by the low hygienic state in which the greater part of the population are maintained. We all know the insupportable influences which are to be found in a Bengalee village, and the absence of all conservancy arrangements, but these are not peculiar to the Hooghly villages, and they are (though destructive enough in themselves), not the causes of the Hooghly epidemic. What then, are the causes which, in addition to those enumerated here, have caused a once flourishing district to be half populated, and which threaten to throw half the land out of cultivation? The portion of the Hooghly District which has suffered most from the ravages of this fever, is that comprised between the Damoodah and the Hooghly; intersecting this tract of land from west to east, run many khalls or rivulets: these were ultimately connected with the drainage of the country, and they were the means whereby the floods of the Damoodah, when they rose, found means of egress into the Hooghly. The khalls were in fact an important part of the natural drainage of the country, they were not only safety valves to the Damoodah, but they exercised a fertilising and sanitary influence on the whole surface of the district. But it was found (as many and often happens) that this process was not wholly a beneficial one, it had the inconvenience of inundating a large tract of country in seasons of great flood, and then the crops suffered, and the revenue also. A remedy was proposed and carried out, a bund was constructed on the left or Eastern bank of the Damoodah, cutting off the head waters of the khalls; and these latter, as a consequence, commenced silt up.

As long as the Damoodah floods traverse this net-work of small rivers their beds kept free, and thus afforded a certain and

efficient drainage for the district after the floods had subsided. A district will suffer less from an occasional flood, than from a continuous saturation of the soil, and so it has been found in the Hooghly District,—when then, in course of time, these water-courses more or less filled up, the natural drainage of the country, which we had interfered with, was in abeyance, and we had substituted nothing in its place. There is another point of some importance: the first effect of the spring rains in this district used to be to wash all the surface filth of the district into the khalls, and the first flood from the Damoodah swept this into the Hooghly, and out to sea. Now, on the contrary, the first rain-fall washes the surface impurities of the previous months into the khalls, with an admixture of alluvial matter, and then we find the siltling up—a process which combines the admixture of various degrees of impurities with the soil, and the ultimate drying up of these under the rays of a tropical sun.

This latter, however, is an influence which will only injuriously affect those who live on and near the khalls; but the super-saturation of the soil, which results from the closing up of the natural drainage channels of the district, is by far the most important question, and demands an immediate remedy. One cannot however but consider that the process whereby the filth of a Bengalee district was annually scoured out, and removed from amongst the inhabitants, was a very remarkable instance of natural sanitation. The remedy is, I suppose, a point for an engineer to settle, but there can be no doubt, that whatever is done, a thorough and complete drainage of the district must be carried out; and I conceive this can only be done at a great expense, in which the zemindars and the Government might act in concert. In course of time new channels would be formed, and 20 or 30 years hence the district would again drain itself; but that, of course, cannot be permitted; and the only plan open to the Government is, I am of opinion, either to deepen the old water-ways, or to construct new ones, or flood-gates might be constructed at the head waters of the canals coming from the Damoodah, whereby a sufficient flood could be permitted to scour out and deepen the khalls, and yet insufficient in quantity to cause any submerging of the district. Though costing very much more, I think I should prefer the establishment of a new drainage system altogether, which might be arranged in connection with the irrigation canal project.

The question then arises, Will these measures, or any of them, repress the yearly outbreaks of fever? They will not, but they may be the means of improving the state of the province, so that the mortality will, in time, be not in excess of that which existed years ago.

It will still be necessary to house the rural population on some better plan than that in vogue everywhere in Bengal, (which can be done at small expense), and to ensure that the people generally shall be so instructed on the subject of food, that they may always, when earning a fair day's wage, know how to utilise it, so as to maintain life on fairly good hygienic rules.

Of course do all we can, there will be always a large section of the Native community who must suffer and die, and it is scarcely possible to drain a country, and improve the nature of its soil where the principal staple and the ordinary article of food is, and always must be, grown in a swamp. The facts relating to the drainage of the district I have learnt from Mr. Cockrell and the other civil residents, but it has been my duty to trace the relationship between these and the exceptional sickness of the zillah and the excessive mortality.

EXTRACT FROM A REPORT ON THE SANITARY STATE OF THE CITY OF LUMBSIB, BY ASSISTANT-SURGEON A. TAYLOR, CIVIL SURGEON.— DATED 28th JULY, 1869.

DURING the prevalence of cholera I have gone into all the narrow, out-of-the-way streets and lanes, and have thus had an opportunity of ascertaining their sanitary condition, which I have no hesitation in stating is so defective, that the present outbreak of disease may be fairly ascribed to it, and which, unless rectified, may be treated as a constant source of epidemic sickness in future, or which may even convert disease now epidemic and occasional into disease endemic and persistent.

The chief points to which I want to bring attention are:—

1st.—The two old underground sewers running one from Bazar Darbar Sahib through Ramgurrian ke Kutra to Guldabee Gate, and the other from the Lalchoe to Bhagatwalla Gate. Cholera has been more severe in the vicinity of these sewers than in any other part of the city. I apprehend

of the work is not so bad, and that the sewage leaks down into the wells, and its way into the wells, and into the drinking water, even if this be not the case, exhalations of gas off by the drains in the sewers, rising through the man-holes and other apertures, are sufficient to account for the large amount of sickness. It will be unwise to do this with these at the present time, during the prevalence of cholera sickness, but, as soon as possible, the measures to be taken are in conformity with their abolition, should be taken in hand, in the meantime the drains should be flushed by a casual or some other means, at least weekly.

2d.—The habit of placing at the sides of drains, in the streets, the filth scraped from the pukka surface drains, instead of throwing it at once, is highly dangerous. This filth, which is the solid part of the sewage, when exposed to the heat and moisture, to ferment and give off exhalations of a most offensive character, and as it most probably contains the germs of cholera patients, is likely to be fertile in spreading the disease.

3d.—The ordure from the houses is all day long lying unremoved in the narrow gutters. At whatever hour of the day it may be found the city I have been disgusted by the sight and stench of the excrement exposed by the sides of the gutters. Some measures for its immediate and complete removal are greatly needed.

4d.—The kitchen drains in the lanes and koochis seem never to be clean. I have tried all I could in my rounds to get these places into a more satisfactory condition, but have failed. Black, putrid, fermenting semi-fluid matter consisting of human ordure mixed with all manner of filth and refuse, constitute the contents of these gutters, and their condition, as judged from the nature of the ground, seems never to be changed by any attempt at cleaning them.

5d.—A condition hardly remarkable, I fear, is the state of the streets and round them—that ground being below the surface of the streets and levels of the drains; without attempt at ventilation, and night beyond belief from the accumulation of filth and refuse, and necessarily inadequate in cubic space to the accommodation of the numbers living in them; they are perfect as hot-beds of disease, especially of cholera or more fatal fevers.

6d.—The people are in the habit of washing round the wells, and of throwing water about when drawing it; cattle brought up to drink, void urine and dung on the spot; the result of all this being a mixture of filth and fluid which stagnates, and putrefies, and the stoves and soaks probably into the wells, contaminating the waters, and gives off by fermentation, fetid gases into the surrounding air.

There are other things which must be taken into consideration which require rectification, such as hollows in the soil of ground which are not built over, and which the late rains have converted into ponds without outlet; the exposure of the manure, as it is carried out on the backs of asses; the general state of many of the streets, which have depressing qualities; the sale of many of the streets, which have depressing qualities; the exposure for sale of ripe and unripe vegetables, for liquid, the exposure for sale of ripe and unripe fruits, such as mangoes of late, and raw peaches, and other stone fruits. All these some of which may be immediately rectified, while the others require time and expenditure for their removal.

And last is a city of over 150,000 inhabitants, and in the month of August, 2,500 died from cholera.)

EXTRACTS FROM THE RECORDS OF THE BENGAL MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

(Continued from page 198.)

THE ASSISTANT forwards the application on to the Board for their consideration, who acknowledge the justice of the surgeon's remarks as applicable to the present season, a sickly one, but, though built up years before, all healthy years, it had never been brought into use, as it was not, from the nature of the country, in a high position, and sick were better on board-ships or at Calcutta. But now or in a sickly season, and for a year or two past, it would be well to have at the year when the ships are present, it would be well to have a separate hospital; they recommended a house to be built for a surgeon's quarters, and some wards for sick officers, and medicine, furniture, bedding and supplies to be furnished as usual, and an assistant surgeon to be sent there yearly, from 1st July to 1st November, or longer if need may.

Government direct, that the plan manufactured in Bengal, Bengal and Debates, shall, on its arrival at Calcutta, be examined

by a member of the Board, and reported on in concert with the superintendent of opium manufacture.

PROF. F. C. O.—The head surgeon at Berhammore (as a reason for requesting more medicines), reports that the "recruits lately arrived have brought with them a fever that seems to be of an unknown kind, and which, I fear, will soon be the means of crowding the hospital." (No reasons for statements of details of diseases ever given.)

PROF. F. C. O.—G. O. by Lord Cornwallis, publishing directions of Court of Directors "that every officer who shall in future be included be ordered to Europe with a recommendation, if specified, for a pension from Lord Clive's fund; also the Court of Directors, in the same letter, acquire, in the continuance of passage money to military officers in cases only when all health makes a return to Europe indispensably necessary, and when the pecuniary circumstances of the party require such aid."

Lord Cornwallis issues orders from Fort St. George on 21st December, which reach the Hospital Board in Calcutta on 14th January. The Board write to the Civil Pay Master to ascertain what pay and allowances "the late surgeon at the Andamans drew."

1791.

G. O. issued by Col. Mackenzie (Commanding the Forces in Bengal, 4th March)—That in future a committee, consisting of the head surgeon, garrison surgeon, and a surgeon from the troops in Fort William, shall always examine invalids and discharged men before they embark, because no invalids, &c., who cannot proceed to Europe with safety of the passage, shall risk that they will not be able to enter the hospital and their cure has been sufficiently effected to admit of them proceeding to Europe."

PROV. 25th April.—The head surgeon, Presidency General Hospital, requests the Board to call the attention of Government to the absolute necessity of rebuilding immediately the public cook-rooms and the apartments destined for the accommodation of the European attendants, which are now in an almost ruinous state, and must be perfectly unhabitable in the rainy season. The reply is noted on 14th August, that as money "in the present conjuncture is required for more important purposes, the repairs must be deferred; suggests that as the remains of the *Bazaar* General Hospital will be so soon completed, the sick might be there accommodated.

PROV. 26th May.—Government appoints a surgeon to be sent with an engineer officer, and civil an officer, to report on the old buildings, and proposed ones, at Diamond Harbour.

PROV. 28th June.—The "Regulations" at this time are quoted by the Board to the head surgeon, "that he is responsible to the Hospital Board for any excess that may appear" under expenditure of all kinds.

PROV. 30th Aug.—An entry in the records of a marriage in camp near Cawnpore is a copy of a certificate which is signed by James Delamain, Ensign, acting chaplain, 4th brigade, and certified by witnesses.

PROV. 26th Sept.—The managers, Orphan Society, propose to the Hospital Board a scheme for providing for boys; that 6 boys, orphan sons of officers and not under 14 years, should be placed as apprentices or pupils at the General Hospital at the Presidency and the Calcutta Dispensary (2 at each), to be bound and attached to the head surgeon and another each, and when deemed duly qualified for head compounder, they would be appointed to fill such posts in General Hospitals—the head compounder of the Presidency General Hospital being of same rank or origin. And that 12 boys, orphans of non-commissioned officers, privates, should be apprenticed to the several General Hospitals (2 at each), and when qualified, "to succeed to the assistantships as they fall vacant."

PROV. 29th Sept.—The plan meets with the Board's warmest approbation. ("The latter part of the plan would seem to be the origin of the Subordinate Medical Department)."

* The Settlement of Port Blair was founded in 1789 by a Captain Blair, who made it a chain, then called Mark Island, his head quarters. It received the name of Port Cornwallis, afterwards Old Harbour, and was built in the able effort who surveyed it, Port Blair. In 1792 the Settlement was transferred on account of its unhealthiness to the Fort Harbour, which was called by the name Roberts applied to the first settlement. Port Cornwallis a title still retains. This was abandoned on another ground in 1796, and only re-occupied in 1857, when the necessity for a postal communication was urgent.—*N. by from of Temp. A. 19*
"Edinburgh Medical Gazette."

Pro., 4th November.—Extract from the 11th Article of the Regulations for the administration of justice in foudary or criminal courts in Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa. "He (the magistrate) shall pay particular attention to the health and cleanliness of the prisoners, and request the surgeon of the station to attend and administer to the sick."

Pro., 19th Oct.—The allowance paid to a surgeon of a ship from England to Bengal, was 10s. 6d. for every recruit landed there.

1792.

Pro., 14th Jan.—The civil medical officer would either, in the following case, seem to have sent in no report, or the routine may have been the custom of the service.

The collector of Purneah reports (21st November, 1791), to the Board of Revenue, that all the people in his district and adjoining have been suffering for two months past. They send the report on to the Secretary to Government (14th December), who refer it to the Hospital Board (28th December), who send it to the Surgeon of Purneah, requesting a circumstantial report of the epidemic distemper, with a general description as to situation (of town), climate, soil, and manners and customs of the inhabitants, and specifying 5 heads under which his report on the disease is to be recorded. The surgeon replies in a report, dated 5th January, in a letter which occupies 12 pages of the records. The epidemic began as remittent fever, cholera morbus, and dysentery in September. After about a month of prevailing sickness "it was judged advisable to remove all the sick officers and Government servants to Caragola on the banks of the Ganges, 15 coss (from Purneah), where they all recovered to a man."

"The malignity of the epidemic began to disappear about the middle of December, and towards the latter end assumed the form of quotidian or tertian type intermittents, which are endemic to the inhabitants of Purneah and parts adjacent in the months of November, and December to February." He then gives a topographical and sanitary description of the City of Purneah, which, entering on all the points of filth, bad drainage, jungle and stagnant water, putrid fish, &c., may probably be met with in the same state at the present time. He states also the unusual state of the climate, early cessation of rains and more rain than usual, which caused putrid smells to be blown over the town whenever the east wind, &c., blew. The Board, in sending the report on to Government, on 7th February, state—"indeed it appears to us that as the disease took its rise from the very uncommon state of the weather which prevailed during the months of July, August, and September, and the influence thereof on the peculiar local situation of Purneah, no human means could have prevented it."—practical sanitary measures were evidently then not thought of.

Pro., 13th Sept.—A Mr. Gladwin writes to the Board to request them to forward to Government, for its patronage, a "specimen of my translation of the *Alfazel Adulahi*," believing that the publication thereof would be useful to gentlemen of the faculty in India.

The Board recommend it to Government. It appears Nowred-din Mahomed Abdallah was the author, and they suggest that it would prove useful in directing surgeons in their enquiries respecting the medicines used by the natives.

Pro., 2nd Oct.—An assistant surgeon commences a petition from terminating a war which was undertaken and carried on entirely in the support of justice, give me leave for a moment to beg your attention to my claim for rank," &c.

Pro., 23rd Oct.—Government address a letter to the Board, taking upon themselves the maintenance in the General Hospital of "Europeans of the lower class destitute of friends or connections in this country, who are found in the streets of the town, under diseases which often become fatal merely from want of proper care and medical assistance." It would appear that previously any person finding, and sending such to the hospital was charged with his keep while under treatment.

Pro., 1st Dec.—The Board report to Government that they, on the report of the head surgeon of the General Hospital, have made an inspection, and submit the following alterations and improvements:—"We advise that the present necessities which are constructed in the centre of the north side of each of the buildings, with the principal doors and stair-cases passing between them, be converted into *urinals* and *cool* shafts, and quarters for the orderly sergeants;" &c. "new necessities to be built to E. and W. of each of the wings, approached by a covered verandah." They dwell on the odiousness of the old necessaries. They recommend pipes "lead or pottery," to carry away the water used for washing the floors into the common sewers that the old

dwelling house be converted, when repaired, into a *Convalescent* Hospital. Dispensary and Cooking Rooms should be built, a Conjee house also, and quarters for at least 8 assistant-surgeons. The N. W. corner of the compound is stated as most eligible, as, "though it is within 100 yards of the Hospital, it is not exposed to the impure air that blows from it." That the tank close to the Hospital should be filled in, and the whole court levelled, and a smooth gravel, sookhy, walk be made all round for the use of the convalescents. They recommend also the large jungle to south of Hospital to be cut down and the ground properly drained, and all the numerous small tanks filled up. "Nothing could contribute so much as this to render the situation less unhealthy, as the wind blowing over such an extent of stagnating water directly on the Hospital must be very noxious. We cannot account for such a situation having been chosen at first, except that the ground near Calcutta was then all in the same state."

Lastly, "we suggest the propriety of the Engineer being consulted respecting the practicability of deepening the ditch which surrounds the Hospital and communicates with the Nullah, in such a manner as to allow the water to flow freely into it, and be from thence conveyed to the necessaries for the purpose of keeping them constantly clean. One reason for thinking that this most desirable end might be attained, either simply by deepening the ditch, or at least by the assistance of a *chain pump*, is, that even at present the water rises a considerable way up into the ditch at spring tides."

The Government, a few days afterwards, afford sanction for part of the above, and directs estimates to be made about the remainder.

The whole letter shows great thoughtfulness about local sanitation, and the idea of pumps has evidently been prevalent from that day to this.

(Why has Government ever set its face against pumps?)

Extracts.

At the recent Meeting of the British Medical Association at Leeds, Mr. Edward Lund read a paper "On the use of antiseptic cerecloth for covering wounds." He described this material, which he had lately used with great advantage, as a cheap and ready substitute for Professor Lister's iodo-plaster. It is made of calico saturated with a composition of solid paraffin and carbolic acid, with the addition of a little oil and wax. It is prepared of three colours: red, yellow, and white, to distinguish the proportion of acid which each contains, viz. one-fourth, one-sixth, and one-eighth, respectively. It is to be used in every way as the iodo-plaster, and with the same precautions. Mr. Lund showed a specimen of meat which had been wrapped in this cerecloth, and was perfectly sweet and fresh at the end of six weeks, whereas a piece of meat covered over in the same way with waxed cloth, without carbolic acid, was perfectly putrid in less than nine days. It was suggested that the cerecloth might prove useful for keeping pathological specimens for microscopical examination.—*The Lancet*.

Dr. B. W. RICHARDSON read a "Note on a new method of painless cutting in surgery." The author placed before the section a knife consisting of a revolving blade, and which divided with such rapidity, that superficial incisions could be made with it without pain. The revolutions were about twenty-five per second, but the speed might be greatly increased. The knife in its action illustrated that an appreciable interval of time is necessary for fixing an impression on the mind, and for the development of consciousness. He hoped he should soon be able to give to the surgeon a small pocket instrument, with which to open abscesses, and perform many minor surgical operations painlessly, without having recourse to either general or local anaesthesia.—*Ibid.*

One of the last novelties produced in the Berlin medical congress is a new solvent, but which its discoverer, Dr. Lieberich, may also prove to be an anaesthetic. This is chloroform (CHCl₃) the peculiar nature of which is that when treated with alkali it evolves chloroform. Dr. Lieberich proposes to employ this solvent of the alkalinity of the blood, and so, when injected, to open abscesses, &c., through the mouth, to push a probe into the body, or to stretch it as it probably is a solvent of the cellular tissue, so that some eight or ten hours' rest is all that appears to be necessary.

over chloroform and opium, viz. that the rabbits, on a waking, had none of the after effects which usually attend the administration of those subjects, but partook of food immediately and freely. On account of the uncertainty as to the proper dose, the experiments on the human subject have not been as perfectly satisfactory.—*Ibid.*

ITS PAIN-RELIEF. Professor Abbott of New York applies equal parts of tincture of iodine and acetate root. Two or three parts of the mixture should be applied to the gums by a camel-hair brush, and the fluids of the mouth should be kept from it until the alcohol is sufficiently evaporated to prevent its being washed from the part to which it is applied. This requires only a minute.—*Medical Times and Gazette.*

CREOSOTE IN THE TREATMENT OF TYPHOID FEVER.—M. G. F. Esner, of Montpelier, has lately made an extensive trial of this remedy in cases of typhoid fever. He attributes the disease to a ferment in the blood, and that the *organum* consists of the fermentation involved in the animal economy by the depraved food, and the reaction of the animal economy against this ferment.

From the recognised influence of creosote in destroying organic ferments, he determined on a fair trial of its power in destroying what he terms *typhoid ferments*. The *Bulletin de Therapeutique* reports that, experimenting on sixty cases of typhoid at St. Lou Hospital, he gave daily three drops of creosote by the mouth, and on a mean of three to five drops, his object being to keep the blood under the creosote influence. No inconvenience was caused by the administration, and the result was that in the cases where the disease was in an advanced condition, as anticipated, little or no effect was produced, but in those where the patients were got into hospital in the earlier stage, the effect was to diminish very considerably the duration and also the intensity of the disease, and he concludes that, without doubt, the early administration of creosote has the most powerful influence on the course of the fever.

It is also suggested that, during fever epidemics, creosote could be used as a prophylactic in hospitals or large institutions. Though we may doubt the power of this remedy, and in conclusion in our Irish typhoid, we think the subject worth consideration and fair trial.—*The Medical Press and Circular.*

THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES OF PARIS held its annual public sitting on Monday week last, at the Palace of the Institute.

M. Villemin obtained a prize of 2,000, and M. M. Feltz, Gent, and Raeborska were awarded honourable mention and 1,000, for their contribution to medicine and surgery.

The Academy recognised the remarkable researches of M. Villemin, on the inoculation of tubercle, and on phthisis. The author had already announced this important fact last year, but the Commissioners had desired that further experiments should be made to ensure that its accuracy should be incontestable.

A sub-cutaneous opening being made in the ear of a rabbit, and a piece of a morsel as large as a pin's head of tuberculous matter taken from man or cow, a local deposit of tubercle is at once developed in the animal. The sympathetic ganglia communicating with the wound are impregnated with nodules of tubercle. The results of this method of inoculation have been examined by M. M. Andra Bonilland, Clognet, Loquet, Nclaton, and Langier.

From the fact of the inoculation, the virulence of tuberculous may be concluded. Then, if it is inoculable and virulent, it is necessarily contagious. Being inoculable from man to animals, it will be so without doubt, from man to man. It will be for the future to decide in what special conditions cohabitation may render the disease transmissible.—*Ibid.*

ESSENTIAL FOR RUSSHOEID. Professor James R. Wood, of New York, extends the following formula as an ointment in bronchitic and other glandular tumours:—

| | |
|-------------------------------|-------|
| R. Ung. stramonii | ʒʒ |
| " coni | ʒʒ |
| " johannis | ʒʒ |
| " " " | ʒʒ |
| M. Ft. Unguent.— <i>Ibid.</i> | ʒʒ. x |

NEW RESEARCHES IN CEREBROSCOPY. M. Bonchint, we learn from the *Union Medicale*, has just presented to the Academy of Sciences of Paris, through M. Dumas, his researches on

cerebroscopy, which he has offered for competition for the Montyon Prize in Medicine and Surgery. He epitomizes his conclusions as follows:—

"The diseases of the spinal cord, such as acute myelitis, spinal sclerosis, locomotor ataxy, &c., produce usually a congestive lesion, and subsequently atrophy of the optic papilla."

"The lesions of the optic nerve produced by spinal disease are the result of a reflex ascending congestive action, and they take place by the intercommunication of the great sympathetic."

"The presence of an hyperemia of the optic nerve, of a vascular diffusion over the papilla, and of a partial or total atrophy of this part coinciding with tenderness or numbness of the legs, indicates the existence of acute or chronic disease of the spinal cord."—*Ibid.*

WHEN TO TREPHINE.—M. Chassaignac, *L'Union Medicale*, advocates trephining in only two conditions. 1st, when there is a lesion situated in a definite spot, the seat of which lesion is fully ascertained, and the effects are dilated pupils, with symptoms of general compression, which symptoms are tending infallibly to produce death.—*Ibid.*

THE SUB-CUTANEOUS TREATMENT OF CONGESTION ABSCESS.

—Dr. Werthim reports thirty-two cases of virulent bubo, congestion abscess, hydrocœle, and ganglion at the wrist, in order to prove the advantages attending a plan of treatment which consists in the removal of the accumulated fluid through a small trocar, and subsequent injection of some medicated fluid. The introduction of tincture of iodine, and of other agents hitherto employed for injection in similar cases, is believed to be irritable in cases of congestion abscess, as these frequently irritate and set up inflammation. The solutions used by Dr. Werthim are the following:—Hydrochlorate of morphia, gr. iv to ʒij of distilled water; camphor, ʒi, rubbed up with ʒij of mucilage of gum-arabic and ʒiv of water, and filtered; creosote water; sulphate of copper, in one to two grains in ʒi of distilled water; and chloride of lime (one to five grains in ʒi of water). An exploring-needle or small trocar is first passed into the tumour, the fluid contents of which are then forced out by gentle manual pressure; then, by means of the hypodermic syringe, ten drops of the solution of hydrochlorate of morphia, or twenty drops of one of the other solutions, are slowly introduced. During the after-treatment, the tumour is repeatedly emptied of its secreted fluid by pressure, and the injection is repeated, at first daily, and subsequently less frequently. The compresses are applied over the swelling, and the patient is recommended to keep to his bed. Dr. Werthim has derived the following results from his extensive experience of this method of treatment. 1.—It is followed by an immediate cessation of the pain previously existing in the tumour. 2.—There is also a permanent decline of all other symptoms of inflammation, in no instance were local or general symptoms or reaction observed to follow the treatment. 3.—A thick purulent fluid is converted into an exudation which becomes more and more watery, and the quantity of which gradually diminishes up to the end of the third or fourth week, when there is complete absence of secretion, and healing without a scar. 4.—The swelling should not be pinched and injected, unless there be full fluctuation; otherwise infiltrations, which disappear very slowly, will remain behind. In conclusion, Dr. Werthim states that the sub-cutaneous treatment seems to be indicated in cases of fluctuating buboes, and of recent and mature congestion abscesses, as, in those instances where failure occurs, this result is soon rendered evident, and the practice of incision can afterwards be resorted to.—*Wien. Med. Wochen. Schr.* 87, 1858.—(*British Medical Journal*.)

POISONING BY AN INFANT BY LALDANUM. RECOVERY BY SHAMPOOING AND BELADONNA, by A. CAIRNS, M.D.—IN Livingston County, N. Y., a child three months old had an emema containing a small tea-spoonful of laludanum administered to it by its mother. The operation occurred in the morning, and by mid-day the child, after convulsions, was verging into deep coma.

A shampooing process was now commenced, relieved occasionally by jets of cold water over the body. Tincture of belladonna, about three drops per hour in water, was also administered.

This treatment was continued for three days and three nights; the child recovered.—*N. York Medical Journal.*

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF SNAKE-POISON, AND ON THE EFFECTS OF CERTAIN METHODS OF TREATMENT.

By J. FAYRER, M.D., C.S.I.

Present.—Drs. FAYRER, CUTCLIFFE, and Mr. SCEVA.—
August 21st, 1869.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

A LARGE pariah dog was bitten at 3-24 p.m. in the thigh by a cobra that had been in confinement for some weeks, and had bitten before. Strong carbolic acid was immediately rubbed in, the punctures having been scarified. 3-30.—The Hakeem who administered the "antidote" last Saturday again presented himself with another, and he was allowed to administer as much of it, a fluid resembling the former one, as he pleased. 3-37.—The dog staggers as he walks; another dose of the antidote administered by the Hakeem. 3-40.—The dog is slightly convulsed, pupils dilated, and limbs partially paralysed. 3-42.—Unable to stand when raised; is convulsed. 3-45.—Quite paralysed. 3-48.—Dead—in 24 minutes.

A gentleman who had believed, from some experiments performed under his own supervision, in the efficacy of carbolic acid, witnessed this experiment, and was satisfied that the acid is powerless to counteract the deadly effects of the poison. The Hakeem also expressed his conviction that the cobra-bite is inevitably mortal. Neither of these agents, indeed, had the slightest effect, and the dog died very rapidly, considering its size and strength, and that the snake was not fresh.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

A small dog was bitten at 3-18 p.m. in the thigh by another cobra, also not fresh like the first. A solution of the powdered leaves of *aristobchia indica*, for which I am indebted to Mr. —, of Mirzapore, was then administered, the fang wounds having been previously thoroughly well rubbed with strong carbolic acid. 3-52.—The dog is staggering. 3-57.—The dog is staggering. 4-2.—Convulsed in hind legs; paralysis of limbs commencing. 4-10.—Convulsive twitchings of the muscles generally. 4-12.—Unconscious, and convulsed. 4-15.—Dead—in 19 minutes.

The antidotes were as powerless on this occasion as on others. The *aristobchia* has long been held in estimation as an antidote; it must, I fear, share the fate of all the others.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.

A small white dog had the inguinal fold of integument raised with two pairs of forceps to stretch it. This was then bitten (at 3-56) by a cobra not fresh, and that had been in confinement for some time. The fangs must almost have perforated the entire thickness of the fold of integument. With a sharp scalpel the fold of skin was at once entirely excised, the bitten part being certainly included in that removed.

4-18.—Looks sluggish, but no positive indication of the action of the poison as yet manifested. 4-27.—Muscular tremors. 4-31.—Deep breathing; lies, looking very sluggish. 4-40.—Very sluggish; muscular twitchings. 4-45.—Can hardly rise; staggers and lies down again. 4-49.—In convulsions. 4-55.—Dead—in 1 hour.

This was a very interesting and very instructive experiment, most clearly demonstrating the deadly nature of the virus and the awful rapidity with which it passes into the circulation.

The bitten part was not merely excised as we speak of excising the parts around the spot which the fang had penetrated, but the fold of skin into which the fangs had injected the poison was removed within a second after the bite, for the knife had entered almost before the fangs had 1 ft. In fact, it could not have been done more rapidly, and yet within one hour the animal was dead from the effects of the poison. The infinitesimal portion of time during which the cobra's fangs were inserted into the tissues was sufficient to have sent the poison through the circulation, beyond the reach of incision; and yet how very small must that quantity have been. Nothing I have yet seen has so thoroughly demonstrated the deadly effects of the snake-poison.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.

Two drops of venom taken from an old cobra, that is, from one some weeks in confinement, were mixed with 4 parts of water, and injected hypodermically into a fowl's thigh at 4-2 p.m. 4-4.—Drooping; cannot rise when roused; comb and wattles becoming livid, losing their brilliant red color. 4-7.—Lying on its side; convulsed. 4-10.—Dead—in 8 minutes.

Diluting the poison with water has no effect in destroying its action. Death occurred in 8 minutes, and would have probably occurred sooner had the poison been taken from a fresh snake.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

A fowl was bitten in the carpus by a cobra at 4-12 p.m., the fangs were deeply imbedded. The part was immediately amputated at the carpal joint, and a ligature placed above to prevent hemorrhage. This is the same fowl that had precisely the same experiment tried on it last Saturday and recovered. 4-55.—Fowl quite unaffected. At 7 p.m. of the 22nd the fowl was still alive and well. It had thus escaped a second time, and is probably the only living creature that ever went through the ordeal of a cobra's second bite.

It is evident that the immediate amputation of the part saved the fowl's life.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

A small cat was bitten in the tail by a cobra at 4-27 p.m. The part was amputated above the bite in 20 seconds; this time was purposely allowed to elapse before the operation. A ligature was applied to prevent serious hemorrhage.

4-47.—The cat still seems unaffected, except that the breathing is hurried. 4-55.—Still vigorous, runs about, but breathes hurriedly. 5-30 p.m.—Seems slightly affected; breathing is hurried. 6 p.m.—No further change. August 22nd, 8 a.m.—Appears natural, but it is evident, from the mucous-sanguinous nature of the excreta during the night, that the cat has been slightly under the influence of the poison. August 22nd, 1 p.m.—Looks well; appears free from pain; no symptom of the poison beyond slight weakness. 7 p.m.—The same.

This animal has also escaped; and the experiment is now thoroughly satisfactory or conclusive, as the cobra was not fresh, and the tail is not a very vascular part. Still it is suggestive of the benefit to be hoped for from early excision, and seems to show that, although the operation may not altogether preclude the entry of the poison into the circulation, yet that it may limit it to a degree in which it is not fatal.

EXPERIMENT No. 7.

Two drops of carbolic acid put into a large cobra's mouth at 4-59 p.m. 4-52.—Tail-twitching in convulsive movements. 4-53.—Faint. 4-54.—Dead.

This acid is very poisonous to all snakes.

of the fang punctures, and that from this diffusion, fatal absorption may take place.

EXPERIMENT No. 6.

A fowl was bitten in the fore-arm, between the ulna and radius, by a cobra, at 4-30 p.m. The part was *immediately* amputated at the elbow joint; a ligature was applied to prevent bleeding. 4-40.—The fowl seems unaffected. 5-6.—Seems quite well.

7th September.—The fowl is still alive and well; it also has been saved by the immediate amputation, as in the case of the cat and the other fowl. The cases in which excision was practised all proved ultimately fatal, though death was delayed. Why is this? The reason, I believe, is, that when excision only is practised, although it may extend beyond the limits of the cobra-bite, yet does not remove so much of the poison as has already so rapidly been diffused throughout the tissues.

The inference from this seems to me very clear, that in case of a bite in the finger or toe in a human being, amputation, if performed without delay, would offer the best chance of life. It is a terrible alternative; but as it is, perhaps, the only chance of saving life, it should be done.

All the snake-men that I have seen admit that they have all little or no belief in any medicines; but that they know of instances where men have been bitten by cobras, and have recovered, by binding ligature in several places tightly round the limb above the punctures, and then by burning the bitten part thoroughly either with a hot iron, a live coal, or exploding gunpowder.

I hope on a future occasion to consider the whole question of "what may be done in snake-bite," and to summarize the results of such observations as I have been able to make myself, or to gather in a reliable form from others.

Present:—Dr. FAYRER and Mr. SCEVA.—September 4th, 1869.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

A pariah dog was bitten by a cobra (banshahia keauteah, of the snake-men), in the fore-arm at 3-12 p.m. Carbolic acid was immediately rubbed into the bites and within two seconds, a strong ligature was tied as tightly as it could be drawn round the limb above the wounds.

3-41.—The dog is restless; the bitten and ligatured limb is almost paralysed from the tension of the ligature; below the ligature it is intensely congested, and dark blood is dropping freely from the fang wounds. 3-52.—Ten drops of carbolic acid, diluted with an ounce of water, were administered internally. 4 p.m.—The dog is lying down, and is very sluggish; but when he is roused he walks about. 4-5.—Lying on his side; restless; half convulsive movements of the limbs; breathing accelerated. 4-10.—Is now in the sitting posture, with fore-legs stretched out in a rigid convulsive manner. 4-11.—Rises; staggers as he walks. 4-14.—Rises; falls over again. 4-19.—Hind legs twitch convulsively. 4-24.—Convulsive twitchings; is sick. 4-26.—Cannot stand; is convulsed. 4-30.—Sick and convulsed. 4-32.—Heart still beats; no respiratory movements. 4-33.—Dead—in 51 minutes.

This experiment shows how futile the carbolic acid and the ligature are, even when thoroughly and rapidly applied. The ligature was tightened to the extreme stragulation of the limb, within two seconds of the cobra's bite. The carbolic acid was applied even sooner, and yet the symptoms of poison set in rapidly, and death occurred within the hour. The snake, it is to be observed, too, was not a fresh one, and had been some time in captivity.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

A pariah dog was bitten by a cobra (keauteah), in the inguinal fold, which was raised and stretched for the purpose. The fangs penetrated deeply, and the part was immediately excised by a clean sweep with a sharp scalpel, the part wounded being completely removed. The cobra was not fresh, but it was active and vigorous, and bit fiercely.

4-12.—The dog is restless. 4-27.—Breathing accelerated. 4-35.—No further change. 4-40.—Looks sluggish; eyes blinking; breathing rather rapid. 4-46.—No change. 6 p.m.—No change. 9 p.m.—No change. 5th September, 8 a.m.—Looks well; takes food. 6th September.—Quite well; not affected by the poison.

This dog escaped. The excision in this case proved successful; it was done very rapidly, and extended considerably beyond the marks of the snake's fangs.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.

The poison of a cobra (teturiah keauteah), was removed, and two drops inserted between the eye-lids of a healthy and vigorous young puppy, at 4-12 p.m. The dog was examined again at 4-37 p.m., and the eye was found to have been most seriously affected. There was intense chemosis of the conjunctiva, so much so, that the eye could not be seen, and the lids well puffed out like a ball. The chemosis was very pallid.

4-46.—Dog again examined, and found to be deeply under the influence of the poison. Convulsed in the limbs; unable to stand, and salivated; starting and whining with a short, snapping, snarling sound; chemosis intense; eye-lids swollen like a ball; the eye cannot be seen. 4-51.—Paralysed and convulsed. 4-56.—Dead—in 44 minutes.

The result of these experiments surprised me much, for it proves that absorption of the poison can take place through a membrane, and prove fatal. I am certain there was no wound or abrasion of the conjunctiva, and yet the influence of the poison was rapid and deadly. Previous experiments have not illustrated this effect of snake-poison; according to most observers, it has been thought that the poison could be applied with impunity to any surface, even of mucous membrane, provided there were no wound.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.

Having exposed the surface of the pectoral muscle of a fowl, and having raised a few of the superficial fibres, without causing the effusion of more than a few drops of blood, two or three drops of the poison, just taken from a cobra (keauteah), were rubbed into the exposed surface at 4-12 p.m.

4-23.—Apparently not affected. 4-26.—The bird is drooping; head declining; rises suddenly with a start, as if awakened suddenly from a sound sleep; head falls over again, and the point of the beak rests on the ground. 4-32.—Rises and staggers; falls over in convulsions. 4-37.—Violently convulsed. 4-45.—Violently convulsed. 4-48.—Dead—in 36 minutes.

This experiment also proves that absorption of the poison takes place through the walls of the vessels; for, although the muscular fibre was exposed, there was scarcely a bleeding point. It shows the danger of allowing the poison to come in contact with any raw or abraded surface.

EXPERIMENT No. 5.

A very large bungarus fasciatus, five feet long, was bitten by a fresh and vigorous cobra at 4-46 p.m. The bite was inflicted near the tail. 6 p.m.—Very sluggish. 7-20.—Dead.

Mr. Scova notes that he thinks that death may have been caused by injuries inflicted from compression during bandaging.

of the head being very small, compared with the cobra and a person who has seen him grasp the neck, certainly for fear of snapping, and therefore may have caused the injury. But the results of more than 100 experiments induce me to believe that the burglarus is, though in a much less degree than the mambucus snakes, as is evident, and that it is as poisonous to the cobra or viper as man. At the same time I quite recognize the justice of the doubt which is thrown on the subject by Mr. Seiva.

ON THE INFLUENCE OF SNAKE-POISON WHEN APPLIED TO UNSWOUNDED SURFACES.

Presented by DIS. FAYREB, CUSNINGHAM, and Mr. SEIVA.
September 11th, 1899.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.

Some poison was taken from a cobra (*Ophiophagus hannah*), and about a drop inserted between the eyelids of a pariah dog at 2.55 p.m.

3 p.m.—The eye is already much irritated; lachrymation profuse. The dog keeps rubbing it with his paw, and resting the side of the head against the wall; he is very restless and uneasy; it almost imperceptibly increasing 3.5—4 lying down; rubs 2. The eye, which is much chemosed; winking and restless. 3.15.—Dog very restless; lies with his head resting against the wall. 3.25.—Slight tensely swollen; the animal is very restless and whines. 3.35.—He is evidently under the influence of the poison, breathing deeply. 4.1.—Lying quiet; breathing very deep. 4.14.—Ears curled up. 4.16.—Gets up; is quite inebriated, is very weak and cannot stand long; the eye is intensely swollen, with pale chemosis. 5.15 p.m. On being roused from a lethargic state, appears stupid and confused; eye intensely swollen; neck down again, and sleeps soundly. 5.31.—Breathing slowly and heavily. 6 p.m.—Sleeping comfortably. 9.30.—Wakes without difficulty; looks more natural; rubs the swollen eye with his fore paw. The constitutional effects of the poison are evidently passing off.

12th September. 3.40.—Sleeping comfortably; breathing natural. 8 a.m.—Swelling of eyelids diminished; appears lying. 5 p.m.—Sleeping very. 13th.—Improving, opens the eye; the conjunctiva quite opaque, and there is a mucous product discharge from the eye. 14th.—The dog is recovering fully. Evident that the conjunctiva, opening and some contraction of the conjunctiva, the dog is well, he is cheerful, and his bowels are free.

It was evident in this case, as the dog was cured by absorption from the conjunctiva. The constitutional effects were not so severe as in the former case; but the local mischief was very severe, and the conjunctiva, I have doubtless, got the sight of that eye. I thought it necessary to undertake the conjunctival operation, but the dog is well, he is cheerful, and his bowels are free. The results of these experiments show how careful should be the application of the poison, and how important it is to avoid the conjunctiva, and to avoid the eye, even if it is possible that the poison may be absorbed from the conjunctiva. In another experiment, a cobra's head, and the cobra was thus thrown into the eye of a dog, the result was similar to the experiments. The poison had been applied to a dog's nostril, and in the case of that dog, the result happened. The eye was very swollen, and the dog was very restless, and the constitutional effects were very severe, and the dog was very ill, and the result was very similar to the above.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.

Some poison was taken from a spectacled cobra (*Naja naja*), and a drop was inserted into a pariah dog's nostril, at 3 p.m. A violent sneezing and profuse watery discharge from the nostril resulted from the immaturity.

3.40.—The sneezing and watery discharge ceasing, and soon to irritate the dog considerably. 3.45.—No constitutional effects of the poison manifested, but the local symptoms continue undisturbed. Two drops more of the same poison were well rubbed into the palate. 4.15.—No change. Two more drops rubbed into the mucous surface of the cheek. 4.25.—No effect. The last applications appear to have caused no irritation. 5 p.m.—No change. 12th September, 3 a.m.—Does not appear to be affected in any way by the poison. The catarrhal symptoms have passed away. 13th.—The dog is well.

In this case, beyond the local irritation, no effect was produced.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.

A drop of cobra-poison was inserted into a fowl's eye at 3.15 p.m.

3.48.—Eye already much swollen; membrana tinnitica deeply chemosed. 3.50.—Eyelids quite closed; no constitutional sign of poisoning. 3.57.—No change. 4.10.—Another drop inserted into the same eye. Much irritation immediately followed; the fowl is constantly trying to scratch the eyelid with its foot. 4.20.—Beginning to drop, nodding its head; sleeping as fowls do when they begin to feel the influence of the poison. 4.30.—Head more drooping. 5.—No further change; it worsens. 5.40.—Eyelid is greatly swollen, but no appearance of any constitutional action of the poison. 9 p.m.—The same. The fowl continues to improve. The eyelids and conjunctiva became less swollen, and gradually recovered; and on the 10th, the bird was perfectly well, and its eye quite right again.

In this case also, as in that of the dog, the local symptoms were very severe, while the constitutional symptoms were mild and transient. They evidently showed that the poison can be absorbed through the unbroken surface of a membrane, and that the conjunctiva especially is apt to permit of the entrance.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.

A few drops of cobra-poison were rubbed into the mucous lining of a fowl's mouth at 4.12 p.m. 4.15.—No effect; no significant increase of constitutional disturbance. 12th, 8 a.m.—No effect. 13th.—The fowl is perfectly well, and does not appear to have been in the least affected by the poison.

In this case, as in the experiments on fowl and other animals no local results from the contact of the poison with the tongue and mucous surface of the mouth.

The evidence of these four experiments is not absolutely conclusive to the extent to which the poison may operate by absorption through a mucous membrane. They prove that absorption in the case of the conjunctiva, and the Schneiderian membrane really does occur, while in the mouth, absolutely no effect was produced. But the poison was not taken from fresh or vigorous snakes, that is, they had been some time in confinement, and its action may have been impaired. Sufficient, however, is shown to prove how dangerous the contact of the poison with the delicate mucous surface may really be.

ON THE RELATIONS BETWEEN THE VARIOLOUS DISEASE OF CATTLE CALLED "GOOTEE" AND TRUE VACCINIA, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO INOCULATION AND VACCINATION.

BY KENNETH McLEOD, A.M., M.D., I.R.C.S.E.

*Assistant-Surgeon, 6th Native Light Infantry.**(Continued from page 209.)*

III.—As a rule, one attack of "gootee" or "rinderpest" is prophylactic against another.

As regards rinderpest, the evidence of immunity against a second attack is so strong, that the proposition has passed into a current belief among scientific men both in England and on the Continent. Professor Simonds, in his evidence before the Cattle Plague Commission, says that "it is a well-known fact that an animal never contracts it twice."

The report of the Veterinary Department of the Privy Council on the cattle plague of 1865-66, affirms that "it rarely occurs more than once in the same animal." These statements are authoritative, and were confirmed in England by careful experiment by Professor Varnell. In India the matter has not been so clearly brought out. One authority, Mr. Sowers, of Calcutta, says that a second attack of gootee is "almost unknown." Veterinary Surgeon Farrell expresses an opinion to the same effect. The point is an important one, and should, when opportunity offers, be made the subject of careful observation. Meanwhile, there is every reason to believe that, in common with all other exanthems one attack secures immunity from subsequent seizures. This is also asserted to be the case of a disease of a similar kind, which Veterinary Surgeon Gudgeon studied in Burmah. He describes no eruption. It still remains to be discovered whether the eruptive variety (*gootee*) is prophylactic against the non-eruptive variety (*puschiana*) or vice versa; I can find no evidence on this point. This feature of exanthematoses diseases would seem to occupy a very high place among the points which determine their resemblances and differences; capable even of distinguishing different varieties or epidemic outbreaks of the same specific disease. It is the most delicate test which comparative pathology possesses, and capable of being largely employed in the way of inoculation.

IV.—"Gootee" and rinderpest are capable of being communicated by "natural infection" to animals other than cattle.

In India different observers have noted that buffaloes, sheep, goats, deer, horses, pigs, fowls, ducks and pigeons are liable to be attacked both by "gootee" and "puschiana." In Ceylon, according to Sir J. E. Tennant, elephants are subject to cattle "murrain."

In Europe, sheep, goats, and deer have been known to take the rinderpest, but not so easily as the cow. A curious observation is made in the second report of the Cattle Plague Commissioners (page 6.)

"It" (the rinderpest), "re-appeared in November, (in France) in the *Jardin d'Acclimatation* in the *Bois de Boboigne*, having been carried thither by two gazelles brought from India, which had been for three or four days in London. From them it rapidly spread to yaks, zebras, goats, and fallow deer, and the sacrifice of about 35 of these animals was necessary to arrest its progress."

As regards sheep, the Report of the Edinburgh Cattle Plague Committee, (Appendix to Cattle Plague Commissioners' 3rd Report, page 223), after extended observation, states that "they are by no means so liable to take it as cattle, and that they do not generally take it in so severe and fatal a form." This seems to

express the general truth; but in this as in every other point there are exceptions to the rule, depending on circumstances of the particular epizootic prevailing, which, until we know what conditions determine the comparative severity of different epizootics and epidemics in different countries, districts, and seasons, we can't explain. With regard to the small-pox of domestic fowls, it is a well-known disease, but no proof exists of its being derived from cattle or man, except the general statements made by non-professional reporters. Dr. Macpherson ("Cholera in his home," page 14), says—"there is a disease among cattle, called by the natives small-pox, having some analogy with rinderpest, and also a disease among fowls, which have sometimes prevailed, simultaneously with small-pox in Lower Bengal, but oftenest quite independently of it."

I have only had one opportunity of studying this disease.

The affected animals fevered, patches of scarlet appeared on the comb and bare parts of the head on which dry scabs formed, the eyes and nostrils watered, and subsequently matted, and, they died in four or five days. I found aphthous patches on the conjunctiva, pharynx, and larynx, punched out ulcers of the stomach and congestion of the small intestine, clots of decolorized blood in the heart, and emphysematous and lobularly congested lungs. I procured a lot of healthy fowls for the purpose of making some experiments; but unfortunately (!) the disease subsided. I know no instance of the "natural infection" of man, by either *gootee* or rinderpest. There is another epizootic called *aphtha epizootica*, or foot and mouth disease, in this country called *khorth*, which has been communicated to man by natural infection, inoculation, and through milk (Dr. W. Billour, in *Edinburgh Medical Journal*, February, 1863); but no positive evidence exists of the disease in question having been "taken" by man. On the contrary, there is evidence on the other side. Mr. G. G. Macpherson of Moorsheadabad, writing in December, 1832, says:—"It is an extraordinary fact, and worthy of remark, that, while the cows were thus affected, no case of variola amongst the natives in the village presented itself." This is consonant with universal experience. The most that has been noticed is, that an epidemic of small-pox and an epizootic of *gootee* have prevailed simultaneously, as was recently observed in Palamow. This accords with the observation made in England, that foot and mouth disease was more common and virulent in the cattle plague year, and that "the year was peculiarly favourable to the spread of zymotic diseases generally, and to the rapid decomposition of organic matter." (3rd Report of Cattle Plague Commission, page 4.) Notwithstanding this, I am far from denying the possibility of communication of this disease to man by natural infection. One carefully observed positive instance from which all sources of fallacy were excluded would weigh against any amount of negative evidence.

Evidence exists that in Russia at least man is liable to be infected with the Siberian plague of cattle. In the Russian "Medical Laws," para. 1721, it is stated that the Siberian plague is sometimes communicated by cattle to man, and minute-detailed instructions are contained to prevent infection of animals upon cattle by contact with sick animals. Eating diseased food, being stung by insects which have settled on sick cattle, consuming milk, butter, or cheese derived from them, or by inoculation of cracks, cuts, or eruption.

Attendants are advised to wear tarred gloves, and surgeons specially enjoined to wash their whole body with soap and water!

Consul General Murray, writing from Oboon, states that "men are known to have caught the disease from cattle, but such instances are rare."

(Appendix to report of English Cattle Plague Commission.)

the same species, and capable of being conveyed to other species of animals.

The similarity of a disease brings it into the same category with other animals, and affords a probability for experimental study. In such a quality name, well-marked disease, during disease conditions, which, when the intimate nature of the disease is better known, will come to be of the greatest interest and value. Inoculation is not only a means of conveying contagium from one animal of the same species to another, whether the disease is capable of propagation by infection or not, but is, in many cases, the only means at our disposal of conveying it from one species to another.

Experiments on cattle in this country have been rare. Veterinary Surgeon Thacker inoculated three animals with matter obtained from an ulcer in a case of rindrust (non-eruptive) prevailing in 1865 on the Nulgherry Hills. All these took the disease and two died of it. Veterinary Surgeon Farrell more recently communicated gootee to some cattle in the 24 Pergunnahs, by inoculation. These experiments simply prove the easy liability of cattle to be inoculated by both these forms of diseases. In Europe, however, experiments have been conducted on a very large scale indeed, mainly with a view to discover whether a mitigated form of disease, with little or no mortality, could be produced by any means. The English experiments proved that it was easily and with certainty communicable by inoculation to cattle of all sorts, sheep, goats, and deer. Animals other than cattle were not so easily affected. A single experiment was tried on a pig and donkey by Professor Varnell, but without effect.

On the Continent, certain communicability has been established over and over again.

Curiously enough, Indian experience is in advance of English regarding communicability by inoculation to man. Dr. Marchison (Appendix to Third Report of the Cattle Plague Commission, page 77), has the following, which, from its extreme importance, I shall quote at length:—

"In 1847, Mr. Brown, a Surgeon in Assam, inoculated four children with matter taken from cattle labouring under a very severe epizootic of *salata*. He made use of the scales or scabs taken from the back or abdomen, reducing them to a pulp with water. "In all four vesicles in every respect resembling, in their progress and when mature, genuine *variola* made their appearance, and went through the same regular course, the constitutional disturbance on the 8th day only being more severe than I have usually seen it in the latter. From these many other native children were inoculated, and no doubt of the genuineness of the lymph were excited until two English children were vaccinated from one of them, and it was then found that small-pox appeared in both of these cases; and this was more than expected to have happened in many of the native children who had generally dispersed a few days after the operation, and were not afterwards heard of. One of the English children, unfortunately died." In 1837 another series of inoculation was performed (by Mr. Macpherson in Bengal), with virus from diseased cows, on which occasion an eruptive complaint of the true variolous nature was produced."

"The same phenomena were observed at Gowalparah by Mr. W. D. "In several of his cases the symptoms were so severe as to excite apprehension that the disease would terminate fatally. He was so strongly impressed with this fact, that he thought it would be better to take human small-pox rather than cow small-pox for inoculation, when the latter assumes its dangerous and fatal form."

The foregoing is, to my mind, final, as regards the question of inoculating the human subject with "gootee." It "takes," and

"takes" severely, and produces a variolous disease. Whether it is protective against variola proper or not has not been determined, and any repetition of these experiments would be unjustifiable in the highest degree. Applied to the same report of Dr. Marchison as a case by Mr. Coyle, of Aylesbury, of a cattle-inspector who was accidentally inoculated while assisting in performing a *post-mortem* examination of a bullock recently dead of cattle disease. A vesicle formed on the spot which went through all the stages and appearances of the vaccine vesicle, though more slowly. Both local and constitutional symptoms were, however, most severe. This case is figured by Dr. Marchison, and Mr. Coyle and others recognised the close resemblance to the vaccine vesicle.

In 1867, Professor Simonds requested some of the matter of gootee to be sent home for experiment, but Dr. Green, the late respected head of our department, strongly discountenanced the scheme, and I believe the request was not complied with. While we possess in vaccination such a mild, manageable and at the same time efficient agent, dangerous experimentation with gootee or rindrust is obviously improper.

VI.—*An attack of rindrust induced by inoculation is prophylactic against a second attack.*

I have not included gootee in this proposition, because clear evidence and further experiment is required to determine the point. The only experiments I know of are those of Veterinary Surgeon Farrell, who inoculated two animals with gootee. They took the disease, recovered, and subsequently had, on exposure to infection, milder attacks of the same disease. In England this point was not clearly brought out, but on the Continent, abundant experience exists in proof of it. Numerous experiments have proved that in certain circumstances animals once inoculated with rindrust, which took the disease severely, resisted the strongest exposure to infection. The breed of the animals, and the nature of the epizootic, whether mild or severe, whether *capripes* or *boviphilus*, seems, however, to have modified both the nature and degree of severity of the resulting symptoms and the protective power of the operation. So uncertain and unsatisfactory were the results obtained by various observers in Russia at various times, and in varying circumstances, that a Commission appointed to investigate the subject could not recommend the universal adoption of inoculation.

VII.—*The disease induced by inoculation of rindrust is less fatal than that communicated by natural infection.*

This, again, while it seems to be the rule, is subject to exceptions, depending on the kind of animal operated on, on seasonal and epizootic influences. The result of English experiments is thus stated by the Commission:—"The virus of cattle plague, after transmission through bodies of sheep and goats, returned into the body of an ox, is found to have lost none of its intensity. Repeated transmission of the virus through cattle weakens its power, but in no very sensible degree. At present, the vehicle of the poison, whether it be blood serum or mucous discharge, appears also to influence its action very little, (if at all), while mere dilution has no effect whatever." (3rd Report, page 10.) On the other hand, experiments on the Continent have proved that the mortality of the inoculated disease is reduced to about 5 per cent., and that repeated transmission does modify its virulence materially. A less fatal inoculated disease seems to be unprotective. It must be remembered, however, that the English disease was most virulent and foreign to the country, and that the experiments were conducted in towns where the disease was more virulent and fatal, while the Russian experiments were conducted in the home of the disease, upon a different breed of cattle, and it appears to be a well-ascertained law, that the higher the breed of an animal the more easily and severely it

takes an infectious disease (Varnell.) It would be foreign to my object to discuss the value of inoculation as a prophylactic measure to be generally adopted. My concern is with its pathological value. Still it may be well to state that the conclusions of both the English and Russian Commissions were opposed to its employment; that the same arguments which hold against human variolous inoculation obtain here also; that it is only applicable to a country where the disease is indigenous, or to a limited infected area, and that its employment must be combined with the strictest isolation and precautions against the spread of the disease by natural infection.

On the other hand, the experience of Professor Simonds with ovine variola, and of Dr. Layard in the epizootic of cattle disease in 1780, shows that when mitigation and protection can be obtained, and when it is morally certain that, notwithstanding superficial measures, the disease must spread over a certain area, artificial isolation of it within that area with careful isolation is not only permissible, but advisable. The experience of human inoculation before vaccination superseded it, and more particularly the experience of it in this country, where isolation of the inoculated is a religious duty, coincides with the foregoing.

We have yet much to learn ere we can explain the anomalies of exanthematous diseases, either as epidemic, or affecting individuals. What determines severity of epidemics, or cases, or the reverse? Why do some individuals escape attack and seem to bear charmed lives, while the majority succumb? Why do some individuals have repeated attacks of the disease, while the rule is one attack? What determines the exceptions to the laws of (1.) greater mildness and less mortality of the inoculated disease; (2.) mitigation of virulence by transmission through a different species?

The study of anomalies promises more fruit than the study of normal events, and similar anomalies occur in epizootics and epidemics.

VIII.—While vaccination is protective against human variola, it protects neither against rinderpest nor ovine variola, nor are the latter three mutually protectives.

As to rinderpest, it was found that "the vaccine virus, whether taken direct from cows, or after passing through the human body, has no effect on cattle plague, and that human small-pox and the virus of the small pox of sheep have likewise no influence." (3rd Report, Cattle Plague Commission, page 10.) The Scotch Cattle Plague Committee further found that natural cow-pox was not prophylactic against rinderpest, nor vice versa, and cite well authenticated cases in proof (op. cit., Appendix, page 221.)

As to human variola, proof is wanting that rinderpest or the proper variola of sheep, horses or camels, is prophylactic against it, while vaccination, or the virus of human variola, transmitted through cattle, sheep, horses, (?) or camels (?) has been triumphantly proved so. Finally, neither vaccination nor variolation are any protection against sheep-pox. (Simonds.)

CONCLUSION.

With the foregoing facts and considerations in view, it comes to be a most interesting question—which is the specific variola of cows, goats or vaccinia? I strongly incline to consider gootee or rinderpest the pathological homologous of human variola. If this view is correct, another question of importance arises, namely, what is vaccinia? To this I should answer—It is specific human small-pox manifested in the cow. If cases of spontaneous vaccinia arise I am not prepared to say. But the contrast between the variety of vaccinia and its feeble contagiousness among cattle, and the extremely infectious nature of gootee and rinderpest is most marked. Then, while gootee and rinderpest are easily and effectively communicated by inoculation to cattle, the inoculation of cows by human variola is more difficult, and the result invariably vaccinia, which seems to be

in obedience to the law above illustrated, that an inoculable disease is with difficulty communicated to a species to whom the disease is foreign, and the manifestation is wider. Dr. Aitkin cites a case where inoculation of a cow, from a fatal case of variola, furnished matter which produced variola fatal in three cases in man. (Science and Practice of Medicine, 3rd edition, page 270.) Besides, cattle have been observed to take human variola by natural infection, in the form of vaccinia (op. cit., page 268.) Moreover, retrovaccination, or successive transmission of vaccine matter from man through the cow, seems to weaken its power, while "after successive re-inoculations on man it regains its activity" (op. cit., page 271.) The truth seems to be, that each species of animal has its specific variolous disease; that the specific variolous disease of each species is protective against itself and not against the others; that when communicated to a species to which it is foreign, either by natural infection or by inoculation, the manifestation of the disease is modified. The conditions of modified manifestation are not well understood, and require further elucidation by experiment and observation. The contrast between vaccinia and gootee only serves to confirm the original conclusion of Dr. Jenner, that small-pox and cow-pox are identical diseases. It only remains for me to state, that while gootee is but too common in India, I have never yet heard of a case of spontaneous vaccinia in this country. Any one observing such a case would confer a signal benefit by publishing the fact; but the greatest care would be necessary in exactly discriminating its characteristic features. If an undoubted case of vaccinia were observed, it would be of the greatest interest to ascertain—

1. Whether the case had any relation to gootee, as a relic of an epizootic of that disease, as derived by natural infection or accidental inoculation from a case of gootee, or whether it apparently arose as a disease *sui generis*.

2. Whether the disease could not have been derived either by inoculation or infection from human small-pox.

Both in France and England the question of animal vaccination is now attracting attention.

The advocates of the system appear to proceed on the supposition that vaccinia is essentially a disease peculiar to the cow, and apart from the convenience of this system of multiplying the supply of lymph on an emergency, a reason which all must admit, plead more profound grounds of its universal adoption. If the surmise which I have thrown out, that the cow is merely the laboratory in which the virus of variola (*humanum*) is tempered, and mitigated into the form of vaccinia, is correct, the practice of animal vaccination will come to have a different significance, and the variolation of cows, rather than their vaccination, will come to be the correct mode of supplying an efficiently protective lymph.

RESULTS OF SANITATION IN INDIA.

By W. J. MOORE, L.R.C.P.

Sanjour, Republican Political Agency.

(Continued from page 206.)

We were told in the last budget, that during the next five years barracks throughout India for European troops, will cost from ten to eleven millions of pounds sterling, one and a half million being set apart for the same purpose during the present year.

In addition to this expenditure, we have an elaborate sanitary supervision in every cantonment, and a commendable amount expended over every preventable disease, the shadows of which among Europeans were not perceptible even when I entered the Herold Company's Service. But it is now evident, that when a company is camped, a heavy penalty is laid upon sickness and mortality of an invading, for the British occupation of the

at hill cantonments. Although the mortality among the men has decreased, the death ratio of the soldiers' wives and children has remained at almost the same figures. According to the best authority,* European females died in barracks in former years, at the rate of 44 per 1,000 in Bengal; with a mean for the whole of India of 35.47 per 1,000. In the four years ending 1865, the mean mortality of this class was 40. In Bengal, in 1867, the death ratio of women was 46.21, having never been less than 42 per 1,000 in any previous year, excepting one.† Years back, the mortality of children was 84 per 1,000 in Bengal, 70.7 in Bombay.‡ In 1865, the death rate in Bengal was 83 per 1,000; in 1866 it was 75 per 1,000; and in 1867 104.9 per 1,000.§

Now the secret of this continued mortality among the women and children appears to me to be continued residence in the country. Women and children are seldom, if ever, invalided. It is also the married man who generally prefers remaining in India. These two causes keep the women in the country; and they die at the same rate as before. But it is certain, if sanitary regulations, as now enforced, if expensive palatial residences, if care and attention, had materially reduced the mortality among the men, the women and children, participating in these advantages, should also show a reduced death ratio. But this is found not to be the case, and is therefore the strongest evidence that sanitation is not altogether moving in the right direction. Among other matters, it may be questioned if the massive barracks and hospitals now erected are necessary or ever positively injurious. Robert Jackson long since stated he would sooner treat his patients under a hedge row, than within the walls of a crowded building. And we all know that the most solid structures are liable to become contaminated, by prolonged residence, especially when the dwellers therein are sick and diseased. It is to retire at least worth consideration, if the cost of the most expensive sanitary work, now going on in India, viz., the building of massive new barracks, may not be curtailed. Protection from the weather may be afforded, to as great an extent as desirable, in less costly, if not so durable dwellings. And a periodical change of site might not prove among the least important sanitary progress.

THE DELHI ULCERS.

By J. FLEMING, M.D., F.R.C.S.,
Staff Assistant-Surgeon.

THE pathology and treatment of the so-called boils and ulcers peculiar to Delhi have often been discussed in the medical journals both in England and this country.

Boards composed of medical officers of great experience have investigated their nature, and medical officers serving with European and Native troops in Delhi, have at various times recorded their observations, and pointed out lines of treatment, prophylactic and curative, besides advancing theories as varied and numerous as the imagination could produce, without that success which a might have been expected. Still the "Delhi boils" remain a paradox. Notwithstanding all the suggestions that have been pointed out in their removal, they are yet very prevalent, and affect more than 15 per cent. of the troops stationed there. I have been induced to record what I have observed regarding these boils and ulcers, while stationed in Delhi during the year 1865 and January 1866, and I hope that others who have opportunities may investigate the interesting subject more fully than I have done in this communication, and thus strive to eradicate,

or mitigate at least, a loathsome and unsightly disease, which is a cause of a good deal of inefficiency amongst the soldiers, and of terror to every European in Delhi. The "Delhi boil" is a misnomer, and calculated to mislead as to its real nature. It is a morbid growth, affecting the skin and subcutaneous tissue, which after some time ulcerates, and has hardly any of the characters of a boil, in fact, inflammation is conspicuous by its absence until the ulcerative stage. Its commencement, which is well known, resembles a mosquito bite in its external characters, and without any trace of inflammation. This little light-red spot increases in size slowly, is well defined, and becomes raised above the surrounding skin. The growth continues to spread for two or three weeks, or more, and its characters during that time are unmistakable. In some cases, when about the size of a pea, it can be moved backwards and forwards under the skin; in others it is incorporated with it, and that more especially towards the ulcerative stage. As it progresses it becomes more elevated and vascular, the tortuous dilated vessels passing over it being easily recognised, and accompanied with a pricking sensation and itches in the majority of cases. A vesicle forms at the apex, which discharges a pale yellowish serous fluid, and then ulceration begins, and spreads rapidly until the whole of the growth is destroyed. During the growth of this tumour, and up to the period when ulceration begins, it appears relatively very transparent and often shining, sometimes rough and scaly, and if examined by a good lens will show one or more yellowish spots deeply seated about its centre. The tortuous dilated vessels, the transparency of the tumour, and the yellowish deep seated spots are characters which I have observed in many cases before ulceration. If one of these yellow spots be cut down upon with dissecting needles, a small circular yellowish body, with a glistening capsule, just able to be detected by the naked eye, will make its appearance, and can readily be removed. But great care must be taken during the operation of extraction, as the least flow of blood will be sure to carry it away and lead to disappointment. Drawings of two of these



× 30



× 30

bodies are shown with the aid of the camera, magnified, from a preparation now in my possession. They were extracted from two separate tumours in January 1866 at Delhi, and I was fortunate enough to obtain others in July from patients sent to the convalescent depot at Landour; and I much regret that those specimens obtained at Landour have been lost. Examined with the microscope the structure of both seems identical, and composed of an apparently fibrous envelope, arranged in concentric laminae, enclosing fluid contents and probably something else. They are of a yellow colour, and not unlike in general appearance the ova of animal parasites, with the exception of an indistinctly perceptible nucleus, which they are not so transparent, and do not show their outline clearly, which may be owing to their greater relative size. They have many characters in common, and there is a considerable quantity of granular matter in the walls of the capsule. I shall at present call them ova for want of a better name, until their real characters have been satisfactorily determined. In figure B the pressure of the thin glass cover-slip in mounting has burst the ovum at one side, and an embryo is seen partially extended. In figure A the pressure of the glass cover-slip has merely produced a depression at one pole, and, most probably, this ovum did not arrive at the same stage of maturity as the others; but, if it is much more than a mere ova, I have pointed out the part of the ovum in figure B, in order

* Chivers' Indian Annals, M. S. Soc., Vol. III.

† Sanitary Commission Report, 1867.

‡ Chivers' Op. Cit.

§ Sanitary Commission Report, 1867.

morning, but he substituted his words, and seemed totally unable to grasp the one he wanted. He evidently understood all that was said to him, and tried to answer. A friend asked him to go and stay at his house: he thanked him, and was able to say he preferred remaining where he was; but he was quite unable to continue the conversation, and became incoherent. I left instructions that he should be well watched, and that beef-tea and the medicine should be given regularly.

June 10th.—He is in much the same state; pulse about 120; temperature of body somewhat high. He replies to a first question intelligently, but soon lapses into incoherence. I asked him to read, he took the book and pretended to do so, but it was the most incoherent jargon; all the time he looked quite intelligent. He has taken some nourishment, and is said to have slept. But for his shaven head, he looked fairly well. Cold had been applied to the head, and his bowels had been relieved. He was attended by a careful sick-nurse. In the evening I found him much the same; no improvement in his speech. Dr. C.—had seen him with me in consultation at 3 p.m.

June 11th.—He remains much in the same condition; pulse from 110 to 120; skin cool, perhaps slightly feverish at times; the bowels act regularly. Takes readily all food that is offered, and sleeps well. He is very quiet, tractable, and gentle; does or attempts all that he is asked to do. He walks with a peculiar gait, the body being bent forward; this is merely an exaggeration of his ordinary carriage. His tongue is slightly coated with whitish fur, and there is a peculiar and somewhat offensive odour in his breath. A small blister had been applied to the nape of the neck, which has risen well, but he does not complain of it in the least. He seems quite tranquil, and even happy; appears to recognize his friends, but he cannot tell, or rather, perhaps, he cannot remember, their names, or the words he wishes to say to them. Yesterday I asked him to name one of his friends who came into the room; he smiled and said,—“Oh that’s go-up,” and then he muttered some unintelligible words. He can reply to a first simple question, such as,—“have you slept or eaten well?” He answers “oh yes, or no,” as the case may be; but the next question, however simple, puzzles him completely, and the reply, for he tries to answer, is the most incoherent nonsense—words without connection or meaning. I asked him to read yesterday, and gave him a book; he looked for his spectacles, put them on, then looked long and earnestly at the book, muttered a few words, and put it down. I then asked him to write a note; he sat down at his writing table to do so, put on his spectacles, took pen and ink, adjusted the paper and sat looking at it. Then, after about a quarter of an hour, repeatedly making efforts to begin, and saying,—“I can’t write, oh that’s just it!” he scrawled three figures of 8. To-day, the 11th, he read a few words correctly, and then became incoherent. He sat down to write at my request, and after about 20 minutes’ delay, he produced the note No. 2, and then seemed so elatedly that he was glad to go and lie down. It is difficult to say how far he knows what he is doing. In the midst of the simplest reply to a question, he puts his hand to his forehead, appearing to try in vain to recall the word or idea he wants. For example,—“have you done so and so?” “Oh yes?” “Do you like it?” “Oh yes?” “Why?” “Because I—” I can’t write a line, because it’s a tight light.” I have directed that he should be very closely watched day and night, but he is tractable and gentle in the extreme. Nourishment with a little wine to be given frequently; an opiate when the bowels are confined; a rectal plug; the head to be kept cool; the feet warm; give me sometimes cold.

June 12th.—He seems rather better to-day; pulse 84; skin moist, head cool, bowels freely opened. I tried him with reading and writing. He read a few words correctly, but others he changed altogether. His writing is appended in Nos. 3, 4, 5. He answers up to a point very well, and looks as if he understands what he wants to say, though he is unable to remember the words he requires. He saw me looking at some numbers of “Good Words” lying on the table, and said there was something in them that was very good, but he could not remember what it was, or who wrote it, but he took one of the numbers up, and opening it at Galat. 6: 23 he said—“Evee Hoomer,” then said, “take it with you.” All this was said as by one in perfect health, but he lapsed immediately into incoherence. He has eaten and slept well; is in good spirits, and answers cheerfully to any question. The same to-morrow and to-day.

June 13th.—He looks better; is sitting up; slept well; and is taking food freely. Had a pint hot toddy to-night, and a glass or two of sherry to-day. I asked him if he had read the news-

paper, and he replied, “Oh yes; Eyre! Eyre, Chief-Justice.” He then took up the *Englishman* and read that “the Chief Justice, and all the *hobys* (judges) had done so and so?” he made one or two mistakes, but on the whole had more command of words than he had yesterday. He remembered my name, and mentioned it several times, but he could not manage that of an intimate friend who had just then come in to see him. I asked him to write a note, and he at once cheerfully sat down to do so. The result is appended. (No. 6.) There is also a memo. of what he wished to have for tiffin (No. 7), and dinner, and an order that was to be sent to his wine merchant. (No. 8.) His skin and head were cool; pulse 84; bowels open; much less of the peculiar odour first noticed in his breath. Altogether, he looks much better and stronger; is cheerful, and walks with a less stooping gait. To-day I ordered a quinine mixture with tinct. nux. vomica.

The blister on the neck is still open. He takes a generous diet, and one pint of claret daily. On the evening of the 13th he was evidently better. He had written an order to his wine merchant, and some other notes. He read several lines with few mistakes; he seems much interested in doing this, but soon gets tired, and then he becomes quite unintelligible.

June 14th.—He is better this morning; pulse 80; has slept well; no heat of head or body; reads very well, misreading only a few words. Talked quite naturally about merry things, and especially about his illness; remembered being taken ill, but could not describe his sensation; remembered people also who came to see him, and the days on which they came, but could not always remember their names; even whilst talking he forgets words, or substitutes others of a similar sound; at the same time he appears conscious of his defect of memory. He wrote a note (copy appended, No. 9) to a friend; he remembered his name, and appeared much amused that he did so. It had been stormy during the night, and this was evidently in his mind when he wrote; notwithstanding that he spoke so well, the wording of his written memo. No. 10 shows how far he still was from health. I should note that the handwriting from the beginning has been almost as steady and firm as when in his usual health. Dr. C.—saw him again with me to-day. He read and wrote for us; the reading had few mistakes, those mostly at the end of the sentences; the writing not nearly equal to the reading. He talked quite naturally on many subjects, and his general aspect was that of great improvement.

June 15th.—He seems to be doing well. He read a telegram in the paper, and commented fairly on it, but made several mistakes in his words; read part of a book equally well, and wrote a memo. (No. 11-12) about his food; his writing falls far short of his reading or conversation. His physical health is good; bowels regular; pulse 80; temperature of body normal; his memory, in some respects, is not so good as it was a day or two ago; he could not to-day remember the names of 5 common objects, such as a bell, a book, (the latter he called “book”), a paper knife, or his intimate friend’s name; but was quite sensible of his defect of memory, and said as he alluded to it. He takes his food well, and half a bottle of claret daily.

June 16th.—He is much the same, with memory, if anything, somewhat clearer. He reads with few mistakes, but his writing, (No. 13), was not equal to his reading; he has a fair appetite, slept pretty well last night. It should be noted that during the last two days rain has fallen, and that the atmosphere has been much cooler, which has been in his favor.

17th.—He is improving; had a good night; tongue clean; pulse 80; blister healed. He read an advertisement in the newspaper quite correctly, and spoke well, with occasional mistakes, of which he was quite conscious. I have cautioned his friends and the nurse against allowing him to sign or write cheque or letters.

18th.—He continues to improve and reads and writes (No. 14), better, forgetting fewer words. His physical health is otherwise good.

19th.—He continues to improve; conversation pretty natural, a tracing almost without a mistake; writing (Nos. 15-16), improved, but still not correct. An ordinary observer would now probably not notice any peculiarity in his conversation.

June 21st.—Doing well, speaks almost quite correctly. In running he occasionally mispronounces a word, but seems aware that he has done so.

June 22nd.—He is doing well; speaks and reads correctly, or nearly so; writing (No. 17-18), improved, but still not perfect. Does not seem to me quite such good a patient as he has been.

June 27th.—He is quite convalescent, has been out driving. His conversation and reading are now nearly perfect. He occasionally forgets or substitutes one word for another. He has

on which to withdraw the accustomed supply. A blister was applied to his neck, but I doubt if it was of any service, and I believe now he would have done just as well without it. I have strongly urged that he should never return to this country, and that his brain should not be overtaxed with work of any description.

CASE OF SYMPATHETIC ORCHITIS.

By K. McLEOD, A.M., M.D., F.R.C.S.E.

The following case, for the details of which I am indebted to Sub-Assistant Surgeon Bany Mathub Egore of this station, appears to me to illustrate an important fact in surgical pathology. No other cause of the acute orchitis could be discovered than that suggested above.

Nasura, aged 30, a Mussulman, apparently in good health, was admitted into the Jalporega Jail on the 26th June, 1869. He was received into hospital on the 22nd July, for an abscess of the left mamma. This was opened and poulticed. Pus did not escape freely however, and on the 28th July, he became feverish, and his right testicle inflamed. The abscess was now more freely incised, and pus thoroughly evacuated. Leeches and tonications were applied to the testicle. The fever subsided under antimonials and salines, the cavity of the abscess contracted and granulated, and the testicle, which had attained the size of a large mango, gradually regained its normal dimensions. The man denied having ever suffered from gonorrhoea, syphilis, or swollen testicles. He had no oedema of the penis, nor urethral discharge, and had not had the affected testicle injured in any way. Both conditions, mammary abscess and orchitis, abated simultaneously, and he was discharged well on the 21st August. Having carefully eliminated every possible cause of the orchitis, I am compelled to the conclusion that it was caused or determined by the irritation of the mamma of the opposite side.

ANTAGONISTIC ACTION OF OPIUM TO BELLADONNA.

SEVERAL instances and cases having recently been recorded in this journal of the action of belladonna in poisoning by opium, an authentic and occurrence of poisoning by belladonna, counteracted by opium, will be read with interest.

In the *Medical Press and Circular*, Dr. Bernard Kavanagh, Surgeon to the Limerick Infirmary, relates the following case, here given in a condensed form.—

A girl of 15 and a boy of 24 years had eaten some extract of belladonna, diluted with aliphatics; they were seen 1½ hour afterwards, and found laboring under frantic excitement, unconscious to every one and every thing around them; their pupils dilated to the utmost extent, the entire skin as red as in scarlatina, and their pulses about 150. The girl had taken more than the boy, and her symptoms were the most severe. The stomach-pump was applied with good effect, and opium in tincture given both by mouth and enema, a few drops every hour. In about 12 hours both became gradually drowsy and fell asleep, waking to rally well. Dr. Kavanagh states.—“I have no doubt that these children took four times more of the belladonna than would have been sufficient to produce poisonous effects; and when it is borne in mind that at least 50 drops of the tincture was administered to the girl, and 30 to the boy, and that under other circumstances one would not like to be administering a quart of that among the children of their tender ages, as is the practice now of the quacks of opiumism, together with their bad recovery, *and the results being born in mind*, there can be no further doubt of the fact that these substances are mutually antagonistic to each other.”

CONTRIBUTIONS FROM THE MITFORD HOSPITAL, DACCA.

By ASSISTANT-SURGEONS H. C. CHODDER, F.R.C.S.

RETENTION OF URINE.—DISCHARGE OF PUS WITH URINE.—RAPID DEVELOPMENT AND SUBSIDENCE OF AN ABSCESS OF THE BLADDER.

R. C. Chodder, M.D., F.R.C.S., aged 47 years, of age 40, admitted into the Mitford Hospital, Dacca, on the 1st of October, 1869, with a complaint which he described as follows:—

He says that 14 days before admission (19th April), he was seized with a frequent desire to go to stool. He passed at first fecal matter with mucus, and then mucus only. The following morning (20th April), the disturbance of the bowels had ceased, but he had pain about the bladder, and could not pass water. He then went to the hospital at Miriékangga, where he was told to apply a mustard plaster, and to take some medicine that was given to him. At mid-day he passed a water pretty freely, and got relief from his pain. Next day (21st April), his urine again stopped, and he went to the hospital, where a catheter was passed, and much urine drawn off, with relief to his pain. Blood came out after passing the catheter, the introduction of which caused him great pain. In the evening the catheter was again passed, blood and matter escaped, and afterwards urine. Three or four times a day, and two or three times a night, the catheter was continued to be passed up to the 3rd of May when he arrived at the Mitford hospital. He never passed a stone nor any gravel, and he does not know that he ever had any affection of the kidneys or bladder. He recollects that he had some pain about the small of the back for 4 days before he was attacked with his present illness, and his father and mother lived to old age, and died of fever. He has had only one brother, who is still alive. He cannot recollect ever having had any injury to his abdomen or loins. He had syphilis with a suppuratory bubo 1 year ago, and was treated in the Mitford hospital. Has never had alveolitis or cutaneous eruptions of any kind.

On admission, the sub-assistant surgeon, Gopal Chunder Pattnak, noted that the patient complained of severe pain over the bladder and around the anus, and complete stoppage of urine. The lower part of the patient's abdomen was tightly distended. His countenance was expressive of great suffering. He had fever, and his pulse 110. His tongue was covered throughout with a yellowish brown fur. The sub-assistant surgeon passed a No. 9 catheter, though what he supposed to be a false passage into the bladder, and drew off a large quantity of offensive pus, mixed with urine and blood. The passing of the instrument caused great pain, but subsequently considerable relief was experienced. The following morning (4th May), I saw him, and found him pretty much as the sub-assistant surgeon had described. There was no marked distension of the abdomen, which, however, in the vesical region was very tender. I could detect no tumour, though I made a very careful examination externally, and also by the rectum. He had passed, during the night, a little urine mixed with blood and pus. I now very carefully introduced along the urethra a No. 9 catheter, and found that it did into what appeared to be a false passage about the neck of the bladder. A large quantity of pus escaped. The catheter seeming to be blocked up, I withdrew it, and having cleared it, again introduced it, and this time it passed on into the bladder, from which various urine, and blood now flowed. I washed out the bladder with a little warm water, and could not feel the man opium, but mentation and a hip bath. In the evening the catheter was again passed with similar results, and the bladder was again washed out. He then had sharp fever.

5th May.—Fever persists; pulse 104; countenance expressive of great suffering; complaint of mucus pain over the bladder and in the perineum in front of the anus. Perineum and rectum again examined, but no tumour or hardness was anywhere perceptible. With great difficulty he passed a little urine, mixed with a considerable quantity of pus and blood, three times in the night. The catheter was again passed, and a large quantity of pus escaped. His fever passed off through the day. He now takes opium given and opium given every four hours.

8th.—Fever 107; pulse 88; temperature 95; bowels open twice during the night; mucus in urine; no pain in the perineum, but still has a great pain about the bladder when he passes water, which he does frequently. I now, for the first time, introduced in the amount of pus, catheter, so that he passed, after taking opium with bismuth, a few drops of opium.

9th.—Pulse 102; temperature 95; bowels open twice, with a stool during the night; mucus in urine; no pain in the perineum, but still has a great pain about the bladder when he passes water, which he does frequently. I now, for the first time, introduced in the amount of pus, catheter, so that he passed, after taking opium with bismuth, a few drops of opium.

11th.—Pulse 88; temperature 95; bowels open twice, with a stool during the night; mucus in urine; no pain in the perineum, but still has a great pain about the bladder when he passes water, which he does frequently. I now, for the first time, introduced in the amount of pus, catheter, so that he passed, after taking opium with bismuth, a few drops of opium.

The Indian Medical Gazette.

Acknowledgments.

Lancet.
American Journal of Medical Sciences (July.)
British Quarterly Journal of Medical Sciences (August.)
British Medical Journal.
European Medical Journal (May and August.)
Medical Post and Courier.
Chirurg. Medic. Zeitung, by *Scudder Denmark.*
The Indian Medical Review for 1868.
Calcutta Medical Review (May and June.)
Canada Medical Journal (August.)

Notices to Correspondents.

Communications have been received from

JAMES TROWER of *Hazareebagh*,
Sub-Assistant Surgeon A.S., A.S.†
 Dr. F. YERES, C.S.E.
Assistant-Surgeon H. C. COTTELLIE.
Surgeon W. J. MOORE.
 F. TANSER, Esq., C.E.
Surgeon T. RINGOLD.
 Dr. RICHARDS, *Burrowah.*
Surgeon G. K. POOLE.
Assistant-Surgeon F. M. MACKENZIE.
Sub-Assistant Surgeon SHAM LALL MULLICK.
Assistant-Surgeon RAYSON.
 Dr. C. W. WAYLEN

ADVERTISEMENT REGARDING MEDICAL WORKS.

See page 3 of Advertisement Sheet.

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THE CORRESPONDENCE OF THE PROFESSOR THROUGHOUT INDIA IS FREE OF CHARGE.

"You have been the path, not of justice, but of sense. Among those who have been your friends, and in whose participation you have taken, I have seen the most eminent ornaments of the country's history, and I would not dream of the possibility of opposing the truth, if by some one among yourselves it could not be put in a plain and honest way. Hence, to that I am indebted, for the courtesy and politeness of the people in which they lived."—SIR R. B. J. (L.N.) (L.N.) 1890/41

* Apply to Messrs. Wyman & Co., Calcutta.
 † It would not be permitted.

PROFESSOR PETENKOFFER'S THEORY OF CHOLERA.

The extensive operations ordered by Government to note the alterations in the subsoil water all over India, show the importance attached to Professor Petenkoffer's theory of its influence in the propagation of cholera. We have hitherto had considerable difficulty in understanding the problem or theory propounded by the learned German Professor. That it coincided with many of the phenomena of the appearance and spread of the disease, the experience of India amply proved. The disease has appeared very regularly at certain seasons of the year, more especially among the European troops and in cantonments and jails, from which alone our reliable statistical information has been hitherto derived. The season of the year at which it appears in the Upper Provinces is the rainy season, when the subsoil water rises considerably towards the surface. In Bengal Proper there are two seasons: one before, and the other after the rainy season; the country during the rains being very much flooded, or *under water*. It was observed at Agra, that on four occasions the cholera appeared 20 days after the rains set in; and there have been innumerable instances of the progress of an epidemic being accelerated, or, on the contrary, being checked, after a heavy fall of rain. The apparent anomalies in its appearance in Bengal were explained by stating, that excess of water was incompatible with the development of the cholera germ. But there are other difficulties in explaining the progress of cholera by land and water, which appear opposed to the subsoil theory, and cause doubt regarding the understanding the strict definition of the Professor's theory. These doubts have now been cleared with mathematical precision by late articles which appeared in the *Lancet* during August and September. In them the data are laid down with precision under algebraical signs, *viz.*, $x, y, & z$: x , meaning the germ, seed, or ovum, of the cholera-poison. It is not capable of inducing the disease in a human body, till it has undergone a change or metamorphosis in y , which consists of a porous soil, containing a certain quantity of organic matter and water. It will be more clear in discussing this question to consider $y = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}$, meaning a certain degree of moisture, and not comprehending flooded lands or dry deserts, and $\frac{1}{2}$ meaning a porous alluvial soil containing organic matter, and not comprehending rocky or clayey soils, dry buildings or rocky mountains, or ships not within a thousand miles of land. The change which takes place in this medium y produces z , which, on entering the human body, induces the disease called cholera. Unless x pass through its change in y no active germ can be produced. In ordinary language, one person cannot catch cholera directly from the person or evacuation of a cholera patient. If the study of cholera were limited to Bengal, it would be very difficult to show the fallacy of Professor Petenkoffer's theory, as here the whole delta of the Ganges and Brahmaputra is water-bogged, and the disease is endemic, and the rest of the country within easy marching distance, whilst the cholera germ is in the body. But let us examine the history of its progress over the world. Cholera has been endemic in Bengal from time immemorial. When it appeared in a very intense form in Jessore, in 1817, it was called a usual disease of the rainy season. There had been several attacks amongst the troops on the coast in 1790 and 1793, and there was a severe attack at Harwar in 1783, where the

HEALTH OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES.

IN reading over the valuable and interesting reports on the vital statistics and vaccine operations of the Central Provinces for 1868, we are struck by the amount of vigour and ability displayed in the measures initiated for the public health by Drs. C. J. Townsend and J. Brake, in their respective departments. For instance, the former officer had good reasons for concluding that the "fair formerly held annually in February at the Mahadeo Cave, in the Puchmurrice Hills, formed the most frequent focus of the disease (cholera) within the province. The stream of pilgrims is constant throughout the year; from 100,000, to 120,000 people assembled annually on the Deiwak River, in the valley below the hill. Cholera broke out in this fair in 1860 and in 1865, and the most widespread epidemics, of which there are any records, followed, not a single district having escaped in either year." Dr. Townsend continues: "the spread of the disease over the country in 1865 was so manifestly connected with the dispersion of the pilgrims from Mahadeo Fair, that to prevent its assemblage for the future appeared to be the measure most urgently called for. Orders prohibiting the fair were accordingly issued by Sir R. Temple, and the reasons for the measure were so obvious and good, that it was received by the mass of the people with ready acquiescence;" and that, notwithstanding, the "cave is held in great sanctity through all the surrounding country."

It is certainly very refreshing to meet with an instance of this kind in India, common sense, and action, for once, in a matter of public health, taking the place of red tape, reports, and procrastination. We only wish we might reasonably hope that a similar policy would one of these days be put in force regarding the inhabitants of the Gangaic Valley, the focus, par-excellence, of Asiatic cholera, and to which subject we shall refer in our next number.

We find the same prompt and energetic spirit, as that above noticed, displayed by the authorities when cholera had become epidemic over the Central Provinces: no time was lost in twaddle about caste prejudices; there was no cry as to want of power or funds to enforce acts necessary for the public health; the officials then and there took upon themselves to obtain information as to the abode of those suffering from the disease, and they isolated the sick as far as practicable from their healthy neighbours; they destroyed contaminated articles of clothing, dug new wells, and guarded the old ones from pollution, enforced quarantine, and that, without waiting to dispute over the ways and means, but like men who felt the responsibility of their office, and having an interest in the work entrusted to them, they were able to throw their European energy and knowledge into the undertaking, being fortunately untrammelled by superior authority. The result is plainly set forth in the report before us, in a greatly diminished death-rate, from cholera during the epidemic of 1868, as compared with that of 1865 and 1860, exemplifying the truth of the old saying that "where there's a will there's a way."

With reference to Dr. Brake's vaccine report, although it shows evidence of much life and progress, 13,484 persons having been vaccinated, with a percentage of 79.94 successful cases, nevertheless, the Inspector-General of Vaccination in the Central Provinces evidently labours under the disadvantages common to all parts of India, inefficient and careless subordinates. Nor can we be surprised at the partial failure of vaccination

in this country, when we remember that Jenner, Coedy, Marson, and Seaton, in fact, all authorities on this branch of medical science, insist most strongly on the fact that vaccination, to be protective, must be most carefully performed; the lymph should be drawn from the arm of a healthy person, and above all, it must be taken before the appearance of the areola. In fact, as Dr. Seaton observes, it is by a "judicious choice of lymph, the taking it only from suitable subjects, from the finest vesicles, at the proper time," that we can hope to succeed with vaccination. To enforce these conditions, stringent laws have been passed in England, but small-pox has not as yet been stamped out of our island.

We can sympathise most sincerely in the distress evinced by Dr. Brake with regard to the failure of vaccination in some portions of the provinces committed to his care; his success, however, will naturally rouse him to increased exertions, and we doubt not into a more extended field of action.

We would suggest that in these vaccine returns, some further notice were taken of the re-vaccinations. We observe Dr. J. Harrison enters 1,180 persons as having been re-vaccinated in the Sumbulpore District, but the result of these operations do not appear in the return. Surely this important part of the subject has not been overlooked, for "the utility and necessity of re-vaccination do not stand on any speculative reasoning from the local phenomena it develops, but upon broad grounds of observation and experience." (Seaton.)

It would certainly be a source of great blessing to the people of Bengal, if civil surgeons were encouraged to take upon themselves the functions of the health officer of their respective districts, rather than be tied down, as is too often the case at present, to the sadder stations, as superintendents of the jail. We trust the day is not far distant when their power for good will be appreciated as regards public health, and that we may see civil surgeons marching from village to village during the cold season on their tour inspection, supervising the work performed by their vaccinators, attending to the water supply, and a hundred other matters connected with the well-being of the inhabitants of their respective districts, which are now wholly and absolutely neglected.

CHOLERA.

IN continuation of the remarks we made last month as to the progress of cholera in India, we have since received information to the following effect. On the 16th of September several deaths from cholera occurred in the city of Cabul. The fact was brought to the notice of the Ameer, together with the prevalence of the disease at Jellalabad. There has been a fresh outburst of cholera at Teheran and the adjoining villages.

By letters dated the 12th of October, we learn that cholera had extended from Peshawur, and become virulent at Kohat. As many of the garrison as could be spared had been ordered out of entrenchments into camp, and it was hoped that at so advanced a season of the year the epidemic would not be of long duration. It did not last long, but in seven days three regiments were more than decimated.

In the meantime, the disease has spread from Umritsur to Multan, probably by means of people travelling from the former to the latter place by railroad; from Multan it has passed down the Indus to Sukkur, Kotree and Hyderabad, attaining the capital town of Karachi, following in fact, its

state of 1845, and on other occasions. Fortunately, the fair trial exhibited to be held at Kurruck had been postponed. Sir W. M. Fowler has been obliged however to telegraph for British medical men, their services being urgently required in South India.

THE EXPERIMENTS ON SNAKE-POISON.

It would be difficult for an unlearned witness to find in the simple records which Dr. Fayer has published from time to time of the experiments which he has carried on for the purpose of testing the value of alleged remedies for snake-bite, anything that could indicate a spirit of controversy in himself, or reuse the hostility of other observers. In common with his professional brethren, he has found that, ordinarily, the bite of a venomous Indian snake in full vigour has been fatal in his hands. He has heard, too, of certain methods of cure having proved successful in the hands of others. He has recognised the several sources of deception, notably the possibility of proving in most cases of recovery that a genuine lacerated wound has been received, and he has determined to exclude all possibility of error, at least on this special point, and to ascertain by trials on animals whether any real antidote has yet been brought forward. He has neither asserted nor proved anything *à priori*, and whether the alleged remedy has been an object of belief with a professional man or the nostrum of an ignorant snake-charmer, it has been treated by him with the same care and fairness; and the result is, that medical men have now definite and tangible facts to offer in reply to any one who may feel disposed to criticise the failure of their practice, or mischievously hint that if another course had been followed in a given case, a better result might have been looked for. This is a service to the profession which the profession alone can adequately appreciate. The facts are clearly summarised by the author in a few propositions with which our readers are already familiar. They need not be reproduced in this place.

We see with surprise therefore, that Dr. Halford, of Melbourne, experimenting on the poison of a different class of animals, and possessed with the belief that ammonia, injected into a vein, is a specific against the bite of Australian snakes, has now found it to use a contemptuous tone in commenting on Dr. Fayer's results. In his eyes, it is evidently an unpardonable sin to demonstrate that an Indian snake no more resembles an Australian snake in the effects of its bite, than it does in the rest of its natural history. Instead of being indebted to Dr. Fayer for devoting care and time to the determination of the remedy in a distant part of the world, as a new enquirer earnestly desirous of knowing the truth, he is anxious to throw his own reputation on the scales.

It is very worth while, it will be easy to see from the pages of Dr. Halford's in the *Indian Medical Gazette*, 1869, that Halford's treatment is in reality, with a little comment, a repetition of what was said by Dr. Bernini in 1845. The only difference is that of the date of the publication of the paper on which the experiments were published, and the publication of the paper on which the experiments were published, without specification of any date. It is not necessary to enter into a vein of sarcasm and

Dr. Halford informs the Australian public that ammonia introduced by the stomach has an intricate course to pursue, and some chemical transformations to undergo, before it can reach the seat of the poison; and that hypodermally used, its caustic character prevents its absorption; therefore it must be injected into a vein. To do this a small puncture is made. At this point Dr. Halford has misgivings. Intelligent colonists might hear elsewhere that air getting into a vein was considered dangerous by medical men, so he provides them with a ready reply. "Should any air," he says, "enter by so minute a puncture, no harm will follow." This is a novelty without doubt. We hope his readers were not blinded by it into the pernicious trust in their veins which the doctrine inculcates. This doctrine Dr. Halford puts forth with an imposing flourish of physiology. Quotation alone can do the passage full justice.—"The direct injection of caustic or liquid ammonia, mixed with two parts of water, avoiding the internal laboratory of stomach, spleen, liver, and intestines, at once mixes with the blood, which sufficiently dilutes its caustic powers. Within 20 or 30 seconds of its introduction into a vein, it passes to every part of the structure of the body. Wherever the serpent's poison lurks, there the ammonia is, and by the end of one minute has twice more the circulation of the body."

It has passed it as a caustic wash, free to exert its marvellous influence upon the inspired oxygen, or even possibly upon the poison itself, but certainly upon its products. With such physical truths as guides, let us see the result of practice; and here I may state that all practice not based on physiology is a old woman's avocation, and is fast passing out of date, at least in the old country. Far from the centre of knowledge it may still flourish, but '*dehinc est Coelago*.'" This is a fair specimen of Dr. Halford's philosophy and logic. The physiology consists in the announcement that ammonia reaches the seat of poison more rapidly, and in a purer state when thrown directly into the blood than when swallowed; the rapidly few will dispute, the purity many; but if both points be admitted, the curative action remains as far from proof as ever. It derives no sort of confirmation from Dr. Halford's physiology, nor is there any logical connection that we can discover between the process and the result, unless it be first proved that ammonia is a direct chemical antidote to snake-poison. Construing his total want of care in guarding against error, Dr. Halford makes no mention of such a doubt as this, and thus reduces his practice, even if successful, to the position of that empiricism which he so seeks to repudiate.

Dr. Fayer, on the other hand, absolutely disproves that there is any direct antagonism between Indian snake-poison and ammonia, by mixing the two and inoculating dogs with the mixture, the only result being intensified poisonous action. The most, therefore, that can be said for Dr. Halford's position is, that he made by a very hazardous process in waking the patient from a stupor and other results of nervous depression. We do not aim an objection. In our crude vernacular, diluted we have spoken of 'waking his patient.' Such a phraseology would carry no force with Dr. Halford's lay pupils. "Quite well, it was not for me," he writes in comment on a circulated case in which single pupils became active under ammonia, "when reading the Doctor's letter, to know that the

being, and that the nerve cells, instead of being dead to those vibrations whose reception constitutes light and sound, now responded, and the man was once more, ammonia being added to his blood, in harmony with the forces which surrounded him. Animal life in abeyance or passing away was re-manifested or brought back." There was prudence in the sufficiency; for throughout Dr. Halford's proceedings there is not a trace of scientific forethought or care, while, if his physiology be followed to its logical conclusion, it must lead him to injecting all his remedies into his patient's veins, and relegating those who do not follow him to the category of old women.

Dr. Fayer has made the bulk of his experiments on dogs, as did Dr. Halford, and he rather ridicules one or two of Dr. Fayer's experiments with pigeons. "Any one," he says, "possessing the least physiological knowledge would hardly expect a pigeon to recover either from the bite of a cobra or after the injection of ammonia, by such delicate apparatus is the life of birds sustained." We do not see how the delicacy of the apparatus can affect the question, whether ammonia is or is not a counterpoise to snake-bite; if it does so affect it, the vitality of a healthy pigeon is at least as great as that of one of Dr. Halford's moribund dogs, which some by-standers considered to be actually dead when ammonia was used.

We cannot devote more space for the argument. We are willing to accept Dr. Halford's facts as far as they go, but we qualify them with information derived from other sources respecting the potency and treatment of snake-bites in Australia. We regret the derisive tone he adopts in speaking of the experiments in this country, because it prevents us meeting him in the broad field of scientific inquiry.

The Mafussilite states in a recent issue:—

We hear from Le (Ladak) that Dr. Cayley's dispensary at that place is becoming a great success, and we think we may add a great source of benefit to the natives of Le. The monthly average attendance of seekers of medical relief is much in excess of one hundred. There is a small hospital for in-door patients, of whom, during August, eight were maintained. Vaccination is becoming popular among the people. In August, 370 persons were vaccinated. This appears to have been in Le itself, but in the out-districts and villages, Dr. Cayley had vaccinated a goodly number.

We are glad to announce that the Government have granted an allowance of Rs. 30 a month, to Medical Officers in executive charge of the Jails in Bengal, to pay for a writer to assist them in their clerical work.

Every endeavour is to be made to enlist educated convicts to take the post; and failing this, the pay is to be taken from the profits of the labour of the Jails, before the amount is taken from revenue.

We hope in time to see the indulgence extended to the whole Presidency; but in the meantime the Officers in Bengal require the assistance in consequence of the amount of writing their superiors demand from them.

THE Medical Officers to whom annuities are granted from the Retiring Fund, on this date, are:—Sutherland, Macpherson, Kelly, Lay, Hathaway, Warnford, Ailau and Maclure.

DR. CORNISH ON OPIUM AND IPECACUANIA IN DYSENTERY.

(Continued from page 220.)

From S. HEWARD, Esq., Surgeon, to ANDREW BERRY, Esq., Acting Head Surgeon, Centre Division, and 3rd Member of the Medical Board, Fort St. George. Dated Wallahabad, 15th June, 1867.

SIR,—In communicating to you some account of the great mortality which has lately taken place in H. M.'s 30th Regiment in this station, I have to observe that dysentery was the disease from which this chiefly happened, and as the like occurrence is commonly spoken of, on the deportation of troops, particularly to tropical countries, it becomes an object, to ascertain any probable part of the many causes which are found to be this constant and uniform in their operation and effect.

I should here premise that the men of the regiment are mostly young, the greater part of them from 18 to 30 years of age. This being kept in view will explain to you in some measure the very aggravated form of the disease we have had to combat with, arising, generally speaking, from a habit highly disposed to inflammations, and this accompanied with such a degree of irritation, as have but in too many instances baffled our best efforts to subdue them.

The cause of the disease I would refer to an existing predisposition thereto in the European constitution, which exposure to the sun, transitions from heat to cold, and other changes which induce a suddenly checked perspiration, irregularity in, or change of diet, or intoxication from the common arrack of the bazars, will in most instances be found among the more obvious causes of the disease.

I do not believe the disease was in any instance propagated by contagion, but altogether generated and kept up from the men, the women, and children of the regiment being exposed to some of the above causes; for I ought to inform you that the women and children were equally victims to the disease, which in many among them went through a course as rapid and acute, as with the strongest men of the corps; and in some of the children, I am satisfied, the sun's influence alone brought on the complaint.*

From the increasing sickness which prevailed in the regiment during the month of March, it had been recommended by you, that the men should be confined to their barracks during the heat of the day.

This measure was put in force on the 31st of March, in which month the admissions had become unusually numerous, nearly all of them dysentery, attended with so great constitutional irritation, that it was commonly received into the hospitals from 10 to 15 of such cases daily.

The confinement of the men to their quarters was from the hour of 8 a.m. till 4 o'clock p.m., and is still continued. This was attended with such marked effects, that in about a fortnight after, the admissions not only became fewer in number, but, what was also observable, the disease, from being highly aggravated in its symptoms, became gradually less so, and from that period took on daily more and more the character of a common diarrhoea. Now as there was not during that time any change or alteration in the diet of the men, or deviation from the established discipline of the regiment, which appears to be guided by the rules best calculated to preserve health, I am disposed to attribute this mitigation in the symptoms of the disease to the confinement of the men to their barracks; and the regulation having been found of such benefit and importance to the soldier's welfare in this instance, I trust it may at no time be overlooked on the landing of a new regiment from Europe; for I am persuaded, had the plan been adopted on the arrival of the 30th Regiment at this station, much of that distress and suffering in the first place would have been avoided, and many subsequent deaths ultimately prevented.

It might be supposed that a disease so fatal in its tendency could never originate, without previously occasioning some clear and well-marked constitutional indisposition, but this is by no means uniformly the case; for, at times the attacks are so sudden and unlooked for, that the men are on guard, at parade, or in bed when taken ill, and then the first thing complained of is passing a large quantity of fluid blood, but unattended with either gripping or tenesmus.

Most frequently, however, the disease comes on in the shape of

* I do not feel quite so certain about the non-contagion, as Mr. Heward appears to do. If we knew a little more about the sanitary condition of the barracks and privies at Wallahabad, we might not perhaps wonder at the general prevalence of dysentery there 63 years ago.—W. K. C.

commonly referred to, when, while the complaint continues, so long as the patient is kept in bed, it is a retrograde kind of fever, a stage of a malady of blood, or of the cellular tissue, mixed with dysentery, and there is a last stage, usually a fatal dysentery, rather than purgation, of the hypogastric region, with sometimes an abscess of the gut, when this disease, which is by no means a starting point for more fatal forms of blood, the patient dies after several years, leaving now and then a cystic tumour in the gut, which continues more or less troublesome till the death of the case of the disease.

As to the nature of the disease as noted in fever, head-ache, nausea, and vomiting, pruritic and burning skin, a smoky miliary eruption, and sometimes fullness of the turricated colon, often large, but not swollen, nor, for the long or now and then assumes a red, shagreened, or a scaly state.

The chief symptoms may now be summarised. I frequent eructations of bile, also hot pure blood, sometimes mixed with a little stony matter, or food, with occasional severe gripes, and tenesmus. A disposition of mind is often observable, but in those cases where the greatest irritation prevails, the patient is often in a high state of excitement, with the most acute of pain and a great amount of heat. In those more violent cases the course of the disease is not of long duration, and too frequently so, that, in spite of that nothing but the warm bath, with large quantities of doses of opium, produces the an ultimate sufferer may escape from his agonies. Having thus given you a short history of this disease, as it appears generally in the 20th Regiment, a more minute relation would be uninteresting, and certainly not within the meaning of this communication. From the foregoing it will appear evident, that the indicated indications to be aimed at in the cure of this disease, will consist of, first, a continuation of removal of every cause of irritation, and secondly, in regarding the determination of blood from the intestines. To this end, chiefly, to the use of local and general blood-letting, purgatives, glysters, warm baths, blisters, &c., and to the whole of the cases of this disease, whose operation is known to determine to the surface of the body. In estimating the real modes of treatment which I have been told the most efficient in the cure of these affections, I cannot but add my *own practical experience, and in these sentiments, Mr. Pease, the Surgeon of the 30th Regt., writes to me, in proof of the use of opium which, though not always successful, is still so in a very great proportion of the many cases in which I have now seen it employed.*

In the exhibition of the medicine, two grains and a half of the tincture, or from 10 to 12 grains of solid opium, will in general be sufficient to produce purgation for one dose. I have not myself seen the medicine given beyond the quantity of 15 grains of the concrete extract, though I understand some have not hesitated to do so. The operation of the opium appears obviously two-fold: first, by diminishing pain and irritation; and secondly, by determining to the surface of the body.

The first effect may in every case be observed, but the second, and most important, is less certainly produced, though it is in this way chiefly, I believe, that the disease is carried off.

In the consideration of the dysentery with the opium, this end, therefore, should be principally had in view, and the quantity regulated, so as to occasion nausea; for this action, when the concrete of opium fails to produce a determination to the gut, which when once established is supported and kept up by the diaphoretic powers of the laudanum.

But where there is a burning skin, great thirst, small quick pulse, and a fever, with other symptoms of general irritation, the warm bath has the best effect, and should be perseveringly employed. During the sweating process there was no necessity to repeat the medicine, or to give more than once in 24 hours, as the flux, griping, or the mucus stool returns when the prescription continues, but a recurrence of the above symptoms, it will be found, ought to signify to be the signal for repeating the medicine, though in this case, particularly in the more violent cases, as well as in those of a milder kind, which arise in the course of the disease, by a counter-indication, during the sweating stage, the patient may be supported by a little warm spirit wine, frequently administered, by the exhaust-tion being repeated during this period, to very good effect.

The great cause of the irritation, within the scope of the medical treatment of such a fever. This, in fact, does not, I believe, exist. At several times I have seen the patients in the 20th Regiment, cases of hæmorrhoids, rather of the more than of the less, form, which, indeed, is being treated.

When the symptoms are determined to the liver, the head is usually frequently affected by it, than when sweating is produced. A violent frequent flux of the opium is, I think, but very seldom, I have never found troublesome, or in any

ways of serious, or is soon removed by a tamentary or the warm bath. In no instance have I seen more than ordinary sweating brought on by the opium, though sometimes the patient has complained of weakness and want of rest. I have very often observed those eructus, I recollect hearing you speak of, as ascending about the ribs of those men who are labouring under the disease, the *disension non appareant during the same period, as liver putrid, and sometimes bags of a rather thin and yellow colour, lying hanging to the neck and breast of the patient.*

This affection is commonly met with where more than ordinary sweating has been produced, and seems to be a solution of the solid matter of the skin, in the common perspirable fluid, but not so, as too glutinous to fly off.

In all stages of the disease where there is anything like an accession of fever or irritation, a blister applied to the belly proves of the greatest service, but I to this I do not mean a blister of the ordinary size, but one which goes to develop at once a greater part of the whole abdomen. Fomentations also, of the first kind, and vapours, both anodyne and emollient, are in constant requisition. The tenesmus, that symptom so often troublesome, a tamentary to the fundament affords greater relief than most, and of any kind.

Medical practitioners and I cannot here in many cases extensively employed throughout the disease, but in the acute stage of it, except where a purgative was indicated, and that often consisted of a few grains of calomel, I cannot say that I ever saw any advantage from their use.

Little or nothing, therefore, I am inclined to think, will ever be found to escape from the medicinal practice in that stage of dysentery, while the disease is attended with fever and other symptoms of irritation; but where those have been removed by other means, not my time becomes the most peculiar of our remedies, in finally overcoming the remains of every kind of visceral inflammation.

In a few of the acute cases, the disease was translated to the parotid glands, which, inflamed, in some appeared, and recovery exerted in one instance below.

The man had then been confined to his quarters some days, and the disease was taking on a somewhat milder form.

In one particular case, (see Valentine Tristram, in the journals of April and May,) the disease was transferred to the knee joints, where the most severe pain was complained of, attended with a high degree of fever and irritation, which alone seemed to be the cause of his death, for the dysentery alluded to did not, in my medical recollection. As there was something anomalous in the case, his body was opened, and on examination, the lower portion of the lumbar was found slightly inflamed, the colon increased size, and had many numerous small points, scarcely amounting to nodules, were scattered in many places through the course of that gut. The rectum was still less affected, other viscera sound. I notice these circumstances merely as appearing unusual, and leave you to draw your own physiological deductions from the facts. From an examination of the bodies of almost all the men who have died of dysentery in the 20th Regiment, it can hardly be said that the disease is connected with visceral derangement, for in only one man was the liver found enlarged, nor have the other abdominal viscera, in any case which I have seen, been engaged in the complaint; but where the habits and life of the soldier cooperate with a climate, too often prone to give of visceral obstruction, this unaccountable state of the disease cannot be of long duration, and of course the present plan of treatment must be abandoned, and that by means principally trusted to be relief.

The history concerning this, as from a medical officer of the Indian Service, who was deputed by the Commander-in-Chief to be the Medical Surgeon of the 30th Regiment, and a great deal of the medical history, which prevailed there in 1807. The Regiment had but recently arrived in India, the British Government had not recently experienced of Indian diseases, and on the 24th of the Commander-in-Chief, first to the Medical Board for the services of an "experienced medical officer" to attend and direct the Regimental Surgeon, (W. R. C.)

Review.

On Cholera Malacra. By Surgeon BARSBAG.

THE voluminous literature of cholera has received a recent addition in the shape of a pamphlet, the title of which is pro-

published by Messrs. Thacker, Spink and Co., of this city, and entitled "Cholera Maligna is a specific acute inflammation of the mucous tissue of the small intestines, by George Barnard, M.R.C.S.E.; Staff Surgeon, Eastern Frontier Brigade, H. M.'s Indian Army." The author's scheme of the pathology of cholera is succinctly stated on the title page of his pamphlet. There is nothing novel or original in the view adopted. It was held by Jameson in 1820, by Broussais and his school 10 years later, and put forward more recently by Dr. Chuckerbutty in the *Indian Annals of Medical Science*, No. XXII, page 61. We therefore look for originality in the proof or demonstration. Dr. Chuckerbutty details and classifies the morbid appearances in sixty-three fatal cases, and we can sympathise with a theory resulting from a too exclusive attention to the morbid anatomy of the disease, and a too sparing consideration of its phenomena. Dr. Barnard does not give a single original observation in support of his theory, and moreover does Dr. Chuckerbutty the injustice of not acknowledging his previously recorded and almost identical opinion. His "proofs" consist of a few extracts from the writings of Alison, Watson, Hodgkin, and others, and we may look in vain for any reference to Parkes, Macpherson, Goodale, Johnson, Murray, &c., who have made the phenomena of cholera a special study. He neither states nor attempts to rebut the arguments which may be adversely urged. He quotes Dr. Hodgkin, to show the difficulty of determining what an inflammation of mucous tissue is, as distinguished from congestion, flux, desquamation, or simple excess of functional activity, and completely shirks the discussion of this, to him, fundamental question.

His thermometer experiment (which appears to us to have been a most unjustifiable one), proves nothing. It stands alone; and until a thermometer has been introduced "upwards and backwards" into the abdomen of a healthy subject, through a caecula, there is nothing to compare it with. Besides, though excess of heat does accompany the inflammatory process, inflammation does not always accompany excess of heat. Dr. Barnard has still to demonstrate that the choleraic lesion is an inflammatory one, primarily and essentially. In some cases, no doubt, inflammatory action does occur, but this would appear to be exceptional and subsequent. The choleraic lesion is as specific as that of typhoid, dysentery, scarlatina, small-pox or erysipelas—a feature of the sequence of morbid events we call cholera, and as much reason might be urged in favour of considering the specific lesion of these and other diseases as the essential and central feature of the morbid sequence, as in the case of cholera—perhaps more. The term specific is a mere sound if it does not mean a lesion peculiar to the particular disease; and there is nothing new or startling in announcing that the lesion of cholera is specific. It does Dr. Barnard's theory explain cases, many and well-authenticated, in which the specific lesion is slight or absent? He also fails to demonstrate the relation between the intensity of the lesion and the severity of the disease, which ought to obtain if the lesion is the essential cause and substratum of the phenomena. We may also look in vain for any serious or systematic attempt to explain the symptoms and other *post-mortem* appearances of cholera, or to compare the choleraic lesion with inflammatory processes, simple or specific, elsewhere or otherwise caused.

The toxic theory of cholera will maintain its ground until a better is discovered, and, however dogmatically stated, *effete* and *menopausal* doctrine is again propounded, strength of asseveration will hardly compensate for its intrinsic weakness or deficient demonstration. We would remind Dr. Barnard in passing, that the villi are not secreting organs, and that he has quite overlooked the state of the follicles in early stages of cholera as described by Parkes and others.

If the pathology of our author is second hand and eminently crude, his therapeutics are positively dangerous. He gives antimony to the amount of one grain, repeated every quarter of an hour until reaction occurs. His therapeutic theory is ostensibly antiphlogistic, but in reality the contra-stimulant theory of Marryat, Rasori, and others; both weighed in the scales of experience, and found wanting. His practice is not novel, but he does not give the results of the previous trials of antimony in India, and ipecacuanha in France. His own experience consists of 28 cases and 10 deaths—35 per cent.—a result which falls well within the fluctuation of the cholera death-rate, namely 10 to 70 or 80 per cent. On the faith of this success (?) he threatens any practitioner who in future fails to adopt his practice with criminal prosecution!! The arrogance and folly of a statement of this sort preclude comment, as the statement of the extreme death-rate of cholera as the ordinary rate (page 12, Appendix) preclude enquiry. The

cases are very vaguely reported; and in four of them secondary effects, after reaction, fairly attributable to antimony, occurred. (Case II, V, and two of Dr. Reed's p. 25 and 27, Appendix.) Dr. Barnard seems to be unaware, that in the collapsed stage of cholera absorption is in abeyance, and that fact, with the continuance of vomiting and purging, would explain the immunity from serious consequences, which happily obtained in most of his cases. When a patient can take 580 grains of calomel without pyrexia, 55 drops of croton oil without enteritis, 33 grains of opium without narcotism, and 22 grains of extract of belladonna without dilatation of pupils (Macpherson's Cholera in his Home, page 93), we cannot be surprised that 2 or 3 drachms of tartar emetic falls in every case to do much harm. Dr. Taylor's six cases in which 3 to 10 grains of tartar emetic caused death; and we can only explain the tolerance of 90 to 180 grains by the abeyance of absorption, and the persistence of vomiting and purging. There seems in cholera to be an equal tolerance of croton oil, opium, strichnia, and belladonna.

Dr. Barnard's sanitary doctrines are obtained from Moses and Monle, and are, if not very feasible, at any rate very plain, and repeated *usque ad nauseam*. He gives a lively sketch of a model city and camp, and disposes of Petenkovier in a sentence or two.

We would strongly recommend him, if he must write, to turn to some other subject, where intuition may supply the place of induction; and we would suggest to him to study this saying of Bacon's as a motto or text for his next essay:—"If a man will begin with certainties, he shall end in doubt; but if he will be content to begin with doubts, he shall end in certainties."

Local Correspondence.

THE WANT OF SURGICAL MECHANICIANS IN INDIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE INDIAN MEDICAL GAZETTE.

SIR,—Will you allow me, through the medium of your journal, to invite the attention of surgeons in India to our want of mechanical contrivances or appliances for the relief of physical deformities, resulting either from diseases or the operations which they necessitate. This want may, very probably, not be much felt in Calcutta, and I therefore trust that the distinguished professors of our Metropolitan College will pardon me for venturing publicly to write on a subject with which some experience, as a surgeon in the medical, has made me painfully familiar.

If we take the annual returns of the operations performed at the different dispensaries in the North-Western Provinces, for example, we shall find that a large number of amputations of limbs are annually performed, and a large number of lives thereby yearly saved. But ought we, as surgeons, to rest satisfied with the salvation of life at the cost of a limb? Is it not extremely painful to us to see the poor wretches whose legs or thighs we have mutilated, either condemned to crawl along the ground, or to hop on one leg, or to hobble along by the aid of a stick, which has a cross bar placed at a right angle to the bent knee, to rest on, and which rude and cumbersome representative of an artificial limb needs the assistance of both the arms of the patient for him to use it at all? Surgeons, here and there, I know, have constructed artificial limbs for their patients, but I speak only within my own knowledge, when I say that, though I have seen on a large number of the patients of native dispensaries who had undergone amputations, I have never seen one with a properly adapted artificial limb. Practically, according to my experience, amputation below the knee joint condems the native to a slow and laborious progression by kneeling on the stick to which I have before alluded. Amputation through the thigh, strikes the patient to hopping on one leg; and after amputation, through the arm or forearm, I have not seen anything done with a view to improve the usefulness of the imperfect member. Most of us who have had charge of native dispensaries or hospitals must remember the difficulties which we have often had to encounter in order to get even a rightly shaped, or an uncramped splint, a swing, and a properly fitting truss with a suitable spring, a pair of boots, or for what we wanted of them, a knife that would cut a stump that could be relied upon, or a convex glass

Irish Correspondence.

♦♦♦♦♦
Dublin, September 17th, 1869.

The past three months have been rather uneventful for though July was, as usual, distinguished by the meetings of what may be called respectively the Privy Council and the Parliament of the medical profession in the three kingdoms,—the Medical Council and the British Medical Association,—yet little of special interest has occurred in Dublin; and the great meetings alluded to have been fully reported already in the home periodicals, and in any case are hardly within the province of a "local" correspondent. The discussion on "hospitalism" in its relation to puerperal fever, which was still pending when I closed my last letter, was concluded on July 10th, when Dr. Ewery Kennedy read an elaborate answer (occupying three hours in its delivery), to the objections which had been raised to his views. His answer was far too comprehensive to allow of my giving an abstract of it; but the gist of his arguments was that his opponents differed so among themselves as to refute one another, some of them accepting certain of his propositions which others denied; and that by admitting, as they all did, the contagious nature of pueria, they necessarily accepted as true 12 out of his 13 propositions.

On the 30th July, at the meeting of the British Medical Association at Leeds, Dr. Kennedy read another paper on this subject, in the section of state medicine. An interesting essay on hospital construction had been read on the previous day in the general meeting, by Captain Galton, C.B., and an animated discussion was called forth by these two papers. One of the "conservative" speakers gravely urged, as an argument against "too great ventilation," that "nurses said that, if they had the chance, patients would shut the windows." No doubt; and if they had the chance, many of them would get drunk, but that is no argument for the abuse of alcohol. Some of the speakers objected to the building of *Umbosome* hospitals, on the ground that an ugly building, when it became unhealthy, would be demolished when a handsome one would be spared. Those who know the Medical College Hospital in Calcutta will feel the force of this argument. This question of hospital construction has been raised opportunely enough; for recent legislation has placed in the hands of Government considerable revenues, which are to be devoted wholly to "the relief of suffering" in Ireland; and it is most probable that one use to which these funds will be put will be the re-building or enlarging of the county infirmaries.

On the 22nd June, at the meeting of the Statistical and Social Inquiry Society, Dr. E. D. Mapother read a paper on "Dublin hospitals, their grants, and governing bodies," which provoked a discussion almost as warm, while it lasted, as that which followed the reading of Dr. Ewery Kennedy's paper. Dr. Mapother's object was to expose the present system by which the appointment of the medical officers to several of the Dublin hospitals is regulated by nepotism or party spirit, while in several others the offices of physician and surgeon are attainable by purchase. It might have been supposed that nothing could be said in defence of this state of matters, and that attention only needed to be called to it to ensure its abolition. Nevertheless, the discussion which followed the reading of Dr. Mapother's paper lasted through two evenings, and the purchase system was defended by many speakers who, like Sir D. Corrigan, must be considered as unimpeachable by ordinary considerations. A reform, however, is inevitable, and I believe that it is being actively carried out in some at least of the hospitals where the purchase system hitherto prevailed.

After some opposition, the "Medical Officers' Superannuation (Ireland) Bill" has at length become law. It merely extends to the hard-worked "dispensary doctors," the privilege which all other officials under the poor law authorities have long enjoyed, of receiving a pension when past their labour. The Bill lays down no fixed scale of retiring allowances, but merely permits the Guardians to assign pensions when they may see fit (subject to the approval of the Poor Law Commissioners), to medical officers, although the latter may not have devoted their entire time to the duties for which they are paid by the Guardians. It was on the ground that "no future trade" was not occupied by "the same" that medical officers have hitherto been excluded from the privilege of receiving pensions when too old for active service. Fortunately, the Bill expressly declares that the pensions are to be assigned and delivered from the

poor rates; thus making it the interest of the rate-payers to retain old medical officers on full pay as long as possible.

The (Protestant) Arch-Bishop of Ephesus has addressed an able letter to one of the Dublin newspapers, recommending that the revenues which will be placed at the disposal of Government by the "Irish Church Bill" should be devoted to providing salaries for medical officers. No better application of the revenues of the Church could be devised; and the only weak point in the Venerable Arch-Bishop's letter is the fact that he is influenced, not only by a wish to benefit the hard-worked and ill-paid "dispensary doctors," but also by his anxiety to prevent the clergy of other denominations from benefitting, directly or indirectly, from the funds in question.

Dr. E. Perival Wright has been appointed Professor of Botany in the University of Dublin, and the Chair of Zoology thus vacated by him has been filled by Mr. A. Macallister.

On the 4th August, two workmen lost their lives in a sewer here, in consequence of inhaling sublimated hydrogen, which is believed to have been set free by the acid sewage from some chemical works acting on the "lime refuse" from the gas works. That such an accident should have occurred is most disreputable to the corporation, in whose hands the gas works now are; especially as by substituting oxide of iron for lime in the purification of the gas, as recommended by Drs. Mapother and Cameron, all risk might have been avoided.

Attention has been called, by a writer in one of the Dublin papers, to the dilapidated state of several ancient monuments which stand *outside* the Chapel of Trinity College, and among which is that of the celebrated Dr. John Stearne, the Founder and first President of the Dublin College of Physicians, who died in 1669. The writer suggests that a subscription should be raised among the practitioners of Dublin for the purpose of having Stearne's monument (which does not now stand in, or near its original site, which was in the old chapel, demolished nearly a century ago), repaired and placed either *inside* Trinity College Chapel or in the hall of the College of Physicians. When will the medical practitioners of Calcutta exert themselves to take a similar step with William Hamilton's monument, which still stands, neglected and almost unknown, in Job Charnock's venerable mausoleum at St. John's?

GOLANDAZ.

Extracts.

ON ABSORPTION BY WOUNDS.—M. Demarquay (*in the Union Med. Calé.*) terminates an account of his investigations on this subject with the following conclusions:—

1.—It results from my researches that a substance soluble in water, as iodide of potassium, is very rapidly carried into the torrent of the circulation, and eliminated by the saliva when it is applied to a large surface of denuded dermis. In such cases elimination takes place in from four to six or eight minutes. 2.—This same substance placed in the serosity of a blister penetrates into the economy far less readily, by reason of the albuminous layer which covers the dermis, absorption not taking place then until nine, ten, fifteen, or twenty-six minutes. 3.—A solution of the iodide injected into the cellular tissue is absorbed and eliminated by the saliva in a period of time varying from ten to twenty minutes. 4.—The same solution applied to a recent wound is exhibited in the saliva in from one hour and a half to nineteen and fifteen minutes. 5.—When the wound has become "perfectly organized" it possesses great power of absorption. At the end of ten, eight, six, four minutes, or even less, evident traces of iodine are found in the saliva. In the face of such a power of absorption, we may ask whether the septic element which gives rise to erysipelas and purpural fever may not have been absorbed by the wound itself? 6.—In that serious complication of wounds known under the name of "puerulent infection," ought we not to inquire whether this power of absorption, so little established up to the present time, does not play a considerable part, and explain some of the phenomena generally referred to pith-bits? 7.—Iodine introduced into abscesses, active or passive, or into cysts, through a syringe inflated or not, are rapidly absorbed. I have proved that elimination by the saliva takes place in a period of time varying from forty-five to three minutes. 8.—When such methods are employed in too large quantity, or are too often repeated, the iodine thus constantly introduced into the

case may vary in this manner, is as follows:—In the end of the month of October, a patient presented himself at the various means mentioned above, and was cured by the salivary gland in four or five days." *British Med. Jour., Repts.*

HYPEROSTEOSIS AXILLARIS.—The treatment of this complaint by means of the process of dilatation of the main vessel, as already described by Dr. Lippert in *Archiv. f. Klin. u. Exp. Med.*, 1871, and by Dr. Lippert in *Archiv. f. Klin. u. Exp. Med.*, vol. XLVI, part 1, 1879. And the cases treated by Dr. Lippert and described as "osteology, treatment, in brief." As delineation in several cases treated by the author is confined to track that a process will in general (at least in human), be preferred. *De Lippert.*

HYPEREMIC TUMORS IN STRABOLOCATED HERNIA.—Dr. RAYBOLD (from *Wien. Med. Wochenschr.*, No. 24, 1897), mentions a case of strangulated hernia in a man of fifty-six, in which taxis was useless, and a subsequent operation of nosophia was used. Reduction was then effected. The aneurysm, however, a general similar system in a woman of forty-five, where the same means were employed, with the same successful results. Dr. Raybold states that he has found only two analogous cases in medical literature:—1st, Strickmann-Wiener Med. Presse, No. 13, 1875, and 2nd, K. J. Jurgens, *Wochenschr. f. Hy podermatich. Lepra*, 2nd edit., 1897, p. 403.—*Ital.*

The *Gazette des Hôpitaux* of July 24, 1897, contains an account of the trials, which M. Ribet has been making during this last year of what he calls interstitial injection of caustic substances. The caustic employed is the chloride of zinc, but, instead of using it in the solid form, M. Ribet employs it after it has become liquefied by exposure to the air. Being very hygroscopic, it is soon converted into a liquid of a syrupy consistence. The form of tumor which has been most frequently experimented upon is the sebaceous cyst of the scalp, which the French call *loup*. It is possessed of little vitality and power of reaction, and it suffices to inject into its substance, by means of a Pravaz syringe, from one to four or five drops of the liquefied chloride. When the loup is a true lipoma, consisting of nothing but fatty tissue, a few days after the injection its contents may be pressed out by the small aperture in the skin which is left by the little superficial eschar produced at the point of insertion. It has frequently happened that a single drop of the caustic thus injected has sufficed for the removal in this way of tumours of considerable size. In a case in which the loup was found by the transformation of some blood which had been effused as a consequence of a fall, emulsification could not be effected after the injection, and the knife had to be employed. The tumor, however, consisted of several firm, semi-transparent, blood-colored layers, in no wise resembling a lipoma, and this is the only instance of failure in twelve months being which M. Ribet has treated a considerable number of loupes.

A week or two since M. Ribet tried this injection on an enormous pimple, making several punctures along the median line. There resulted a modification of the skin over an extent of about a centimetre, an abscess-like inflammation with induration, and a chara more or less extensive of the median lobe of the thyroid gland. It is remarkable that in two lateral lobes dynamic had rapidly, and became in a single day thus inflamed of the median lobe. The morbidness have been frequently marked away of the central could yet being determined, but it will be a great loss if the mode of cauterizing proved efficacious, so that it may be substituted in the treatment of those cases in which the disease persists, the less when it is employed than the gland has in several cases been followed by fatal hemorrhage.

In our number for May 25, we noticed the practice of Dr. Knief's *Empy*, which he states as being highly successful in producing a rapid and painless combination of stercoraceous tumours of the rectum, and which consist in the injection into their substance of a few grains of a solution of tartar emetic.—*Medical Times and Gazette.*

ON THE CURS OF STRABISMUS IN COLICUS FORM OF EPILEPSY. BY WALTER FAIRBairn, Esq., GREAT MARLBOROUGH. In a disease like epilepsy, of which the aetiology is very obscure, it is satisfactory when we can say that we have established any definite

fact, more easily when that fact is one bearing upon treatment. Now that bromide of potassum has a decided effect in relieving certain forms of epilepsy, one such fact, and I wish to point out on this note what I think will be established, is that bromide of potassum is not only worthy of notice, but that other varieties of epilepsy may be cured by strychnin. I do not mean to say that I am content to this of this case, and say it will be cured by strychnin in our present state of knowledge, we are unable to do so with any more certainty; but I think I can point to a large class of cases in which an acute and debilitative nervous condition accompanied symptoms in which the administration of strychnin will be followed in the majority of cases by the most beneficial results.

My experience would lead me to believe that large doses are unnecessary, although I have carried the dose as high as one-third of a grain twice daily, with benefit. I am now in favour of employing smaller amounts, given more frequently. I have been using this remedy now for nearly ten years, and I am certainly show some valuable results. I am now preparing to tabulate the whole of my cases for publication in a collected form.—*British Medical Journal.*

MR. PORTER'S TECHNIQUE.—NOTES SUPPLEMENTARY TO THE 1898 ISSUE OF CARBOLIC ACID.—Mr. Porter eschewed to hospitalize a child, named Margaret Ring, for six months, who had been born in a hospital, about six weeks previously, for the treatment of a large naevus, situated on the lower part of the forehead, immediately above the nose. It was venous in character, and when first seen was circular in form and as large as half a crown, projecting forwards considerably. He resolved to attempt its solidification and cure by the injection of carbolic acid, and accordingly two minims of pure acid were introduced into the naevus by means of a hydrochloric syringe. Such inflammation as followed having been allowed to subside, the operation was repeated, seven times in all, an interval of several days being permitted between each repetition. No untoward consequences took place, the skin was not injured, and in a way, after the seventh operation, the mass had become solidified, and would in due time be absorbed.—*Medical Press and Circular.*

BROMIDE OF POTASH IN DENTITION.—Dr. Salvator Caro, in an interesting paper, read before the New York County Medical Society, on the use of this remedy in "summer complaints," remarks, in connexion with the numerous cases arising from dentition:—"In the most severe cases of colic, either with or without elevated gums or loose bowels, I have never failed to relieve the child by the local application of the bromide of potassium. Almost immediately after the first rubbing, the gums, when being tender, swollen, and red, assume their natural color, and in a short amount of time are felt. Saliva commences to dribble, and, as if by enchantment, agitation, irritable intestinal motion, vomiting, and looseness of the bowels, disappear." As the vomiting and diarrhoea in this case are not the consequence of gastro-enteritis, but an excitement of the stomach and the intestinal mucous membrane, owing to the inflamed condition of the gums, I suppose it will never be cured either by the solidification of the gums, or by the use of astringents or astringents; but, as I shall hereafter prove, simply by the use of the bromide of potassium.—*Ibid.*

OPERA PERFORMED BY PERMANENTLY OF POTASH.—The *Miraculous Mohala* was three cases of this troublesome infection, treated successfully by irrigations of permanganate of potash, the proportion being 5 parts to 100 of water, applied by means of an irrigating apparatus, furnished with a soft tube, the patient's head being held forward, and a copious washing of the fluid used over the mucous surfaces. After the first few days of this treatment, the enormous oedema speedily diminished, and a cure followed.—*Ibid.*

NITRATE OF LEAD IN SORE SUCKLING.—Dr. Wilson, Professor of Midwifery, Glasgow, recommends the above treatment. Ten grains of the medicine to be dissolved in one ounce of glycerine, or brandy, and the solution applied freely to the affected part after suckling. Care must be taken to wash the breast before the next application of the infant. Dr. Wilson states that, in his experience, the cases were few and rare in which this remedy failed, and he is satisfied of its superiority to any other agent hitherto employed.—*Glasgow Medical Journal.*

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE INFLUENCE OF SNAKE-
POISON ON THE BLOOD OF ANIMALS.

Present:—DRS. FAYRER, CUNNINGHAM, and MR. SCEVA.—
September 18th, 1869.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.—A dog was bitten in the fore-foot by a spectacled cobra. The snake struck the dog in the foot, and held on for a moment, at 3-27 p.m. The snake had been some weeks in captivity and had bitten before. 3-30.—The dog wildly excited, whining and licking the bitten part, which is bleeding and swollen; keeps turning round and round; sitting down and rising again in an excited manner; breathing very much accelerated. 3-40.—Licking the wound in sitting posture, and is trembling all over. 3-47.—Staggering. 3-50.—In convulsions. 3-55.—Dead—in 28 minutes.

Body examined at 4 p.m.—Lungs not congested; cavities of the heart filled with dark blood, which reddened and coagulated firmly, directly it was removed; part was already coagulated. At 4-15, no rigor mortis.

Mr. Sceva reports that a little stiffness of the limbs had taken place at ten minutes to five, or in about an hour after death.

EXPERIMENT No. 2.—A pariah dog was bitten by the daboia that had been in confinement since December, 1868, and during that period had never taken food or water. It had been some weeks unused, and when taken out of the box was very active and vicious; it seemed in good health and condition. Its jaws were closed on the dog's thigh at 3-27 p.m. At 3-28, the dog was partially paralysed; it made no noise, seemed to feel no pain; tried to move away a few paces with a staggering gait; the bitten limb almost useless; head drooping to the ground. 3-40.—Is unable to stand; limbs extended, perfectly paralysed; breathing deeply. 3-41.—Convulsive rigidity of the limbs.—3-44.—Dead—in 7 minutes.

The poison appears to have been very active in this instance, notwithstanding the condition of the snake. Paralysis of the nerve centres seemed to follow immediately after the bite; there was no sign of pain, and the dog was unconscious almost immediately.

Body examined at 3-55.—Lungs not congested. Carinae cavities filled with fluid blood. The blood was perfectly fluid, both in the heart and great vessels, and remained so; no attempt at coagulation occurred. The contrast with the blood of the dog killed by the cobra was very remarkable, it formed at once a firm clot. At 4-15 p.m., there was no rigor mortis.

Mr. Sceva reports that at ten minutes to five, or in rather more than an hour after death, no rigor mortis had taken place.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.—A fowl was bitten by the same daboia in the thigh at 3-49. When placed on the ground it ran a few steps, limping on the bitten leg. In 30 seconds it fell over in violent convulsions; in 20 seconds more—50 altogether—it was dead.

The blood of this fowl remained perfectly fluid after death.

EXPERIMENT No. 4.—A fowl was bitten by a small cobra (returiah keanteah), not fresh, in the thigh at 4-8 p.m. When placed on the ground it ran about, limping on the bitten leg. 4-9.—Feathers drooping; crouching; rises and tries to run; its wings droop to the ground. 4-10.—Head falling over, beak resting on the ground, comb and wattles becoming hard. 4-11.—Nearly paralysed, point of beak resting on the ground to support the head; cannot rise. 4-18.—Violently convulsed. This continued at intervals until the fowl died at 4-23. Dead—in

15 minutes. On opening the body, the blood was found to form a firm coagulum.

The object of these experiments was to compare again the effects of the daboia and cobra-poison on the blood. They clearly prove that after death from the viper's poison, however quickly it may be caused, the blood remains permanently fluid; whereas that the cobra-poison does not destroy its coagulability. The nature of the change thus wrought on the blood, I know not at present in its chemical bearings, but I believe it to be effected through the nerve centres affecting the vitality of the blood, not by a direct chemical action. There certainly are differences in the symptoms caused in the bitten animals, but they equally point to direct action on the nerve centres, as the cause of death. I have seen as much difference between the effects produced on the cobra by different daboias, by the same daboia on different animals of the same species, as in those that had been bitten by the cobra; and, on the other hand, similar differences in the bite of different cobras, or of the same cobra on different animals of the same species. In point of deadliness, they are, when fresh and vigorous, about equal; but I think that the first effects of the poison are most rapidly shewn in the daboia-bite.

Dr. Cunningham, of the Bengal Medical Service, who is on special duty investigating the subject of cholera, and who has a microscope with high powers, has very kindly undertaken to make a most careful microscopical examination of the blood of these animals; I append his report.

General Hospital; Friday, 24th September, 1869.

MY DEAR DR. FAYRER,—Along with this I send you the drawings of the dog's and fowl's blood, which I got last Saturday. The specimens were examined, and the drawings (of which these are copies) were made on Sunday morning. In no case were any bodies seen corresponding with Halford's cells.

The blood of the cobra bitten was, at the time of examination, in a firm dark clot.

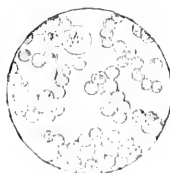
Beyond the ordinary constituents of the blood nothing could be seen, even under a power of nearly 1,100 diameters.

The blood of the dog bitten by the viper differed from the other. 1st.—In being entirely fluid. 2nd.—In being of a much lighter red colour. 3rd.—In containing numerous blood crystals. 4th.—In containing a good many large and active specimens of Bacteria.

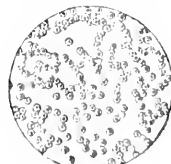
The fowl's blood was in both cases very much broken up and decomposed, few entire red corpuscles remaining. This state of decomposition was most marked in the blood of that which was bitten by the viper. In both specimens were a few of the circular cells, which occur in fowl's blood under ordinary circumstances.

With many thanks for the opportunity which you have given me of examining the blood.—I am, &c.,

D. DOUGLAS CUNNINGHAM.

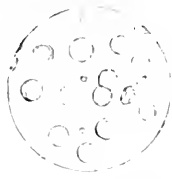


1 . 760.



2 . 314.

1: Cobra—Dog.



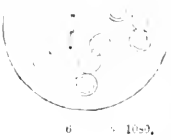
3. x 168.



4. x 330.



5. x 79.



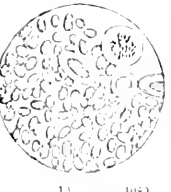
6. x 168.



7. x 330.



8. x 168.

9. x 79.
30. 168-182
20. " 1-10.10. x 168.
35. 168-182
30. " 1-10.

EXPERIMENT ON THE ACTION OF SNAKE POISON WHEN APPLIED TO THE SURFACE OF THE CONJUNCTIVA, AND ALSO ON THE INFLUENCE OF LAU DE LUCE IN THE TREATMENT OF SNAKE POISONING.

By G. C. Dr. FARRER and Mr. SERVA.—September 25th, 1869.

EXPERIMENT No. 1.—A dog was bitten in the thigh by a fresh cobra (kokorah) at 4.3 p.m.

At 4.4 p.m., thirty drops of camellia-oil, diluted with water, were poured down the dog's throat. The dog was much excited, and ran about limping on the bitten leg, which was already nearly paralysed. 4.5.—Another dose of thirty drops administered. Drags the partially paralysed leg as he walks. 4.8.—Another dose of thirty drops administered. 4.9.—The dog staggers as he walks; frothing at the mouth; looks much depressed. 4.12.—Lies down; retching. 4.13.—Convulsed; another dose administered. He lies paralysed, and cannot move; the heart still beats; no respiratory movements. 4.14.—Convulsive gasping. 4.15.—Dead—in 13 minutes. Two hours after death the rigor mortis was complete.

I fear the camellia-oil must be classed with other "antidotes."

EXPERIMENT No. 2.—Poison taken from a fresh cobra (kokorah), and a drop inserted between the lids of a fowl's left eye, at 4.20 p.m. The eye closed immediately.

4.25.—The eyelids already much swollen. 4.37.—Swollen so that the eye cannot be seen. 4.38.—No constitutional indication of the poison. Another drop inserted; conjunctiva deeply injected and chemosed. 5.1 m.—The fowl crouches, but is easily raised; it seems slightly affected by the poison. 5.10.—Crouching. 9 p.m.—Is drowsy; crouching, with wings drooping, and the point of the beak resting on the ground.

26th September, 7 a.m.—Lying on the ground with one wing extended; unable to walk. 1.30 p.m.—Lying down on one side; rousing; on being roused staggers and falls down. Has some slight movements; shivering; feathers ruffled. 6.9 p.m.—In the same state. 6.11 m.—Lying on one side, with the legs extended; frequent dilatation. 9 a.m.—Appears to be improving; able to crouch on its feet. 1 p.m.—Is much better; takes food and water. 2 p.m.—Still improving.

28th September, 6 a.m.—Sits naturally on its feet; eats well; the swelling of the eye much reduced; is able to stand, but cannot walk much; the legs appear less benumbed, or to have been paralytic; sleeps in an awkward manner. 7 p.m.—The bird seems to have recovered.

The fowl had a very narrow crop; it clearly proves that the poison acts by absorption through the conjunctiva.

EXPERIMENT No. 3.—A drop of fresh cobra-poison was put into a dog's eye at 1.27 p.m. The lachrymation was immediately profuse, and the eye with his fore-paw.

1.50.—Conjunctiva much injected; he is very uneasy, rubbing the eye with his foot. 1.38.—Lies curled up with his head between his fore-legs. Another drop inserted into the same eye. 1.40.—Appears distressed, but is not constitutionally affected. 1.41.—Lies flat. 5 p.m.—The dog is lethargic; lies with his head between the legs; eyelids and conjunctiva intensely swollen. 5.10.—No change. 9 p.m.—Eyelids closed, and greatly swollen.

26th September, 7 a.m.—Appears lively and free from pain; swelling of the eyelids much reduced.

27th, 9 a.m.—Eats well, and does not appear to suffer any pain. 9 p.m.—The same.

28th, 6 a.m.—Eyelids slightly swollen. 7 p.m.—Nearly recovered.

It is to be noted, that although most flagrant inflammation was excited in the eye, it had not, as in the ordinary form of conjunctivitis, a tendency to suppurate. The eye, although temporarily dumbed, the cornea being rendered opaque, was not destroyed, as is so frequently the case in the specific form of ophthalmia.

This experiment, like the last, proves that the poison is not only absorbed through the conjunctiva, but that it is a local irritant. The inflammation is intense, but it subsides without treatment; and although the cornea is rendered opaque with cloudy opacity, it would evidently soon recover. It seems quite clear from these experiments, that the notion that the poison is not operative, unless introduced directly into the blood, is not tenable, and that it is capable of endosmosis.

The following incident is interesting, as it shows how one may be mistaken about a snake-bite, although the evidence of its infliction seems complete:—

A short time ago, my friend Dr. — wrote to me, saying that a person had been to him, to inform him that he had been bitten by a cobra, and that he had prevented any evil effects by the timely use of measures known to himself. He offered to bring the sufferer, with the snake, for inspection. Accordingly my friend, accompanied by the patient, who brought

every cubic foot, no augmentation of its temperature, to give it less density, can be effected by respiration (since a temperature of 98° is as warm as breath when exhaled from the lungs), indeed, it is heavier when exhaled than it was before it was respired, as nearly all the oxygen contained in the air, when it was respired, has been consumed, and replaced by the heavier carbonic acid; nor can the moisture (steam), that has been imparted to it, add to its lightness, since the steam has the same temperature as the air of the barrack.

The best way to illustrate how the difference of density affects ventilation, is to consider two tubes of equal internal diameter, 40 feet high (the height of a barrack), placed side by side, and connected at the bottom by a tube having a stop-cock, or some other means of opening or closing the communication between the two tubes. If, when the communication between the two is closed, one tube is filled with water, and the other with oil, and the communication opened by turning the cock, the water from its greater specific gravity, or density, will cause the oil to overflow at the top of one tube while the water will sink in the other, till the weight of the contents of the two tubes are exactly even. The one which originally held water will still be only water, but will not be full, the other which was filled with oil will be full to the brim, but will have oil at top and water at bottom; and though one is full and the other not, the quantity of fluid in each tube will be exactly of equal weight, although one is not equal to the other by measure, owing to the difference in the specific gravity of water and oil. If water is gently poured into the tube that holds only water, the oil will continue to overflow its tube till it is all gone,—water has taken its place; thus water, from having a greater specific gravity than oil, is enabled to force the oil to give way before it. When the water has displaced the oil, *i. e.*, has reached the top of the tube that originally held the oil, no more can be poured in, since the density of the contents of both tubes are equal, as they both hold water; and being of equal height, one balances the other. The law thus demonstrated by liquids holds equally good with gases, and air that has a less density will give way before another that has a greater. If the tubes have an area of one square inch, and are 40 feet high as before, let one tube be filled with air of 98° and the other with air of 120°; the air of 98° will weigh 137 grains, while the air 120° will weigh only 132 grains; the air of 98° having 5 grains extra weight will force the air of 120° to give way before it.

We may therefore consider the air in a barrack and the atmosphere in the same way as the water and oil in the tubes; but as the density of the two entirely depends on their temperature, the air of the barrack must be the warmer of the two, if it is to represent the oil; when, as with the oil, from being the lightest, it is driven out of the ventilators in the roof, by the heavier air entering at the doors or other openings near the floor, the heavier air which has thus entered after being warmed by fires, respiration, or lamps, is in its turn driven out at the roof, and natural ventilation proceeds.

In Indian barracks during the hot weather months, the air of the barrack is colder than it is outside, therefore its air cannot be represented by the oil any more than the atmosphere can be by the water, for it is hotter, and therefore lighter than the air of the barrack. The air of the barrack, then, must represent the water, and the atmosphere the oil, consequently the colder and heavier air of the barrack seeks to flow out of all doors into the lighter atmosphere outside: as water would, if poured into a tube that was nearly touching the bottom of a glass filled with oil, the water, from its greater specific gravity, would instantly distribute itself over the bottom of the glass, in the same way; the air of the barrack, from having a greater density than the surrounding air, will seek to distribute itself, should any

openings be given for it to do so. The air that thus leaves the barrack by the doors is replaced by the hot air outside entering through the ventilators; having entered the barrack, part of its heat is absorbed by the walls around. As it is no longer subjected to the rays of the sun, nor to the reflected heat from the earth's surface, what it may thus lose in temperature is not to be regained, particularly if all doors are shut, (for it is universally allowed, they let the hot air in), and what cooled air there may be in the barrack is prevented from too easily flowing out. If the doors were so well made as to hermetically seal all exit, the only augmentation of temperature that would accrue would be more or less according to the area of the openings given for ventilation, for the larger they are, the greater is the surface of contact between the colder air of the barrack and hot air outside.

In an ordinary house, as any one who has spent a hot weather in the plains knows, all doors are shut during the hot months, from early morning till late in the evening, that the house may be kept cool; should a door be left open for any length of time, the effect is very soon felt, particularly where no thermantidote is in use. An open door "lets the heat in," this is caused by the colder air of the house seeking, on account of its greater density, compared to that of the air outside, to escape, which it does at the bottom of the door-way, while the hot air from outside enters at the top of the door-way to supply its place. The heat that enters, enters in this way, and not merely by the contact of the cold air of the house with the heated air outside.

It has been shewn how natural ventilation goes forward, when the barrack is warmer than the atmosphere; also what takes place when the atmosphere is the warmer.

It remains to shew what must result when the temperatures inside and outside are the same, at any degree of heat above 98°, for at that degree, heat from the body or breath cannot affect it; if the temperature is the same, the density must also be the same; so long as the air is pure, neither the outside nor the inside air has a wish to displace the other, all is balanced, and a perfect stagnation must ensue.

From the above, it will be understood how slowly ventilation must, in all cases, proceed, when the temperatures inside and out are nearly the same, for when they are equal, a perfect stagnation results; after the temperature of the outside exceeds that of the in, the openings afforded in the roof for egress become openings for ingress: if these openings are large, and the doors are left open, the barrack rapidly gets warm, and more nearly approaches the outside temperature, than it would have done had the doors been kept shut, and after a certain temperature has been reached, no further ventilation from having left the doors open is procured: unless it is by wind blowing through the building, which is quite apart from ventilation.

There is a certain amount of heat to be borne, and put up with by a resident in India, but there is no reason why in either a house or barrack it should amount to, (in the general way) and certainly should not exceed, blood-heat; after that every degree tells, and we all know how excessively languid we feel, if we have been obliged to breathe air of 100°.

Experience has taught those who have resided some time in the country to rigorously imprison the cool air of the early morning in their houses, by shutting all the doors, for it is universally allowed to be pleasanter to live in the same atmosphere during the whole day, than to allow more (than can be helped) of the hot, but uncontaminated air to enter; hence the necessity of the large and spacious rooms that are found in Indian houses. Were they not large and spacious, they would be positively unwholesome, for those who have fully experimented on ventilation have proved that each person in a room contaminates four cubic feet per minute. Notwithstanding all precautions taken to prevent hot air entering, it does so

more or less, according as to whether the capacity of the doors is so much, for, if large crevices are given, the cold air will go out through the lower ones, and is replaced by hot air, entering either through other crevices, or drawn up, or drawn down a chimney, whichever may be the easiest for it to gain the supply. Consequently in the afternoon, the air of the room shows a great increase in temperature than it did in the morning, which augmentation cannot be accounted for by the quantity of breath that has been exhaled in a room, that was 90, or so in the morning, and if it was done in the heat of the walls, it would have the same effect for earlier in the day. But a barracks, however large and spacious it may be, cannot be shut up as a prison, because for the numbers in it, to continue in such a large mass of air, as to put the cubic contents of the barracks out of all proportion to it, since 50 men will contaminate 12,000 cubic feet in one hour.

When the aerial atmosphere has less density than the air of the barracks, it has been shown that there is a tendency for the hot air to enter more or less quickly, according to the size of the crevices, and whether the doors are open or shut. If the crevices would not allow that barracks get warm, and that the men do not get warm, when they have to breathe an atmosphere that exceeds blood-heat, and that doing so makes them feel tired, and reduces their stamina, for a man breathes certainly more quickly, and at each respiration takes in exactly the same number of cubic inches, whether he is breathing an air of 32 or 112 degrees in the latter case he only gets 7/10 of the quantity of oxygen (on which life depends) compared to what he gets when he is breathing air of 32, owing to the air having increased its bulk from the heat. The system, therefore, will save great energy in a cold climate to what it does in a tropical one, and more nourishment is required during the cold season than the appetite is good, but it gradually diminishes as the weather gets warmer. In barracks having 300 square feet of opening in the roof, for every 100 feet of their length, it is not surprising that they get warm, and are for many days during the months of May, June, and July at a temperature above 80, for the doors are often left open by the men in hopes of getting a breeze.

Natural ventilation will always go on, whenever the density of the air within is either more or less than the air without. Openings can be given so as to facilitate or retard the ingress and the egress, but Nature is always ready to equalise the temperature inside out. On the one hand, warm air leaves the building and is cold air from outside enters, which if left to its own devices, that is not obstructed in its ingress or egress, now warmed by the day, would in time so cool the walls, that the temperature inside and out will become equal, on the other hand, cold air leaves the building, that the hot air from outside may enter, which if left to its own devices, will in time so warm the walls, that the temperature inside and out equal. It is not surprising, that the hot air chooses a different door to enter by, than the cold air, by the cold air entrance. If the air of a room is warmer to be kept cooler than the outside temperature, it is necessary to retard the ingress of hot air as much as possible, and cold air must be kept out as copiously as cold air can be kept out in. Can one hot air not only the heat unpleasant to the men at the time, but that it heats the walls, which heat will be kept away by the hot air may not enter that may afterwards be in the rack, and the heat added by the walls during the day may be given off to the colder air of the night. If the heat in the walls being heated in more even temperature by the day, and by even moderate out, then it emits more nearly equal quantities of heat during a great part of the day, consequently there is no ventilation.

(To be continued.)

MEMORANDUM ON THE EFFECTS OF FAMINE IN RAJASTHANA.

By W. J. MOORE, F.R.C.P.

Surgeon, Rajpootana Medical Agency.

"Famine, pestilence, and famine" being so intimately associated, I have thought the present period of scarcity would not be permitted to pass, without some attempt to note the effects of each, not of diseases, regarded simply as diseases, among the people of this part of India. I propose, first, comparing the effects of the association between want and disease, in a general way, and secondly to mention any special maladies which may have arisen, attributable to peculiarities of the general local circumstances. With this view, in order to supplement my individual observation, I address all medical officers in Rajpootana, (likely from their position to have been brought into contact with the unfortunate sufferers from famine) soliciting information on the subject. I have also over the reports forwarded to me, as Superintendent of a General Dispensary in Rajpootana, and the more intelligent native doctors employed in these institutions, were again asked with special questions, not of a trustworthy results, arising from deficiency of special knowledge on their part, have been reduced to a minimum.

The results of many countries demonstrate how closely plague, pestilence, and famine, have ever been allied. The accounts extant of the epidemics of the middle ages, show it was so often the case, and without looking further than Ireland, we find, during even the present century, more than one melancholy illustration of the fact. The principal disease arising in Ireland, as the effects of famine, was a deadly contagion fever, resembling typhus, which, once originated, was conveyed into other countries, even to America, at attacking numbers, although unpropagated by the producing cause—want.

Similarly there are abundant records of such disease prevailing in various parts of the continent of Europe, especially in Germany during seasons of scarcity, and popularly known in the country last mentioned under the significant name of "hunger pest." These, who escaped this most fatal form of fever became the victims of other maladies, such as scurvy, purpura, and a masked tubercle condition terminating in atrophy or wasting.

Another recent example of the consequence of deficient food was the condition of the British troops in the Crimea in 1854, who, "with just sufficient food for a time of repose, and ordinary exertion, were called upon to make great muscular exertion, and to sustain the warmth of the system in the midst of severe cold."

The momentary effects of starvation as noticed in other countries are, according to the best authorities as under. Hunger and pain at the pit of the stomach relieved by pressure. The hunger, however, soon ceases, and is succeeded by a feeling of exhaustion and indolence that is fasting, and even heaving of food. At the same time there is a weakened condition of mental and moral feelings, and diminution of general physical sensibility to pain. There is also, drowsiness, listlessness, inability to think, and incontinence, or permanent symptoms. The person affected is also liable to giddiness, nausea, or vomit, with oftentimes temporary optic derangement, or amaurosis, and convulsions, terminating in lethargy and coma. The skin often exhibits a peculiar offensive odor, and is covered with a thick, colored excretion.

The effects of a more gradual emaciation of food somewhat differ. In such cases gradual emaciation is first noticed, with tenderness of circulation, tendency to cold particularly about the extremities, with swelling of feet and ankles, the individual even, although not feeling the sensation of anorexia, is languid, desponding, incapable of exertion, and frequently very sleepy, the countenance being "fallow and rejected." It is those reduced to this condition, who in Europe became the

subjects of famine or relapsing fever, of scurvy, or purpura, or of the marked minor febrile disorder previously referred to.

But the symptoms of want of sufficient food in India, as I have noted them, differ something from what has been observed as detailed above. There is the same emaciation, the same dejected expression of countenance, thin and sharp as though the skin were drawn tightly over projecting features, the same giddiness and weakness and tendency to sleep, the same apathy and unwillingness for exertion. But in addition there has been frequently observed sickness, vomiting, cholera, diarrhoea, ophthalmia, sun-stroke, in the earlier stages, with malarious fever, diarrhoea, and dysentery at a later period. *Gujri*, or scall head, is also noticed as more than ordinarily prevalent by Dr. Compagnie, at Beaur, and premature labour by Dr. Murray, Ajmere. In this locality, ophthalmia has been more than usually active. In no account of the effects of famine in Europe to which I have had access are these disorders noticed as prominent characteristics. On the other hand, there has been a total absence of, 1st, famine or relapsing fever, and, 2ndly, of the dark fetid cutaneous secretion noticed in Ireland and Germany, while scorbutic affections have not been more than usually prevalent in most localities.

The prominent occurrence of weakness, vomiting, and diarrhoea among the Indian famine-stricken, must in a great measure be due to the use of various materials unsuitable for food, either alone or mixed with a variable proportion of grain. On the very first pressure of scarcity, this time last year, I received information from several sources of this result. The aphthous condition of mouth so often noticed, may also be attributed to a similar cause, the whole again being manifestation of a bad form of dyspepsia.

The chief jungle products used as food during the present famine in Marwar (the same being the case throughout Rajpootana generally), have been thus denominated by Dr. King, formerly in medical charge of the Joudpoor Agency: 1, *mothec*, the root of *hymenoclethe grisea*, a species of rush; 2, *kepra*, the bark of the *aucacia leucophleca*; 3, *brout* or *haravout*, the seed of the *ocherantia aspera*; 4, *gokum kante*, the capsules of the *tribulus lanuginosus*; 5, *malvecha*, the seed of a grass; 6, *tilla*, the refuse of the *sesamum orientale*, remaining after the oil has been expressed; 7, seeds of various eucubitaceous plants.

How diarrhoea is originated even among those not obliged to make use of the above material is well described by Dr. Miller, Nusseerabad: "the coolies, and others employed on Government famine works, who have had at least enough to eat, were in many places decimated by diarrhoea and cholera, though more by the former. I noticed that they ate nothing in the morning, and that at twelve o'clock they made the grain into a kind of loaf, half roasted rather than baked, washing it down with enormous quantities of water of any description. The inevitable consequence was, they were scourged by diarrhoea of a severe and intractable character, which carried off numbers."

The occurrence of sun-stroke among the Indian famine-stricken, must of course be attributable partly to climate, and tropical heat, acting on weakly debilitated systems.

Aquish or malarious fevers must also be regarded as entirely due to climate. It may be assumed that two-thirds of the adult population of India are more or less impregnated by the malarial poison, which dormant in the system, is raised into activity by all causes tending to depress the physical or vital powers, as want and fatigue. Similarly, with regard to dysentery, the action of a tropical climate being to congest the abdominal viscera, explains the tendency of bowel complaints to terminate in dysentery, in these debilitated subjects.

Cholera has prevailed universally, and would appear to have constituted the chief cause of mortality. But there is no doubt, that a very large number of the cases returned as such were not true cholera. The total death-rate, to treated is too small

for Asiatic cholera. Cases under my care have recovered with stimulants and meat broth, amendment dating from the first mouthful of the latter. Yet these people presented symptoms, generally supposed to be distinctive of cholera, namely the white evacuations, and suppressed urine. Judging from the prevalence of pseudo cholera, during the past few months, it would seem, that among natives of India, want is capable of exciting a class of symptoms, very similar to true cholera; or in other words, the vital depression attendant on insufficient and improper food, excites a similar train of symptoms, to those following the vital depression consequent on the cholera poison. (Hence the importance of regime and diet during cholera seasons.) With respect to cholera, Surgeon Martin, Deesa, states: "I believe that all the cases I have seen have not been true cholera;" and although vomiting, diarrhoea, and collapse, &c., were present, both Drs. Martin and Galloway, attribute the symptoms to improper food.

Dr. Muller, Nusseerabad, also states, he has no doubt whatever, that the attack of epidemic cholera in May, June, and July, was in a great measure due to the famine, and consequent under-fed condition of the poorer population. "For it was very remarkable, that the cases were entirely confined to the very poorest class, and that during two months of the epidemic, not a single native of the better class was ever attacked."

The apathy and disinclination to exertion, so characteristic of starvation, has been well exemplified in the difficulty experienced in various localities, in inducing the people to work even for food. This would appear more marked among natives than among Europeans.

Scurvy and purpura, so frequently found accompanying want in Europe, do not seem to have been generally noticed. And this may probably be accounted for, by the vegetable and sub-acid nature of the supplementary food used. Dr. Miller, Nusseerabad, remarks, however, on the appearance of scurvy among the men of the 11th Bombay N.I. A class obtaining sufficient, but probably coarser and more indifferently grain than usual, but not obliged to add to the bulk consumed by the addition of the barks and roots named.

Accumulated experience is against the existence of *famine* or *relapsing fever*. Dr. Compagnie, Beaur, states, "I have seen no famine fever whatever." Dr. Harvey, Burtpoor, writes "no case of relapsing fever has come under my notice." Dr. Martin, Deesa, "the type of fever has always been typhoid never relapsing. I looked out especially for this." Dr. Galloway of Odepoor, "no cases of relapsing or famine fever have come under my own observation, or the observation of the native doctors." Dr. Edlowes, Erimpoorah, "I have not seen any famine (relapsing fever) here at all." Dr. Newman, Joudpoor, "I have heard of no disease approaching in its type to famine or relapsing fever." Dr. Miller, Nusseerabad, "I have not met with any case of famine or relapsing fever." The replies of the native doctors are also to the same effect. Lastly, I have not myself seen any instance of the disease.

The above evidence regarding famine or relapsing fever appears to me to be of great importance. It corroborates the assertion of the greatest living authority on fevers, (Murchison), that famine or relapsing fever does not occur in India. It also agrees with the experience of former famines in this country, after which this most deadly form of fever has never been known to prevail. It also tends considerably towards negating the opinions held by so many that the contagious fever afflicting the prisoners of the North-West and Punjab from 1860 to 1867, was simply famine fever due to defective diet. Lastly, it leaves a somewhat consolatory reflection that in a country like India, where so many fatal epidemics are experienced, there is at least one of the most fatal, not yet visiting the land. A malady

of cholera was written—“the causes and the violence of its action, for when it overtook me, it struck me with a severity of its profligate and fierce, which it attacked me out of time, p. 104.”

Regarding the subject from a more purely sanitary point of view, the absence of typhus in a malarious fever, is evidence that malarial miasmata, though they may be necessary to the development of the disease, do not certainly the amount of distress during the present's array, for in many places have been sufficient to stanch malarial fever, if the malarial is caused by this condition alone. But no fatal case has occurred. Hence the conclusion, that some other agent is necessary to its production. Being in receipt, in the circumstances of the two countries, of fresh, or rather European, and I think it would appear that the malarial is an essential to the existence of malarial fever.

The former the effect of the climate induces the poor to congregate in ill-ventilated dwellings. In India the inhabitants live in the open air, the majority of these suffering from malarial miasmata, and wandering off to other localities where they live pretty much *à la vie*. This view of the question should, however, result in greater caution as regards overcrowding in poor houses, and in the supervision of British officers, open sheds being preferred to closed buildings. The fact of there being no evidence of the occurrence of true malarial fever in India, cannot be accepted as a guarantee that such malarial fever is the original cause. It is but a few years since the existence of both typhoid and typhus fevers was denied in India. Yet, now, the former is more the *typhoid*, and typhus has been reported by at least three observers.

Under such circumstances, I venture to remark, that the propriety, on sanitary grounds, of assembling large masses of people at Agra during the ensuing cold season is questionable. Many would travel long distances, would commence the journey in a condition below par, would probably experience difficulty *en route* in obtaining supplies, would as all who know what native camps are will readily admit, be exposed to crowding in small tents during the coldest period of the year, and lastly must be very likely to carry with them the germ of the cholera poison, now so extensively active throughout Rajputana. Under such conditions, the outbreak of this contagious malarial fever might terribly supplement the already heavy mortality of the present distressful year. It is not the wild-herd British soldiers or sepays on the chiefs and their immediate retainers, who would in the last instance, at least suffer, but it can't be imagined that two-thirds of the following of every native chief would be proof against the invasion of cholera.

The following table, being the result of a comparison of the dispensary returns in Rajputana for the months of May, June and July, 1858 and 1859, shows a pre-eminence of certain malarial fevers during 1859, and thus illustrates the foregoing observations. In estimating the value of the table it must be recollected that the very poorest villages, the greatest sufferers from famine, do not report their dispensary cases.

Showing the rate per cent. of total treated in the Rajputana dispensaries during the months of May, June and July, for the years 1858 and 1859.

| YEARS. | RATES PER CENT. OF TOTAL TREATED. | | | | | | SUMMER. |
|--------|-----------------------------------|--------------|--------------|----------|----------|------------------|---------|
| | Fever. | Of malarial. | Paratyphoid. | Typhoid. | Cholera. | Malaria, &c. &c. | |
| 1858 | 9.4 | 6.4 | 6.6 | 4.6 | — | 5 | |
| 1859 | 12.5 | 7.4 | 8.4 | 6.6 | 9.9 | 7.9 | 3 |

The fact, therefore, of the disease named (shown to be so intimately connected with famine), having acquired a markedly greater intensity among the slightly better classes, inhabitants of towns, is not a considerable significance, as tending to evince the existence of wide-spread distress. Did the figures refer to the very indigent classes, such as inhabit the poor houses, the rates would be much greater. The dispensary reports from Buzpur show the least distress, those from Karasol, and Marwar, the greatest.

Before concluding, I beg to refer to the various remarks in my correspondence, evidencing how much has been done towards the prevention of distress, which either spontaneously appear worthy of notice. Thus Dr. Murray, Ajmer, writes:—“the poor houses of Ajmer, have received from death a great number of poor people from the surrounding Native States, many of whom have been admitted suffering from all the symptoms of starvation.” Dr. Compagnon, Bhoir, “I think the people in the poor houses have had a remarkable immunity from malarial and kind, which certainly would not have been the case had they not been taken care of. Dr. Harvey, Buzpur, “the cases of actual death from starvation has been observed. Extensive relief works have given employment to alcoholised paupers, and as above-mentioned, women and children have been relieved and supplied with food at the hospital.” Dr. Galloway, Okhayer, “the scarcity here has been very great, but early steps were taken by the authorities, for the supply of food to the famine-stricken. At present about 10,000 people are fed daily at the expense of the Durbar.” Thus, although a poor diet, has no doubt been the means of saving many lives, and preventing the development of such diseases as relapsing or famine fever.” Dr. Mullens, Kharwarah, “I intended to say the famine has founded this part of the world so highly, that I have nothing more to communicate to you. When it was known that there would be scarcity of food, Col. Mackenzie brought in the districts a large supply of grain, and this was railed at a fair price to the men. The men are mainly recruited from ‘pals,’ within easy reach of the station, and as during the major part of the time, the quantity they were allowed to purchase was unrestricted, they were able to partly supply their families, as well as feed themselves.” Several of the native doctors also remark on the good effected by the system of relief organized in the respective Native States.

NOTE ON CHOLERA.

By SURGEON A. G. YOUNG, *6th Royal Rifles.*

IS the *Medical Times and Gazette* of 22nd August, 1860, Dr. Haughton remarks—“our hopes for the future, as to the treatment of cholera, lie, as I believe, in the direction of supplying to the body directly its lost animal heat.”

That this important indication can be fulfilled, more rapidly and successfully, by the hypodermic syringe and a few drops of liquor ammonia, than by the ordinary methods in use, has now, I think, been successfully proved. Since you were good enough to publish the first case in which I tried the hypodermic injection of ammonia, I have not only succeeded with it in another case, but I have also received most satisfactory testimony of its efficacy, on a more extended scale, from Bengal.

Dr. Wright, of the 33rd Highlanders, writes from Jhansi, “since my second letter to you, I have been able, fully and satisfactorily, to demonstrate the curability of cholera by the hypodermic injection of ammonia.” He then details three cases in which “the collapse in each was at a maximum, the suppression of urine complete, rice water evacuations and vomiting, cramps, &c. all present. Yet the ammonia injection has cured them all, and the good results followed so quickly

after the injections, that no doubt whatever can be entertained but that the syringe worked the cure. All of them are now of the hospital books for cholera, quite convalescent."

My own observations, in the first case I treated on this plan, regarding the rapidity of action of the ammonia used hypodermically, entirely coincide with Dr. Wright's experience given above. But in the only other case in which I have had an opportunity of using it, the rapid improvement in the patient's condition was not so apparent. Still, even in this second case, I did not use the injection a second time, one was sufficient, and shortly after it, gradual and steadily progressive improvement set in. In the first of the three cases given by Dr. Christion in your October number, the general phenomena, after the injection, were somewhat similar to those observed in my second case.

My limited experience does not warrant me in attributing curative powers entirely to the ammonia, indeed, I have hitherto deprecated its being termed a "cure" for cholera. It undoubtedly gives a very powerful impetus to the *vis vite* when at its lowest ebb, and thus affords invaluable time for the continued employment of other remedies, which, had no such stimulus been administered, would have proved utterly useless. Dr. Wright's more extended observations have led him to a more definite conclusion which, I sincerely hope, will stand the test of experience; and I am greatly indebted to him for so kindly allowing me to quote his success in all the cases in which he has followed this plan of treatment.

The administration of diffusible stimulants, broths, and arrow-root jelly in small quantities, and the use of external stimulating applications ought, in all cases, to be continued until reaction is fairly established. Then, as Dr. Wright remarks, "stop stimulants, and otherwise counteract the effects that might ensue."

There can be no doubt of the greatly increased power of remedies when used hypodermically; and should ammonia prove to be only a partial success in the treatment of cholera, I shall still credit the great mystery of medicine with an efficient substitute that will find a suitable vehicle in the hypodermic syringe.

Bolary, 26th October, 1869.

SMALL-POX AND VACCINATION IN BHURTPPOOR.

By ROBERT HARVEY, M. B., &c.,

Surgeon to the British Residency at the Medical Agency.

I PROPOSE to describe briefly the late epidemic of small-pox in Bhurtpoor, in its relation to the progress of vaccination in the city, and as bearing on some of the chief points concerning small-pox and vaccination in India generally. The observations and conclusions which follow are based on analyses of eight hundred cases of small-pox seen and noted by myself during last cold season; and on the daily returns of cases and deaths made to the City Magistrate. The latter returns were exceptionally accurate and trustworthy. They were noted over and over again in all manner of ways, while the epidemic lasted, and an additional proof of their accuracy is found in the fact that the results deduced from them tally in a great degree with those derived from my own figures. These, so far as they go, may be relied upon. It was of course impossible to watch the course of the disease in all cases, and, indeed, the majority were seen only once or twice, while a few of exceptional interest, and the post-vaccinal series were noted throughout. The original object of the investigation was to test previous vaccine work, and the great point being to see as many cases as possible, it was difficult to pay special visits to ordinary cases as the new ones were so numerous. On this account my notes are somewhat incom-

plete on several interesting points, but so far as vaccination is concerned, they give full and abundant information. All the cases, except seven (entered because of their relation to others), were seen by myself. Nothing but the final result has been recorded at second hand, and I have preferred leaving some points unnoted to subjecting my conclusions to the suspicion of being based on uncertain data. I am solely responsible for the figures, and take this opportunity of saying that if on some points my conclusions—as derived from these figures—differ from those ordinarily received, it is on a *posteriori* grounds, the questions having been forced upon me by the figures, which were not in the first instance collected with any reference to them. As I said before, it was to test the goodness or otherwise of the Bhurtpoor vaccinations that the observations were made, and they were simply recorded from day to day with no view to their future use as bearing on controverted questions. The conclusions have been gradually formed in analysing the returns long after small-pox had ceased, and I had no pre-conceived opinions to support. Besides a sketch of the progress of the epidemic, the returns give room for an enquiry into the value of vaccination in India; the alleged deterioration of the protective power of vaccination from change of climate; and the supposed greater prevalence, severity, and fatality of small-pox in hot countries, and among the dark-skinned races. On each of these points some light will be thrown, which, it is hoped, may help to reconcile conflicting statements and beliefs. As preliminary to these, however, and as tending to the better appreciation of results, I shall give a brief outline of the progress of vaccination in Bhurtpoor, from its first introduction, up to the time of the recent outbreak.

Seventeen years ago the Maharaja was vaccinated with a few other children, by the present head of the Medical Department, Dr. Murray, then Civil Surgeon of Agra; and a few cases were afterwards operated on each year; but no record has been kept of these, nor were any regular vaccinators employed, and the little work which was done can have had no effect in bringing the prophylactic to the notice of the public. So far as can be discovered, no systematic attempt to introduce it appears to have been made till the season of 1861-62. Up to that time the Agency Surgeon's operations seem to have been limited to isolated cases, vaccine work forming no part of his duty, and the operations were probably too few to make any appreciable difference in the vast number of unprotected persons. The late Dr. Stewart was the first to endeavour to remedy this unsatisfactory state of things, but there was a good deal of opposition; his cases were not numerous, and when Dr. Mott was appointed to succeed him in 1861, it may fairly be said that vaccination was only beginning, and that, practically, its introduction dates from that time. Dr. Mott took up the subject with energy, taught the Native Doctors and Compounders attached to the different dispensaries, and made them expert operators under his own supervision, and by securing the services of two good vaccinators from Agra, and instituting a series of rewards for good work, succeeded in infusing a measure of his own zeal into his subordinates. His exertions met with success from the first, large numbers of cases being operated on each year, and the opposition being less than appears to be generally the case. This may be ascribed in part to the moral effect of the Maharaja's having been vaccinated in infancy, and in part to the comparative freedom from prejudice which characterises the Jâts. There was much apathy, and little appreciation of the value of the boon at first, with occasional active resistance to the vaccinators; but year by year it became easier to get cases, active opposition diminished into apathy, and apathy to some extent changed into appreciation.

It will be seen that the system which Dr. Mott introduced is in the main the old dispensary system of vaccination, and it has many of the disadvantages of that system. In an unhealthy season, for instance, the Native Doctors and Compounders being

otherwise fully occupied, vaccination suffers, and at all times it is impossible for them to vaccinate villages at any distance from their dispensaries, such villages having to be left to a chance visit from a respectable vaccinator, whose work cannot be properly overlooked. The chief recommendation of the plan is to be pressed, no special vaccine establishment being necessary. The circumstances in which the agency surgeon is placed here, the objection which has been fatal to the dispensary systems formerly practised under the nominal superintendence of civil surgeons in British territory. Their efficient supervision was almost impossible, the civil surgeon as a rule being tied to the station, and unable to visit his district more than two or three times a year. In Bhurtpoor, on the other hand, the medical officer is constantly in camp during the cold season, and visiting the different centres frequently, is able, to a considerable extent, though by no means perfectly, to superintend the work.

In spite of this imperfect agency great progress was made during five seasons under Dr. Mott's care, and when he left in 1866, all preliminary difficulties had been to a great extent overcome, and it remained only to push on the operations, and increase, if possible, the percentage of success. This in 1865-6 had been only 71.80, a considerable decrease on previous seasons, and it seemed evident that, unless it could be raised, great disaster must be thrown on vaccination on the next outbreak of small-pox in the people, as a rule, being little able to distinguish between successful and unsuccessful cases. With this view, and in order to assimilate the Bhurtpoor system to the more perfect one obtaining in our own provinces, a native superintendent of vaccination was engaged to assist in the inspection and ventilation of the work, and each season as many men as could be spared were temporarily withdrawn from all other duty and put under his orders, the Native Doctors continuing to vaccinate in the immediate neighbourhood of their dispensaries. In this way great improvement was hoped for, without trespassing too far on the liberality of a State which had already done so much for its sick poor. The following medical institutions are kept up by the Durbar, which last year spent nearly fourteen thousand rupees on "Medical services"—

A general hospital, with a daily average this year of 92 in-patients.

A jail hospital.

A sudden dispensary in the city of Bhurtpoor.

New branch dispensaries.

The use of crusts has been gradually abolished, fresh lymph being substituted. Each vaccine centre has been frequently visited, and in distributing the rewards, regard has been had solely to the character of the work produced for inspection, numbers being looked upon as subsidiary to success. Attempts have also been made to impress upon the people the objects and advantages of vaccination. The result of these measures has been a steady increase in the percentage of successful cases, 83.11 in 1865-66, 80.04 in 1867-68, and 85.53 during last season. While I believe these figures to be fairly correct I will not vouch for them, but there can be no doubt that each year has seen a considerable improvement on its predecessor, and it is gradually happening to me that I will within a given day's space—naming thirty, forty, or even fifty cases—without meeting with a single child in whom the virus had failed to take. The increased success is due to many concurrent causes, the chief of which is undoubtedly the use of fresh lymph, but practical experience in the operations, more careful selection of cases, and the abandonment in great measure by parents of a practice of washing off the virus, or opening and applying drugs to the vesicles, have all helped to swell the return of successful cases. As an illustration of the progress that has been made, I may mention that when small-pox was last prevalent in 1864-65, Dr. Mott reported (annual report 1864-65), that the epidemic caused greater deaths than ever concerning the

utility of vaccination," whereas during the recent outbreak, the vaccinators were eagerly sought after by the more than 12 out of the population, and I personally vaccinated nearly two hundred and fifty children at the special request of their parents, and might have done many more had I always had fresh lymph to me.

It is much to be regretted that no exact estimate can be formed of the number of persons protected by vaccination in the city of Bhurtpoor at the beginning of the recent epidemic. Yet as the whole significance of the succeeding years depends on the relative proportion of protected to unprotected persons, it is necessary to have some idea of what that proportion was. The vaccination returns cannot be so valuable, as they do not discriminate satisfactorily between cases in the city itself, and those in the villages round, and even if they did, they are not such evidence as would command respect. The following table gives the results of the examination of nearly four hundred children early in the epidemic. It would have been more conclusive had the numbers been greater, but existing small-pox and vaccination complicated further enquiries, in an untoward source of fallacy—

| Children under eight years of age, | Number examined, | Percentage. |
|------------------------------------|------------------|-------------|
| Born marks of previous small-pox | 134 | 34.44 |
| Had vaccine inoculations | 152 | 39.07 |
| Unprotected | 163 | 26.49 |
| Total | 350 | 100.00 |

This gives 50.61 children protected by vaccination to 49.39 not so protected, in every hundred who had not gone through small-pox, or as nearly as possible three to two. In my last annual report I stated that I thought this proportion too high, and that unprotected were probably as numerous as vaccinated children, but I now believe that the percentage indicated was not excessive. The numbers are small it is true, and, taken by themselves, would be of little value one way or other, but they are more than borne out by others, as will appear when we come to enquire into the number of cases of small-pox, and their proportion to population at different ages. This will, however, more properly fall to be discussed in connection with the influence of vaccination on the epidemic, when I hope to be able to show, not only that the work done in past years has been good, but that vaccination has been sufficiently accepted by the people to have had a very marked effect in diminishing the number of cases and deaths which, without vaccination, were to have been expected.

(To be continued.)

HINTS IN PRACTICE.

By DR. BAUDEV.

Surgeon, Chhatta Native Hospital.

TITAN'S REMEDY has long been called "that it was a trouble," The master observer that perfection is made up of troubles, but perfection is trouble.

(Continued from page 184.)

VII.—REGARDING SOME ORDINARY APPLICATIONS USED IN SURGERY.

(a).—Tincture of iodine, B. P., 1867. Few are the external applications which surpass this as an aid in minor surgery, it is largely used in this hospital, where *arsen* of almost every descriptive nerve benefit from its employment, which may be ascribed to the frequency of the scrophulous diathesis, with or without syphilitic complications, either inherited or contracted, so often met with among the lower orders of natives.

Insensum, it is almost indispensable, either injected or applied after they have been laid open, and as a *prophylactic* against the formation of sinuses, which so frequently follow the opening of abscesses in movable parts, such as the face, fingers, hand, and the extensor, I know of no better.

(b).—Tincture of perchloride of iron, B. P., 1867. For the cure of *navi* or small *erectile tumors*, I have found nothing answer so well as the subcutaneous injection of the tincture, which can be repeated, at intervals, whether the tumor be of an arterial, venous or mixed character; the remedy, however, seems best suited to the former.

As an application in erysipelas, traumatic or idiopathic, I believe the tincture to be superior occasionally to the solution of nitrate of silver, and it has this advantage that it may be oftener repeated, and that by the patients' attendants. It also often arrests that erythematous condition of the skin, so common during the progress of carbuncles, or after cutting operations, and which, if left unchecked, not unusually terminates in erysipelas.

(c).—Warm dressing is made by mixing and slightly heating—resin ointment 4oz., cocunut oil 2oz., oil of turpentine 1oz., in this are soaked pieces of gauze cloth, which can be applied with benefit to almost any form of sore or wound requiring a slight local stimulant and occlusion from the air, and being very cheap, is admirably suited for hospital use.

(d).—Carbolic acid. Besides the ordinary purposes to which this acid is daily being put in surgery, combined with water, oil, putty, &c., its employment in an *unmixed form* as a radical remedy in maladies where the use of the knife, scissors or ligature appears contra-indicated, seems well worthy of trial.

I have tried it in a few cases of *internal piles*, some of them in clusters, and with most pleasing results, the patients having been relieved of their complaint in a short time, and certainly not with more pain than if nitric acid had been used, and with no abrasion of the mucous membrane, which after a time appeared healed, and in a condition most to be desired. Calvert's acid was the preparation applied in these cases.

In epithelioma of the tongue, it has seemed to me to answer better than any other local application that I have tried.

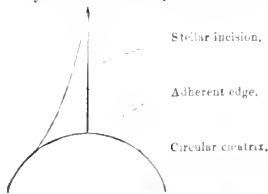
VIII.—ON THE REMOVAL OF DEEPLY AND FIRMLY IMPACTED FOREIGN BODIES.

It sometimes happens that having made a free incision over the place where the object lies, it can neither be seen or dislodged; if then a *stream of water* be poured over the part from some height, for a short time, it will probably be found to wash out the body, or if it fail to do so, it may loosen it, and by blanching the parts bring it better into view, and thus allow of its being extracted.

IX.—ON THE USE OF STELLAR INCISIONS IN CERTAIN OPERATIONS FOLLOWED BY A CIRCULAR CICATRIX.

Nothing is more annoying to a patient who has had hypertrophied skin removed from the penis, either alone or in conjunction with a scrotal tumor, than to find on recovery that the usual circular cicatrix has contracted so much, as to constrict the organ to that degree, as to render it incapable of being distended, and in the course of time, from want of sufficient nutrition, it shrivels into a button-like body. This inconvenience may be obviated by making, at the time of the operation, one or two straight cuts upward, of at least two inches in length, running from the circular incision, and of the same depth, over the healthy integument of the pubic region.

By this contrivance, much the same result is gained, as the tailor obtains, by letting in a gusset, for the incision gapes, and its edges eventually adhere at a little distance from the original stellar line of incision; and thus the construction of a circular cicatrix is, as it were, eased off.



DR. J. W. OGLE, of St. George's hospital, states that the hydrate of chloral has proved a most useful and satisfactory hypnotic in doses varying from 5 to 10 grains, and no unpleasant results appear to follow its use. In an attack of delirium tremens a 20 grain dose procured sleep.

CASES FROM PRACTICE.

HEPATIC ABSCESS.

By J. FAYRE, M.D., C.S.I.

AN English officer, aged 29, of tall, slight figure, and apparently of delicate constitution, came under my care on the 4th September, 1869. He had just arrived from a station in Oude, where he had suffered from the disease for which he was leaving the country. He had been in India about three years, and had had good health previous to the present attack, which commenced in July last. The following are his own brief notes of his case before he reached Calcutta:—

13th July, 1869.—Severe headache in the morning and during the night, was exposed to the sun all afternoon; staid in the house next day and took aperient medicine. 15th to 22nd July.—At duty, but not feeling well. 21st.—Whilst riding home in the morning, got what appeared to be a stitch in the side. 22nd.—Under medical treatment; kept at home and took aperient medicine. 24th.—Pain much increased; eight leeches were applied to the side; took aperient medicine; during the evening had a shivering fit. 27th.—No better; twelve more leeches to the side. Between the 3rd and 15th August had three blisters over the liver; pain inside continued much the same. About the 18th August the original pain gave place to a diffused pain throughout the right side; counter-irritants were applied. 25th.—Observed a slight swelling about four inches from the spine and just below the ribs. 28th.—It was pronounced to be an abscess, and I was sent to Calcutta to appear before medical board. During this time the bowels never moved without medicine. 1st September.—Started for Calcutta, bore the journey very well.

He arrived in Calcutta on the 4th September, and I saw him that morning. He looked weak, anæmic and emaciated, with a sallow tinge of the skin, and the general aspect of a man suffering from liver abscess. On examination I found that the liver was enlarged downwards, posteriorly, and that just below the last rib in the right lumbar region, about four inches from the spine, there was a prominent fluctuating swelling, which was evidently a liver abscess pointing posteriorly, and rather low down. He had no fever; pulse 100; skin cool and moist; no great pain; little sense of fulness and uneasiness in the right side; breathing also slightly embarrassed. He was taking no medicine; bowels had been confined for two or three days, but he felt no inconvenience from it and his tongue was clean, moist, and the papilla natural. His appetite was also by no means bad. It was evident that he was not now suffering constitutionally from the presence of pus.

On the 6th, after rest and a good night, I opened the abscess at the most prominent point, having made an incision through the integument, and then inserted a large trocar and canula. I drew off about 18 ounces of thick pus, which had the peculiar appearance and odour of that of a liver abscess.

I immediately syringed out the cavity with a solution of carbolic acid, ʒi in a pint of water. Left the canula in, and plugged it with lint soaked in carbolic acid one part, glycerine four parts; a bandage and tapes secured the canula in situ. I ordered him also a solution of quinine and sulphuric acid in calumba. Diet of soup, bread and milk, a little wine; the latter he did not like at first.

In the evening I again emptied the cavity of about eight ounces of pus, and washed it out as in the morning. He had no fever during the day. His pulse has come down since yesterday, but quicker than it was in the morning. He feels well; much relieved by the removal of the pus; an enema was given to-day, but it did not relieve him; ordered two aperient pills.

September 6th.—Drew off about eight ounces of pus this morning, and about four more in the evening; removed the canula, as it was irritating him; kept the wound distended with lint soaked in carbolic glycerine. The cavity is washed out on each occasion that the pus is removed with the carbolic acid lotion. Bowels have acted freely; the pills were aided in the morning by a sulphate of magnesia draught. He has taken his food fairly, and now takes beer instead of wine; slept well; looks and feels better; pulse 88 in the morning, has quickened a few beats in the evening, but there is no apparent increase in temperature.

8th.—He has been doing well, the quantity of pus diminishing daily, this morning about six ounces, in the evening not more than two. He takes food well; sleeps well, and is in good spirits.

further details shall be sent to you for publication in a future number. I merely wish to bring forward a few cases treated by the hypodermic method of injection, in continuation as it were, of three published by Surgeon Christian in the Gazette of the 1st October treated with ammonia.

The solution of strychnine employed was $\frac{1}{16}$ th of a grain, dissolved in 10 minims of rain water acidulated with one minim of dilute hydrochloric acid. The success was not encouraging, and as cases became more numerous, the hypodermic method was discontinued, and the saline plan persevered in.

I.—Santoo, syc, admitted from artillery lines in a state of complete collapse; injected hypodermically with the strychnine solution three times at intervals of three hours; re-action partially established. Death from anæmia three days after admission.

II.—Bukee, dooley-bearer, admitted on the 13th September; injected three times at intervals of four hours. re-action established and secretion of urine partially established. Died on the 20th, six days after admission.

III.—Membeh, syc, from royal artillery lines admitted on 13th September in a state of profound collapse; strychnine was hypodermically injected as a "febrifuge" the effect of the first injection was striking. Tetanic spasms were slightly visible, but the man got into a comatose state after the second injection, and complained of pain in the arm at the point of puncture. He passed urine the third day, and took food on the fourth day, but remained in a weak sickly state, and at last a low form of typhoid fever set in, and he died of diarrhoea, &c., on the 30th. This case may be called a favorable one, and a cure from cholera, the low fever being a post hoc, and prevalent in Peshawar at this time of the year.

IV.—Gool Ahmed, coolie from the city, admitted on the 13th; injected three times; skin became warm, and pulse became perceptible, but he died of anæmia on the 19th, six days after admission.

V.—Dookee, syc, from artillery lines, admitted on the 13th; injected three times, as above. Hope was in a profound state of collapse; re-action established on the 14th; urine passed on the 17th, and recovery was complete on the 20th, seven days after admission.

VI.—Ghinnow, dooley bearer, admitted on the 13th, not very profoundly collapsed, injected four times without much effect. Died on the 16th, three days after admission.

VII.—Mahomed Rajek admitted in a moribund state on the 14th; injected twice, but without much effect, though it apparently preserved his life till the 16th, when he died.

VIII.—Lutchman, jeweler from a sudder bazar, admitted in a state of profound collapse on the 14th; was injected three times; re-action was established; pulse became perceptible, but urine was not secreted in spite of blister and diuretics, and he died on the 18th, four days after admission.

IX.—Goomanee, an old man, admitted from the city on the 14th; injected six times with the above solution of strychnine; re-action established on the third day; urine passed, and recovery complete on the 19th, five days after admission.

X.—Soobhan Khan, aged 20, admitted on the 18th; injected twice; on 18th once, on 19th re-action fully established; urine secreted, but diarrhoea of a bilious nature set in, and he died on the 25th.

XI.—Sooltan admitted from the city on the 18th; re-action and secretion of urine established after four hypodermic strychnine injections, recovery complete on the 20th, though he still remains weak, and subject to diarrhoea.

XII.—Rampaul, syc, admitted from sudder bazar on the 19th; injected three times, no re-action whatever was established. Died on the 21st.

XIII.—Mahomed Aseem, admitted from the city on 22nd September, injected four times, re-action came on the third morning, urine passed, and he made a complete recovery by the 2nd October, left the hospital of his own accord.

XIV.—Sudew Bahin admitted from 18th Cavalry on the 22nd; was in a state of profound collapse, injected three times; re-action established on the 24th.

REMARKS.—In looking over these cases it must be borne in mind that they were all of the most virulent type of cholera; recovery seemed and was almost hopeless, or such a violent remedy as the injection of $\frac{1}{16}$ th of a grain of strychnine would not have been resorted to. I cannot say I am satisfied with the plan of treatment; however, it did not injure the patient in any way, and in most cases re-action was established and death did not occur in the stage of collapse as has been so common in the late epidemic here. In publishing these cases I do so with a view to show the value of strychnine (leaving others to judge) of the treatment.

CASES OF AMPUTATION AT THE HIP-JOINT.

By Dr. BAILLIE,

Surgeon, Calcutta Native Hospital.

I.—AMPUTATION BY THE CIRCULAR METHOD FOR INJURY; CARBOLIC ACID NOT USED; DEATH ON THE TWENTY-THIRD DAY FROM HÆMORRHAGE.

NOGEMBERSATH DITT, a boy aged 7, admitted 22nd August, 1867, having fallen from the roof of a high house, and sustained compound comminuted fracture of the right thigh bone at its upper third, which protruded nearly two inches from the wound, the surrounding soft parts being much injured. After waiting a few hours till re-action had set in, amputation at the joint was performed under chloroform, the operation was well-borne, and progress good till the fifth day, when diarrhoea occurred, and the stump opened out; however, this in a few days became filled with healthy granulations, which were guarded by warm dressing. The pulse, however, which was very rapid on admission, never fell below 150, although he was well supported and had tones. After this he went on fairly, the wound granulating and contracting till 9th September. Diarrhoea with fever then set in, and continued more or less till 11th September, at $\frac{1}{4}$ a.m., when, whilst straining at stool, arterial hæmorrhage occurred from the bottom of the wound, but not in a jet; the bleeding was speedily arrested, not more than four ounces of blood having escaped, the little patient, however, rapidly sunk, and died a little before six o'clock the same morning. No post-mortem examination could be obtained.

REMARKS.—The injury to the muscles surrounding the joint was so great in this instance, that I was induced to adopt the circular in preference to the flap operation, so as to enable more of the muscular structure, and less of the integument to be removed; had this alternative not been called for, probably the boy's chances of recovery would have been greater; and they would also have been still more increased, had carbolic acid been applied at the time of the operation, as I believe thereby adhesion might have followed, and the long separating process been averted.

II.—AMPUTATION BY ANTERIOR AND POSTERIOR FLAPS FOR DISASE; CARBOLIC ACID FREELY USED; STUMP HEALED IN SIX WEEKS; DEATH FROM EXHALT SIRON, THREE DAYS AFTER A SLIGHT ATTACK OF CHOLERA.

BECHARAM BAGH, an emaciated Hindoo lad, aged 16, was brought to the hospital on 12th August, 1869, by his mother, who immediately afterwards decamped, thinking probably that his case was hopeless; and certainly the poor boy's appearance justified her fears. He was suffering from a large osseous tumour of the left leg, its greatest circumference just below the knee being 26 inches; the entire thigh also was much increased in size; the plate taken from a photograph by Mr. Rust, of the Calcutta Photographic Company, hardly gives a fair idea of its



dimensions, the part having been out of focus; it was hard, and large distended veins were seen underlying it artiously over its surface, giving it a most malignant aspect, and, indeed, the history and period of the growth (scarcely eight months) tended to confirm the view of its malignancy; the swelling of the left foot got into a hole, and he fell upon his left side, the limb being tightly twisted under him; soon after he felt a severe pain about

head, etc., and, when a tumour forms, which gradually follows upwards and upwards to the base, nearly to the epigastrium, and in the abdomen, and has strength and growth both good so much, as to render it almost certain that the affected parts were soon and certainly removed, he could not long survive. Accordingly with his consent, on the 18th August, amputation at the upper end by double flaps, was performed by Dr. McNamee, Surgeon to the Dispensary. He said that the artery, kindly assisting, the arteries having been secured with the little blood. The solution of artery he used, I put 20 grains of water, was freely applied to every part of the wound, which was then brought together by iron wire sutures, and the whole stump covered with lint soaked in carbolic oil.

After the operation he was very low, pulse could not be counted, but this was the case before the operation, so that it was the patient, his respiration was also very hurried.

19th.—Pulse and breathing still very rapid, but aspect generally towards the afternoon better, and a few stitches were removed, and a considerable quantity of serous discharge, evidently mixed with carbolic acid, escaped, causing a burning sensation to each part of the limb with which it came in contact; the line of incision was supported by strapping, and a compress, and an effluvia led by application of warm compresses with carbolic oil.

20th.—Pulse 120, respiration 26; stump healthy looking. From this date there is nothing to chronicle, except that the patient gradually, in order to-day, a good strength was improved, and he could walk, except on a sudden sight at a cross of the road, or stairs, which was easily checked by small doses of morphia and opium, combined with bitter extract, he had a few spasms at different times, passing, except of lactate of iron, and quinine, the latter alone seemed to suit him very well.

21st.—On this sabbath, being the day of the quarterly meeting of the Governors of the Hospital, the patient was seen by Dr. J. H. Murray, the Inspector-General; the stump was then examined, and he had, save a small sinus (at the outer extremity of the line of incision), which could not just admit an ordinary probe, and from which about half a drachm of healthy pus escaped daily. Pulse 81, at which figure it had been for the last three weeks.

On the 2nd October, all having gone on well previously, he had several copious conjunctival stools, but unaccompanied by cramps.

When this purging was checked in the after part of the evening, and in the course of the next two days, the stools, although small, became smaller in quantity, and began to assume a soft consistency, and I hoped he had got over the attack, but during the night of the 5th, without any increase of diarrhoea, he became very faint and gradually sunk, dying early on the morning of the 6th October, just seven weeks from the date of the operation.

A *post-mortem* examination was made the same morning; all the viscera were in a healthy condition, the stomach, however, was much enlarged with a green fluid, and the gall bladder was enlarged; on the examination enclosed positively nothing to account for so much, the stump was cut into, and found solid throughout, even the sacculum was quite filling it, and the little intestine mentioned above, which admitted only the small blow-pipe cavity, seen in dissecting cases, was traced to the back of its sac, and so on.

The whole of the amputated parts were sent to the Medical College Museum for examination, but owing to a misadventure, the soft structures were unfortunately not examined, so that Professor Lawtice could not report upon the osseous part of the stump, which he considered to be of the nature of osteo-sarcoma.

REMARKS.—In this case nothing short of the removal of the stump at the point wound, I believe, have offered a chance of recovery, and the correctness of this opinion may be said to have been confirmed by the result of the operation, for so far as the wound of the amputation was concerned, nothing could be said of the steady progress of the healing process, unattended with any, was by a single "*entre-temps*" during its whole period, however, I know of no other adverse mode of having occurred. Therefore the death, there can be but little doubt that in consequence of the low state of the boy's health, to which he was exposed, had brought him, combined with the demands upon his strength, had expended so much of the vital force, as to leave an insufficient amount of it, to enable his system to rally on the shock it sustained from the attack of cholera, slight though it was.

It is singular that in this, as in the successful cases of hip-joint amputation reported by Drs. Lister and Partridge, the age of the patient was 16.

CONTRIBUTIONS FROM THE MITFORD HOSPITAL, DACCA.

By ASSISTANT-SURGEON, H. C. CUTCLIFFE, F.R.C.S.

ENLARGED SPLEEN CONVERTED INTO A HÆMATOCYCLE: WHICH WAS ENCLICURED, RECOVERED.

NAIM RAY, aged 19, native of Sylhet, came to the Mitford Hospital, May 19, 1869, with a tertile fever and an enlarged spleen. He is a man of 1½ and 1½ muscled frame, but thin and feeble. He states that he has suffered from fever continuously for 6 months. About 10 or 12 days ago, he first noticed a swelling in the left side of his belly under the ribs. This swelling was preceded for two or three days by a very acute pain under the left hypochondrium. The tumour occupies the ordinary position of an enlarged spleen, which it closely resembles on examination. It was hard, even, and free from tenderness.

21st May.—The tumour to-day felt more like a hard cyst containing fluid than a solid spleen. The edges of tumour reached across the ribs to the epigastric and umbilical regions downwards below the umbilicus, and thence in a curved line across the upper part of the left iliac region into the left lumbar region. There was no pain or oedema. He was ordered ipecacuanha and mixture three times a day, and ipecacuanha hydrate hemostat to the tumour.

28th.—The tumour has become more distinctly prominent below the ribs; it clearly contains fluid; it was punctured; several ounces of dark fluid blood escaped, evidently old blood with broken down cells; there was no pus. The patient explained a good deal of smarting pain after the needle had been withdrawn, and said that the fluid which escaped burnt him very much.

29th.—Fever has come on with pain in the abdomen; he now lies on his back with his knee drawn up; his abdomen is hot, tender, and tympanitic.

30th.—Abdominal symptoms less distressing; the leeches afforded great relief; the tumour is subsiding, and there is no discharge.

2nd June.—All pain and tenderness have gone; the abdomen is fluid and soft; the only remains of an old and old tumour is an indistinct firmness below the ribs in the spleenic region. Discharged on the 6th.

REMARKS.—On admission nothing more than an ordinary enlargement of the spleen could be detected. In five days fluctuation was distinct over the whole of the enlarged spleen. On the ninth day it was punctured below the ribs, nothing but blood escaped; symptoms of peritonitis appeared the following day, but quickly subsided. Eight days after it had been tapped, nothing of the tumour could be felt.

HYDROCYCLE AND HÆMATOCYCLE EXISTING TOGETHER AS DISTINCT CASES WITHIN ONE LIFE: A VASCULUS, WHOSE CAVITY HAD BEEN DIVIDED INTO TWO PARTS BY A SEPTUM.

AMMOE KUREEM, aged 70 years, shop keeper, residing in Dacca, was admitted into the Mitford Hospital on the 21st July, with a painful swelling of the left testicle.

The patient, a healthy old man, states that for two years past he has had a hydrocele of the left testicle, which, however, has never been in any way operated on, and has never caused him any pain. Eight days since, when sleeping on a bed raised about four feet from the ground, it gave way and the upper part of the left cord. This blow was followed immediately by acute pain about the external ring, and swelling in the scrotum. Both the swelling and the pain continued to increase for eight days, when he came to the hospital.

On admission, a large ovoid tumour in the left side of the scrotum was observed; fluctuation was distinctly perceived, and it was surmised that an effusion of blood had occurred into the cyst of an old hydrocele. There was great tenderness on pressure over the upper part of the tumour, where much hardness was perceived to extend over a circum-scribed area, and in such a manner as to suggest the possibility of an inflamed and swollen testicle being there located.

22nd July.—The fluctuation being distinct at the lower part of the tumour, a trocar was introduced, and about one pint of clear serous fluid perfectly transparent, and free from all traces of blood, was withdrawn. A circumscribed hardness remained still at the upper part of the scrotum, and the condi-

tion of the parts now suggested the idea that the fluctuating tumour had been an *encysted* hydrocele, and that the hardened mass remaining at the upper part of the tumour was the testicle inflamed and swollen from local injury.

26th.—The pain in no way has diminished; the hardness and swelling remain unchanged. Bichloride of mercury and iodide of potassium mixture; leeches to ease the pain.

27th.—The pain is very severe; there is no change in the character of the tumour. Through the upper part of the scrotum I made an incision down to the tumour, and then cut into it, and evacuated about six ounces of dark clotted blood; no fresh hæmorrhage occurred. By passing the finger into the hæmatocele, for so what I had cut into proved to be, I found that it consisted of a cyst situated over the anterior surface of the epididymis (globus major) and testicle, and that the cyst did not extend to the lateral or under surfaces of the testicle. Upwards the cyst reached along the cord for about one inch above the epididymis, and was there limited. The cyst seemed to have been formed immediately over the tunica albuginea. The hydrocele cyst was now clearly to be made out, as it was partially again filled with fluid. Its situation was limited above by the hæmatocele, and was confined to the inferior and inner surface of the testicle. From these surfaces it hung pendulous downwards. The two cysts were thus clearly distinct from one another, and each was limited to a portion only of the surface of the testicle, which organ was situated above the hydrocele and behind the hæmatocele.

28th.—The laying open of the hæmatocele has given him relief from all pain; has had no hæmorrhage, fever, or other bad symptom.

5th August.—Has had no more pain; the cavity of the hæmatocele is fast closing, and is now discharging healthy pus; the hydrocele is very slowly re-filling with fluid. Its relative position is now clearly demonstrable to be as I before described it, *viz.*, confined to a small part only of the anterior surface, some of the outer, all the lower, and a little of the posterior surface, of the testicle. The cyst of the hæmatocele was entirely confined to the upper and anterior portion of the testicle, and was probably the upper part of a septal division in the tunica vaginalis, into the lower part of which the hydrocele fluid had been effused.

10th.—The hydrocele is slowly re-filling; the sac of the hæmatocele is granulating, contracting and closing.

16th.—Discharged.

REMARKS.—The hæmatocele was not distinct from the cavity of the tunica vaginalis, for the tunica vaginalis testis formed the posterior wall of the cyst, which, however, was clearly limited to the upper portion of the cavity of the tunica vaginalis. Between the cyst of the hæmatocele and that of the hydrocele there existed a distinct wall or septum, and looking to the fact that the hydrocele cyst in its communications generally corresponded with the lower part of the cavity of the tunica vaginalis, it seems to me that the wall between the two cysts was a septum which had formed in the cavity of the tunica vaginalis anterior to the commencement of the hydrocele, and had divided that cavity into two parts, of which the lower had become greatly enlarged from the accumulation of the serous fluid which had there formed a hydrocele, and that the upper portion of the cavity had been recently converted into a hæmatocele by the sudden effusion of blood which had been poured into it from some vessel ruptured by a blow. Having laid open the cavity of the hæmatocele, I thought that it would be prudent to leave the hydrocele to future treatment, and this was accordingly done.

PRIMARY AMPUTATION OF THIGH; RAPID RECOVERY UNDER ANÆSTHETIC TREATMENT.

By CHARLES W. WATSON, M.R.C.S., ENGLAND, &c.,
Surgeon, E. I. R., Jubulpoor Line.

The *Lancet*, in its issue of August 14th, while reviewing the opinions expressed by Mr. Nunn by during the course of his address in surgery at Leeds on the "antiseptic treatment of wounds," very justly observes "that, on the septic-germ theory the success of the treatment would depend entirely upon the precise observance of many precautions." If by such observance of precautions, not many, but few and simple of execution, we can act with the certainty that definite results will follow, no further arguments or proofs can be required to establish the immense superiority of such treatment over any subject to influences not to be traced, nor to be combated,

whether atmospheric or telluric, dependent on constitution, mental, or physical, habits of life, age, or mode of injury.

Mr. Nunneley bases his disbelief in the benefits of the antiseptic treatment on the fact that freely exposed stumps have also healed up "readily and well" without any covering upon them. "That the two plans of treatment are, as he says, "wide as the poles asunder" is indeed most obvious, but are they not those respectively of cure and prevention? If so, which of the two is better? True, by the most assiduous attention to a freely exposed stump we may, perchance, happily remove or remedy any morbid action induced or caused by such exposure, but, in the hands of many, carbolic acid has proved an absolute safeguard against the ingress of any poison germ, a sure preventive of any such morbid action, and an agent the careful use of which renders us independent of all external influences.

In my own experience I have found carbolic acid not only powerful to prevent the incursion of suppurative infection, but to stop and alter septic action set up in a previously unprotected wound. The following notes of a recent case very satisfactorily illustrate its primary preventive action:—

Kwalee, a Khol woman, aged 45 years, the mother of five children, was, for four months preceding her admission to hospital, one of a crowd of some 1,500 beggars congregated at the Satta station on the Jubulpoor line of railway, where they have been barely kept alive by a small daily dose of grain; this was only given to those who were too weak and infirm to be employed on the regular road works, such as making tanks, roads, &c. On the 22nd July, one, with three of her children, had crept for shelter from the heavy rain, under a truck in the station yard; there was occasion to move this truck; this was accordingly done by an engine. On seeing it move she, instead of remaining quietly between the rails, and so escaping injury, first hurried out her children, and then, whilst attempting to creep out herself, her left leg was caught by the wheel and completely smashed. She was brought to me about an hour after the accident occurred in a very low state of shock, from which, when with difficulty roused, she only as it mechanically said for food. Pulse very small and weak. Both bones of the left leg were broken and splintered in several pieces, the patella was wrenched from its position, the lower part of the femur had bare, and all the soft parts of the leg and thigh as high as its middle were lacerated and crushed out of all shape. Her weakness and prostration were excessive, both from the shock itself and the long course of semi-starvation that she had been enduring.

With as little delay as possible she was put under chloroform, and I amputated with very scanty anterior and posterior flaps at the junction of upper and middle thirds of the femur. Two arteries were tied. The cut surfaces were then quickly and carefully smeared with carbolic oil (1 part in 4), the flaps were then accurately brought together, and united with ten sutures of silk saturated with carbolic oil. The wound was covered with a double fold of lint, previously soaked in carbolic oil (1 part in 12), overlapping the end of the stump by three inches on all sides, the edges being included in the folds of a fine bandage embracing the whole of the stump; over the double fold of lint another single strip was laid also saturated with the oil. Immediately after the effects of chloroform had passed off, she was given 15 drops of aromatic spirit of ammonia with 20 drops of lactidum. To be given alternately strong venison soup and milk, of each 1 oz. every hour. The opiate to be repeated in the evening.

23rd.—Had three hours sleep at night; pulse still small and feeble; no sign of fever; complains of pain in the wound. All the dressings to be left *in situ*, the outer piece of lint to be smeared with the carbolic oil every four hours. The opiate draught to be continued every four hours. Diet, soup and milk alternately every hour, with tea twice in the day.

24th.—General symptoms the same as yesterday; complains of great pain in the wound; no increase of heat or tension in the stump; carbolic oil, opiate, and diet to be continued as before.

25th.—Had a tolerably good night, pain less in wound, pulse fuller and firmer, but not increased in frequency; no inflammatory swelling, nor abnormal heat in soup, at her own request she was given bread and deal, instead of rice; these with soup and milk to be given in three meals during the day. Opiate draught to be given only at bed time. In her this treatment she continued steadily to improve. On the 25th the whole of the dressings were removed. The wound was healed through more than half its extent, the rest was perfectly clean and healthy. Fresh dressings of the same kind to be applied. The outer piece of lint to be renewed every morning.

On the 10th day after operation the whole was healed with

large, and so thickened in structure that it probably performed its functions very indifferently. The trachea and bronchial tubes contained matter similar in character to the contents of the stomach. Lungs greatly engorged with blood. In the stomach were found several small pieces of potatoe of the same character as those discovered in the bronchial tubes. Assistant-Surgeon Cunningham, who was in the dead house at the time of the *post-mortem* examination, verified the nature of the foreign bodies by means of the microscope. It appeared that the deceased had drank some beer and also rum in the course of the evening before retiring to rest. He had been sick and vomited when in bed; and about this time, no doubt, portions of the contents of the stomach passed down the trachea into the bronchial tubes, thus causing asphyxia.

"You have chosen the path, not of politics, but of science. Among those who have preceded you in it, and in our own particular department, we find some of the highest ornaments of British history; and I will not do you the injustice of supposing that there is any one among you who would not prefer the reputation of Harvey or the Hunters to that of unteetwenticus of the courtiers and politicians of the periods in which they lived."—SIR BENJAMIN BRODIE.

THE PHYSIOLOGICAL ACTION OF QUININE.

WE re-print below an extract from a Review in *The Practitioner* for August last, of das *Chinin als Antiphlogisticum*, Inaugural Dissertation der Med. Facultät zu Giessen, Von Adolph Martin, bearing upon the influence which the disulphate of quinine is supposed by some to possess in modifying, mitigating, or preventing the inflammatory process:—

While Binz and Scharrenbroch had produced a very large amount of evidence apparently proving that quinine, and a number of other remedies, have specific influence in checking the vital anæmobioid movements of the white corpuscles, it was left an open question by the former *Ueber das Wesen der Chinitwirkung*, Berlin, 1865, whether or not this influence extended to actual prevention of the passage of the corpuscles through the vascular walls in inflammatory conditions. Dr. Martin addressed himself to the consideration of this further question. His experiments on frogs were conducted on the model of Cohnheim's famous researches; the animals being paralysed with curara, the mesentery was drawn through a wound in the abdominal wall, and spread out upon perforated sheets of cork for microscopic examination. In a preliminary series of studies the author thoroughly familiarized himself with the phenomena, first described by Cohnheim, which occur when the inflammatory process is allowed to develop itself unchecked. He then began comparative experimentation: two frogs of equal size being simultaneously paralysed with curara, in one the inflammatory process was allowed to run an uncomplicated course, in the other quinine was injected subcutaneously; every stage of the subsequent changes was in each case sedulously watched. This double experiment was repeated with several pairs of frogs; and, besides this, the effect of directly painting the mesentery with a solution of quinine was tried in several instances. The results were very decided. In the animals not treated with quinine the characteristic dense agglomeration of white corpuscles along the walls of the vessels was strongly marked, and the migration processes went on freely; simultaneously there was notable dilatation of the vessels and slackening of the stream. In the frogs treated with quinine, all these phenomena were invariably much more feebly developed, sometimes they were only present in trifling degree. In the sixth experiment, the direct application of quinine to an already un-lamed mesentery, in which extensive migrations had already taken place, produced evident and notable changes in the white corpuscles; these did not cease to migrate, but became dark, granular, and indented, and lost their vital movements as soon as they had passed outside the vessel.

Besides these experiments, Martin made some observations on dogs, in order to test the assertion of Binz and Scharrenbroch as to the effect of quinine in diminishing the number of white corpuscles. As with the frogs two animals of equal size were simultaneously and comparatively experimented upon. The result of this research was very remarkable, the difference between the numbers of white cells being far too great and too constant to have been the result of accident, and, moreover, it was evident that, as the action of a single dose of quinine passed away, the white cells began to multiply again with great rapidity.

The final series of experiments made by Martin were directed to the novel object of testing the cause of events in parenchymatous organs; and, after expending much trouble, he succeeded in following the cause both of the simple and the modified inflammatory process in the liver of the frog. Here, again, the effect of the quinine was unmistakable.

The general results of the whole inquiry conducted Martin to the following conclusions:—1.—Quinine limits the pathological migration of the blood corpuscles into the tissues of the membranous and parenchymatous organs exposed to the air, both when it is given subcutaneously and when it is directly applied to the part. 2.—It produces this effect, (1) by impairing the vital properties of the existing white corpuscles, (2) by hindering the generation of the new white corpuscles, and (3) by retarding the dilatation of the vessels. 3.—Quinine acts as an antiphlogistic, by

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Acknowledgments.

Lancet.

British Medical Journal,
Fifth Annual Report of the Sanitary Commissioner,
The Practitioner (October.)
Canton Journal of Medicine (July.)
Medical Press and Circular,
Records of Geological Survey of India (Part 4, 1869.)
Canton Medical Journal (September.)
Epidemic Cholera in the Hong Kong Presidency. By Dr. Bryden.
Treatise on Spasmodic Cholera. By Dr. R. O'Connor, Assam.

Notices to Correspondents.

Communications have been received from

DR. FAYEBE, C.S.I.
DR. FRANCIS DIX
DR. BAILLIE,
M.D., Madras.
INQUIEBE, Punjab.*
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THE CO-OPERATION OF THE PROFESSION THROUGHOUT INDIA IS EARNESTLY SOLICITED.

* We can reply for certain that Dr. Bryden makes out the statistical tables himself, but whether the running comments on them, which constitute the 5th Report of the Sanitary Commissioner, are written or suggested by Dr. Bryden, we are unable to say. You can send the Review if you like.

† No.

‡ This is the only communication received.

acting as the cause of the various symptoms. 4. The use and the efficacy of quinine in other parts of the world is distinguished by multiplicity of effect, viz., typhus, leukæmia, &c., is based upon and explained by its relations to the life and the termination of these diseases.

Many of our readers experienced in the management of tropical fevers, their complications and consequences, will recognize in the experiments of Adolph Martin, a continuation of the practice which since 1847 has been very prevalent amongst medical practitioners in India. Ever since Mr. Harcourt proved that large doses of quinine could be given in malarious fevers, complicated with inflammation of any of the important organs, not only with impunity but with positive advantage, no one has hesitated to administer it in every form and type of malarious fever, regardless of the accompanying or complicating inflammation. That quinine when used in malarious countries, and especially at seasons when malaria abounds, does materially contribute to the mitigation of the injury inflicted by the malarious process during attack of malarial fevers has been acknowledged and taught by the medical profession in India for more than twenty years. Hence, during that period, the drug has been employed liberally, and with the best effect at all stages of malarious fever, in complete disregard of the existence or non-existence of inflammation. For it is well known that the disulphate of quinine, when from being contra-indicated, in the inflammation accompanying or following malarious fevers, is resorted to as the sovereign remedy, not only for the cure of the fever, but also for the amelioration of the inflammation.

Whether the explanations of its mode of action tendered by Adolph Martin are correct delineations of what actually happens, when quinine is administered in diseases associated with inflammation we are not prepared to say. The powers of the drug over inflammation predisposed to, or aggravated by malaria and its fevers, will retain its ground in the minds and convictions of the medical profession in this country, quite irrespective of any theory which from time to time be advanced as to the supposed physiological action of the drug. We think it right, however, to place our readers in possession of Martin's physiological experiments conducted with a view to illustrate the effects of quinine upon the inflamed mesenterics of frogs poisoned with curara, and to record the general conclusions at which the author has arrived.

THE EAST INDIAN RAILWAY.

This Company employs about 2,000 Europeans and East Indians, and some 20,000 natives. These men are scattered along a line 1,400 miles in length, and on this it is their business to keep up communications day and night all the year round.

The drivers, station-masters, gunies, and electric telegraph-riks must look well to their work night and day. Neglect or want of attention of debetion, and punishment follows. If a man would not keep his place, he must work well. In the discharge of duties, so rigid and exacting, risks to health must necessarily be incurred, and not a few diseases contracted. Dysentery and fever abound amongst railway servants; on the north-west division head-ache, apoplexy and sun-stroke kill or maim the multitudes of men, and the history of the East Indian Railway proves that not a few firemen and engine drivers have been taken off their engines dead or dying, victims to these

afflictions. A good number of the Company's servants, after continuous service, fall into a bad state of health, the result of exposure to climate. This condition is made up of rheumatism, paralysis, and loss of appetite mixed in different proportions, in different instances, and they who suffer from it are afflicted with pains in various parts of their bodies, more or less muscular weakness, and with inability to digest the little food they take. This condition is common, so is abscess in the liver, so is Bright's disease, so is phthisis. In a word, diseases of vital exhaustion prevail largely amongst the servants of the Company, and the question which we wish to ask here more especially is this:—“Might this waste of human life be lessened by means at command?” We think it might.

The Company in the main is humane and considerate to its servants; its rates are fair, and its regulations for sick leave are liberal (when noted on); its contributions to institutes and charitable institutions redound to its credit, while its efforts to establish swimming baths and other places meant for recreation, and the preservation of health are praiseworthy; still much remains to be done. For instance, the Board should not rest satisfied till every European in the line is housed in comfortable railway quarters, leased to him at a moderate rent. At present many of its servants have to pay exorbitantly for unwholesome houses, or they have to seek for wholesome houses at a long distance from their work. It would pay the Company to house their men well. Further, the Board would find that to provide good drinking water all along the line, and to establish a good market at every changing station, would prove highly remunerative, indirectly if not directly. Now, at many of the stations, the men with their families do not see beef or mutton from week's end to week's end, while at others fresh bread is a rarity. It is unfair, to say that the servants themselves ought to establish markets; it is unfair because they are so situated about it, a few stations have any settled residents.

More care should also be taken to make men comfortable at the changing stations; in fact, we look on the present system of changing stations as radically bad, an eminent physician to vital exhaustion and disease. At present the men in charge of the train have long periods of labour, alternating with long periods of rest. The men themselves do not complain of this, because they get extra allowance for what is called overtime; and in their wish to gain money, they not infrequently lose life, or at least health. We feel sure that the waste of life and health could be much lessened, if superintendents would manage to let the men sleep in their own houses every night. This could be done by adding to the number of changing stations. Two journeys a day of 60 miles each, with a rest between, and rest at home daily amongst their wives and children, would be more in accordance with the rules of health, than is one long journey of 120 miles, 4 or 6 times a week, entailing as it does irregularity in daily occupation, and absence from home two or three nights in every seven. Great efforts are to often followed by great infirmities, and the system of long beats, we are assured, leads to drink and immorality. At any rate, the Board should see that engine drivers, guards, and firemen are charged every 50 or 60 miles in the North-West in the hot months at all events.

We most strongly deprecate the practice of excluding and excluding men as the tides ebb and flow. Such a pra-

tice is allowable in England, and there it is not cruel; but in India it is cruel. To invite a soldier or sailor to take service when the traffic is good, and then to discharge him when it is bad, is to spoil the purpose of many men's lives, and to fill the country with loafers. The Company has as yet no pension list, but this should make superintendents all the more tender in discharging men who have got worn out in the service. We believe the East Indian Railway to be the most intelligently managed railway in India, and we feel sure that to have abuses remedied, it is only necessary to point them out.

EDUCATION OF NATIVE DOCTORS.

A very important class of lectures have recently been instituted at the Medical College, which will tend much to improve medical education. The Government have sanctioned an arrangement by which instruction on Chemistry and Medical Jurisprudence is to be provided for the students of the first, or military, and the apothecary or Bengali classes; lectures on the latter subject have already commenced. If the class becomes permanent, of which there can be very little doubt, each pupil of the Bengali class will have to pay a small fee for attendance, as is the rule in the midwifery class that was established for them last year. One rupee is charged per annum for attendance on these midwifery lectures, and since their commencement they have been largely attended. The propriety of this fee has been questioned, but we think it ought even to be made higher; it is only fair that the men educating themselves for general practitioners all over the country should now be required to contribute something towards the expenses of their education. The military class of Native Doctors, on the other hand, being educated solely for duty in military and civil hospitals, are supported by Government, and receive their education without any payment.

CESSATION OF SMALL-POX IN IRELAND.

SMALL-POX has temporarily disappeared from Ireland; stamped out the authorities hope.

The secretary of the Poor Law Commission reports in September,—“the returns of the Registrar-General for the quarter ending 30th June last, contains no death from small-pox; and the dispensary medical officers have reported no case of small-pox as having occurred since June last.”

Dr. Cameron, of Dublin, states that during the ten years ended in 1841, 58,006 persons died from small-pox in Ireland. During the decade ending 1851, deaths numbered 38,275, and in the following ten years 12,727. Thus for some years previous to the introduction of the compulsory Vaccination Act in 1862, the annual mortality from the disease was over 1,000. In the following years the decrease has been well marked. In 1864, the number of deaths 854, in 1865, 517, in 1866, 187, in 1867, 29, in 1868, 19, in the first quarter of 1869, 3, in the second quarter none.

Whether or not, says the secretary, “small-pox remains in the country, and may be expected to break out under less favorable circumstances, it is quite clear that every part of Ireland is at all times exposed to the introduction of the disease, either accidentally or by design, and, therefore, that the only security lies in a steady maintenance everywhere in the protective means afforded by vaccination.”

IMMUNITY OF A MONKEY TO STRYCHNINE.

Surgeon THEOBALD RINGER, of the 7th Cavalry at Nowgong, communicates an attempt to poison a LANGOOR (*presbytis entellus*) with strychnine. One grain was concealed in a piece of cucumber, which the animal eat; after waiting some time and finding no effect produced, three grains were given in the same substance, and the monkey appeared to relish the meal.

Afterwards some cyanide of potassium was mixed with sugar and placed between pieces of bread, but on smelling, the animal threw it away, and nothing would induce him to touch it.

To test the strychnine, which had been some time in his possession, Dr. Ringer administered three grains to a dog; in twenty minutes the usual symptoms commenced, and it died in forty minutes after swallowing the poison.

We know there are many vegetable poisons that act very differently on the lower animals to their effects on man. For instance the immunity of pigeons to opium is pretty well established; goats can eat tobacco in large quantities, and rabbits can be fed on leaves of belladonna, stramonium, and hyocyamus without detriment; but the toleration of this monkey to strychnine is novel. We have not yet been able to gather any information on the subject beyond a few lines in a local paper, in which it is remarked of a mischievous monkey,—“a druggist tried to poison the brute, but could not, as it seemed to eat all sorts of poison with impunity.”

We hope shortly to hear the results of other experiments; but we should be very glad to hear more on the subject from any officers who would take up the question.

MEDICAL EDUCATION AT DISPENSARIES.

THE class of students attached to the Umballa Dispensary reassembled for winter work on the 1st October with an opening lecture by Dr. Bateson, the Civil Surgeon. Dr. Gray, Inspector-General of Prisons, was present. This is the seventh season this class has been in operation. The students are sons of respectable people of the district, who are subsidized by monthly sums drawn from local funds. There are two hakeems in the class; and one hakeem of the city, after studying for two years, has become superintendent of vaccination for the district. One of the old students is now engaged in private practice.

When sickness breaks out in a neighbouring village one of the advanced students proceeds there with suitable medicines, and one or more attend at the district fairs. At the great *Thanesur* *Eclipse* *Mela* of last year, these students were a feature of the place, as with a scarlet band round the right arm, they were distinguished as doctors.

Recently, when all the approaches to the cantonments and city of Umballa were in a state of surveillance, these students were on the cordon posts, and sent in intelligence as to the health of travellers and neighbouring villages. The students help in the daily works of the dispensary, and the older ones are clinical clerks, and keep the cases of the house patients. Dr. Bateson lectures in Hindoostanee on anatomy, medicine, and surgery. The Native Doctor of the Dispensary lectures on anatomy to the junior class of students, and the Police Native Doctor lectures on materia medica; books and other materials for medical study are obtained from the *Anglo* *Medical* *College*. We hear there are similar classes at *Kurnal*.

It would be well if the system was more extensively encour-

The presence of native physicians, singly but often collectively, in these menials, is a saving worth all over India. The enterprise and energy of the Surgeon was augmented by the plain, good of those who follow in his footsteps, will be profitable or much good to the people of this country, and will afford life to the experiment tried in a more extended scale.

FRENCH MEDICAL SERVICE. M. Bertillon, the eminent medical statistician, is thus quoted by the foreign correspondent of the *Medical Times and Gazette* :—

"From 1846 to 1865, the annual mortality of the officers of an army has been 61 per 1000, but that of the medical staff has been 15 per 1000! When it comes, this enormous excess is due from difference of ages? By no means. Many of these officers are quite early soundly by a profession which, in fact, wears in the army, one year with us there, there are but 23 resignations in 1000 officers, among the medical officers there are as many as there are deaths, viz., 15 per 1000. In the time of war the mortality is not less. During the Crimean campaign, the English sanitary, which, for any other that did not reach a 1000 of officers, had 148 medical officers, had the good chance not to lose one of them, (1) while of our 150, we lost 82, or more than 58 per cent. Thus, prolonged studies, greater danger, miserable pay, a solitary position assimilated to that of the common soldier and paymaster, a long preparation and the incessant danger incident on visiting patients, remunerated and esteemed in the same scale as the keeping of books—such is the practice of the profession which it behoves our young *docteurs* to meditate before joining.

THE JAIL AND JAIL SYSTEM OF INDIA.

(Continued from page 149.)

TRANSPORTATION is the second punishment proscribed in the Penal Code, which came into operation in 1862; and it would seem that being thus considered second only to death, the law intended this punishment to be more severe and deterrent than any subordinate punishment.

The advantages of transportation for Indian convicts are very largely put by the Committee of 1833; their words are here given in full, with their reasons for assuming the punishment for life only :—

"We have ready made to our hands a weapon of tremendous power. The horror with which the people regard transportation is a feeling born with them, and the questions whether it be a wise or foolish feeling, whether it be a just deduction from true promises, or the result of ignorance and error, are nothing to the purpose. We have the extraordinary opportunity of punishing, with extreme effect towards deterring others, with sufficient effect in insinuating the criminal for future crime, with the chance (obtainable in no other way) of rendering him a useful member of society; and all this without the infliction of a second pain than that which is inflicted by other punishments, and that so much desired.

"We are of opinion, partly for reasons of a general character, and partly for reasons peculiarly applicable to this country, that transportation ought never to be resorted to except for life. We never see the speedy reformation of a criminal is an object, the temporary discipline of a penitentiary has great advantage

over the temporary discipline of a penal settlement, and the constant return of a great many natives of India from transportation would soon destroy that peculiar feeling of dread which this punishment now so happily inspires in India."

These opinions were written in 1836, but have not since been acted upon; for, with the limits of transportation assigned by the Penal Code, other than life, viz., for fourteen or for not less than seven years, the convict settlement has been disturbed by the presence of short term prisoners; there is no account, however, how many, if any, convicts have yet returned to this country after having served their short term transportation.

Of late years the minds sentenced to transportation have depended rather upon the capabilities and requirements of Port Blair than on a consideration of the effect of transportation upon the penal administration of India." Since the publication, however, of the "note," the Government of India have made it go back to the expressed opinions of 1833, and in a resolution of December 1868, pass fresh orders on the subject.

The Government of India now thinks that transportation for less terms than for life has assumed the deterrent force of the punishment; and that it will be better, and certainly more economical, to provide prisons on the continent of India for prisoners sentenced to transportation on terms short of life; it therefore orders that "no convicts shall henceforth be sent to Port Blair from any part of India, except those who have been sentenced to transportation for life."

Certain legal difficulties have thus been got over, Madras has already declared certain jails to be places of transportation, and the Bengal Government has now recently decided that certain jails in Assam should be made available for transportation in like manner; and they suggest that the convicts there should be utilized for the labor which is so much required, and which is so scarce in the country.

Prior to the meeting, native convicts sentenced to be transported had been sent to Singapore, Penang, and Malacca. Bengal employed in addition a station or two in the Tenasserim Provinces, and Bombay sent men to the Mauritius, while from the Straits Settlements such prisoners were sent to Bombay.

Port Blair, on the south-east shore of the South Andaman, in the earlier years of British India, had been a naval station, but was abandoned in 1795, on account of its extreme unhealthiness; the islands were not again occupied until the deportation there, in March 1838, of 1,000 convicts, the products of the rebellion. Since 1858 all sentences of transportation recorded in Hindustan have been carried out at Port Blair, except in British Borneo, where, from the facilities of escape the Andaman island to natives of those provinces, convicts are sent to Bontang.

Under the extramural system of the island, discipline among the convicts is very much less severe than in the central jails of the continent, and this is one great reason for restricting the prisoners to no return to civilized life; their punishment is in the banishment, and although the prisoners are probably happier in themselves than they would be in a central jail, yet they thus lose the power of being able to relate their happiness under the deportation to their friends in India: but rules of discipline, &c., are now being drawn up for the introduction of that system of convict management which for many years worked so successfully at Singapore."

When the rules were in force, which permitted men to be transported for shorter terms than life, the convict was an enormous expense to the State: "there is no comparison between the cost of keeping a convict in India, and of sending him to Port Blair;" and each one is calculated to have cost "not far under Rs. 30 a month, which cost, however, did not include the charges involved in taking him there."

There are now 7,000 convicts on the island, and it is considered that this number will be about the average jail population for the next six years, the annual importation being reckoned at about 700, and the decrease by death or termination of sentence, about balancing the incomings. At the end of that time, when many discharges of prisoners will have ceased, the subject will have to be considered *de novo*, as the incomings then will far exceed the outgoings, and the island, even as if 7,000 convicts were not enough in one place, could barely find place for much over that number.

"But 10,000 life convicts would be a very much more manageable charge than half that number composed of convicts sentenced for different terms, because in the former case, the same kind of treatment might be employed for all. All that would be necessary to ensure in their treatment would be—perfect security; a discipline sufficiently severe at starting to be necessary for the sake of example without being more severe; and, that they should be employed in such a manner as best to re-pay the cost of maintenance."

It may be stated that the present resolution of the Government to abolish transportation except for life, will not only effect an immediate and very considerable saving of expenditure, but will at the same time greatly increase the efficiency, and the deterrent nature of the penal administration of the country.

Conclusion:—The last section finishes the history of the jail system of India. The note concludes with an extract: a paper by a Mr. W. C. Bannerjee read at the National Association for the promotion of social science, held in June 1867. The extract is given "to suggest a contrast between the facts given in the precedings chapters, and some views that obtain in England concerning them;" the paper is described as a tissue of incorrect statements and rash representations.

Forming a short appendix is an article copied from an Edinburgh paper of October 1867, on "Miss Carpenter and our mission work in India;" we extract few lines to shew the tenor of the whole, in reference to the facts she saw in India.

"Will it be credited that after a settlement of nearly a century and a half in India—after &c., &c., after we have sent out so many Governors, so many civil servants, so many missionaries; and after India itself has grown so largely in financial wealth, and progressed so rapidly in material resources and powers, that at the present day criminals of all classes, old and young, male and female, are in our ordinary Indian prisons mixed and mingled together, rather like brute beasts, than human beings; one cell in many cases common to all; one treatment the lot of all; one common neglect and disregard the fate of all; no ragged schools, no reformatories, no classification of prisoners; no provision as to moral propertics; no education of any kind, either as to the world that now is, or as to the world that is to come." Such is the editorial trash commenting on some accounts of Miss Carpenter's writing, and which

Mr. Howell most judiciously prints as an appendix, but otherwise passes it by, without remark.

Native newspapers on the subject of jails are sometimes amusing. In a recent paper the editor enumerates the hardships of prisoners, in their clothes being coarse, and not suited to keep out heat or cold; food the worst of its kind; the labor is too severe; prisoners soon lose absence of decency and modesty; and he concludes by enquiring, "whether out of the 20 crores of inhabitants of India, there is not a single person with friendly intentions towards the prisoners, to rise like the English Howard and effect their amelioration."

A comparison of native editors' ideas of what is, and of Miss Carpenter's account of what ought to be, the customs and practice of Indian jails would present some amusing features; the one dilates on matters with the absurdity of ignorance, the other works with an excess of philanthropy, which causes her to see facts with a coloring that no common people can understand, and to give opinions on subjects with which she is practically unacquainted.

If we do err at all in the state of our jails, it is in the excess of over-care, and one great object should be, to make a prison a real one, and not like a club to live in. It is a cry here, as it is in Europe, that we treat our prisoners better than our rural population, but we will now conclude in Mr. Howell's last words:—

"The Government of India and every Local Government have admitted that much remains to be done before the prisons in this country can be placed upon the satisfactory footing which has been attained within the last two or three years in England; but if blame is to be attached to short-comings, what has been effected should not altogether be ignored."

. The conclusion of this article was written in May last, press of matter has hitherto prevented its publication: it will now complete the subject in the volume for this year. While it is in type, however, a new Resolution has been taken by the Government of India, the substance of which we extract from the *Friend of India* of 25th November:—

For years it has been a first principle of jail administration, in Northern India at least, that no prisoner should be allowed to work outside the prison, as English convicts do. Much labour has thus been lost to the country and punishment to the convict, solely because it was found difficult to establish a proper organization for the purpose. Once more, under a new Governor-General who has ideas of his own on the subject, the employment of convicts on extraneous labour has been ordered. Something of the kind has become inevitable, since, two years ago, the transportation to Port Blair of any but life-term convicts was forbidden. If all the convicts sentenced to transportation were sent to Port Blair, there would be an annual importation of 3,000, and the settlement would be over-crowded. Moreover, apart from the expense of sending convicts there, each costs thirty rupees a month, and the settlement is popular. Henceforth, criminals sentenced to penal servitude for a shorter term than life are to be sent to the Central Jails. There all sentenced for more than one year will be employed in large bodies, under European supervision and rigid rules, on public works. Desperate characters and men of weak constitution will still be confined within the walls. For every year spent on out-door labour the convict will receive a remission of sentence not exceeding one month, and thus the inducements to escape will be diminished. On a grand scale, moral, financial, and administrative, the experiment is well worth careful trial.

ASYLUMS FOR INSANE.—Canada is following the States in providing these institutions. In the United States it has been estimated that fully 80 per cent. of those treated in such Asylums have been reclaimed. The experience of them in England has not been so favourable.

later time to the clear and positive statements on this subject put forward by Dr. Murray.

We notice this point particularly, because an assertion such as we have quoted from Dr. Bryden's work if uncontradicted, might lead to false impressions among those unacquainted with the existing feeling of the medical profession in India, on this very important subject.

Nor can Dr. Bryden himself escape from the dilemma which his rejection of the doctrine of the extension of epidemic cholera from man to man places him in, for he is obliged to admit its substance, although embracing it by the mystery of language common to the fathers of medicines; he says "there is yet another group of cases which occurs during an epidemic period, and then only, which has not its origin primarily from an air-conveyed cholera. *This group is made up of cases of cholera transmitted from those who have been subjected to the choleric influence, or from fomites impregnated with the virus of cholera.*" The instances of the dissemination of cholera by such agency may be comprised in a group termed "dependencies of outbreaks." But this is to be observed, that while the aggregate of a certain number of outbreaks of soil-born cholera constitutes a reproduction, which again has its place in an epidemic, there is no evidence to shew, that, in this country, any aggregate of cases of cholera derived secularly from true outbreaks through human agency, has ever, by the combination, produced the phenomena distinctive of a reproduction, that is, a provincial manifestation of cholera; and consequently, it never can have given rise to an epidemic."

We direct the reader's attention to this passage, as it will give him a good idea of Dr. Bryden's style. And further, we would point to the sentence we have italicized above for it seems to us to contain the very pith of the whole matter. If, as Dr. Bryden there admits, cholera is "transmissible from man to man, why in the name of goodness should he call this communicability of the disease it "dependencies of outbreaks;" this is decidedly one of "the most unaccountable perversions of the English language we ever met with, a use of our mother tongue which few ordinary mortals will comprehend; but we live to learn, and Dr. Bryden may yet prove to be correct.

Our own view of the matter is, that having seized the fact of the transmissibility of the disease from one person to another, he might have applied this doctrine to the splendid array of facts and figures, which have been thrown in his way, and which point in an unmistakable manner to the extension of cholera in all directions, with man, from its endemic area over this country. He would have recognised in the monsoon, not an agent which bears some mysterious earth-born cholera inducing influence over the country, but the means by which men, and merchandise, are carried along our great rivers, bearing the disease from Dacca, Calcutta, and other large cities in Lower Bengal; first to Bhangulpoor, then to Patna, and so on to Benares, Mirzapore, and Allahabad, and away up the Jumna to Agra, and Delhi. From Mirzapore he might have traced the progress of cholera into the Central Provinces, with the vast traffic carried on in this direction, and from Nagpore to Bombay, which is, however, another centre of cholera; we cannot but feel there is not one single fact or argument, in the whole of Dr. Bryden's report, that tends to shake our confidence in these opinions, but a vast deal, which had we space at our command, goes to prove the truth of these views.

Dr. Bryden, however, thinks otherwise: he is of opinion (p. 87) that "the essentials for manifest epidemic progress are three—(1), the presence of the cholera miasm; and (2), the humid atmosphere, which is in every case its vehicle and (3), the prevailing wind to give direction and limitation to this humid atmosphere." Of this mysterious miasm, Dr. Bryden gives us very hazy ideas, it is true he writes with confidence about its "invading districts," its "perennial existence," its "life period," it is "re-vitalized" and "re-produced," which is "equivalent of the budding of a tree or the flowering of a plant," but then, strange to say, it also swarms, "it is thrown off one swarm, up to the date of the exit of the swarm succeeding." In fact, if the reader can form a definite conception of the nature or properties of the cholera inducing matter, as described by Dr. Bryden it is more than we have succeeded in doing, although we have read every word of his report from beginning to end.

Much of the history of cholera in India given by Dr. Bryden was published last year in this journal, from the original documents at present in the office of the Inspector-General of Hospitals; it will be unnecessary, therefore, for us to weary the readers of the *Indian Medical Gazette*, by a reproduction of the facts so lately brought to his notice in the pages of this periodical.

From the above remarks, it is evident our views as to the nature of cholera are diametrically opposed to those of Dr. Bryden, and we have felt it to be our duty to write without reserve on so important a subject. At the same time we cannot conclude this Review without cordially thanking Dr. Bryden for his work on cholera; as a compilation of statistics bearing on the circumstances of the disease in Bengal, the report is invaluable, and will be eagerly consulted by professional men in this country, and even more so by those in Europe, for it contains a mine of information on the progress of cholera in India.

Extracts.

MODERN PHYSIOLOGY has been enriched by a number of ingenious instruments for assisting us in the study of the motions which take place in the body. By means of the ophthalmometer, the movements of the crystalline lens have been accurately measured, and the changes it undergoes when we look at near or distant objects absolutely determined. Nerve force, which until lately was supposed to travel with such wonderful rapidity, that "quick as thought" actually became a proverb, has, by means of Helmholtz's myograph, had the rate of its transmission along a nerve accurately estimated; and it turns out that, after all, this mode of energy moves with snail-like slowness when compared with the rate at which light and electricity travel. The movements which take place in the respiratory and circulatory systems are now being studied by means of numerous instruments of great ingenuity. We no longer trust our easily misled sense of touch when we want to accurately ascertain many obscure facts with regard to the pulse. In performing an experiment upon the circulatory system, we no longer estimate the force of the heart's action by merely feeling the pulse, or by observing the distance to which the blood is projected from a divided artery; we accurately measure the force and record the movements of the heart by means of suitable apparatus. These various instruments have been called "instruments of precision," inasmuch as they have rendered definite what could be only conjectural, or at best doubtfully ascertained, before their introduction. A great feature in many of them is the employment of a graphic method, by means of which the facts ascertained through their aid may be recorded. Thus we have the myograph, for recording the movements of muscles; the sphygmograph, for the respiratory movements; the cardiograph, kymograph, and sphygmograph, for registering movements which take place in the circulatory system. By means of these instruments, movements are recorded on revolving cylinders or on flat surfaces, so that a tracing or writing, indicating the character and extent of the motion, may be preserved. A very important advance has taken place in physiology since this ingenious method was introduced. We owe it to our countryman, Thomas Young, who invented it while prosecuting some researches in physics; but to Vierordt and Helmholtz in Germany, and Marey in France, must be awarded the credit of having introduced it into physiological research.—*Dr. Rutherford's Introductory Lecture on Physiology, reported in the Lancet.*

HYPODERMIC INJECTION OF SOLUTION OF MERCURY.—M. Bonilhon gives a formula for a solution of mercury, which is free from the ordinary disadvantages attending the injection of the soluble salts of this metal, such as suppuration, sloughiness, &c. The salt he recommends is a double compound of iodide of mercury and iodine of water, the watery solution of which, in the proportion of 1:66 to 100 of water, can be injected subcutaneously to the extent of twenty drops, with a pure silver syringe, without danger. The salt is obtained by the saturation of a boiling hot solution of iodide of sodium (1:4) with iodide of mercury, and subsequent dilution with twenty times its weight of cold water. Iodide of mercury is precipitated, whilst the double salt remains in solution. The crystals are evanescent, and possess a yellow colour when hydrated, but assume a lively red tint when dried.—(*Centralblatt, No. 35*)—*The Practitioner.*

We learn from Mr. Wharton Jones that his opinion is in favour of a complete physiological antagonism between calabar bean and atropine; an antagonism which is much more direct than that between atropine and morphia, which seems directly

mental, while the composition between strontine and calabar bean is essential and specific. (Mr. Jones had recently succeeded in treating a case of complete paralysis of the third nerve of an emaciated character with the bean, and deduced some important results of its action, which are to be published).—*Ibid.*

CHLOROFORM AND COMPOUND TINCTURE OF CAMPHOR IN CHOLIC.—The most essential under the name of "chloroform" is a compound of chloroform and morphia, &c., but is not nearly so effectual as this combination. In twenty minims of chloroform there are, I believe, only two minims and a half of chloroform; whereas I use in the smallest quantity of chloroform that will produce an noticeable effect. I have given as much as one drachm in a single dose, but ten to twenty minims is in most cases an effectual dose. With the chloroform, one or two drachms of compound tincture of camphor should be prescribed if pain be not relieved in twenty, or ten, twenty, or forty minims of "batter's" combination of morphia, morphia, if more severe. This combination quickly relieves pain, and induces sleep in a few minutes, and its effects are more lasting than those of an opiate alone. It ought to be given in some thickish solution, such as mucilage, otherwise the chloroform will fall to the bottom.—*Dr. Marshall of Philadelphia, in the Glasgow Medical Journal.*

SPONGE TENTS.—Knowing the fact that absolute or strontine wool will quickly set the fibres of common sponge, after having been moulded or compressed into any given size or shape, I was led to the following quick and easy method of preparing sponge tents, tampons, &c.:

The sponge is first thoroughly moistened with water and pressed as dry as the strength of the hand will permit, then again formed into the desired shape and size by the hand, or by pressing into a pill or any other tube or mould, it is immersed into the alcohol. If the spirit is sufficiently strong (90 to 100 per cent.), the sponge is immediately set into the given shape, which it retains perfectly after the pressure or mould is removed. It is then hard, firm, and inflexible, and may be trimmed to a snarp point or any other desired shape. To reduce it to its former size and shape, it is only necessary to moisten it with a few drops of water. The alcohol sets the sponge perfectly, whether the amount of compression be much or little, so that the degree of dilatation, attainable by use of tents thus prepared, will, of course, depend upon the size after moulding, and the degree of pressure used. As this process of preparation works perfectly and without delay, its advantages are obvious.—*Dr. J. B. Hough, in Cincinnati Lancet and Observer.*

DR. T. D'ALMEIDA, of the M. G. L. University, gives the following as one of the cases pursued by trichinae.—"Foreslow in the opinion of a semi-dilatated condition, it passes at once into the dilatated state, where it becomes fixed from its size, and increases in size, here the greater enlargement becomes apparent, and from three to thirty-seven days it hangs, both its head; having accomplished this, the two eyelids close, it then perforates the eyelids, and falls to the ground."

The young trichinae, liberated within the small intestine, presumably pass to the walls and pass to the striated muscular tissue through the body of the heart excepted, by the process of vaso-dilatation, made by the current of the circulation; here they increase greatly in size, and their intestinal canal becomes re-canalized. In the course of twenty to twenty-five days, from the period of birth of the young trichinae, by an unknown process, perhaps as the natural result of its own suggested longevity, it, they move to the liver, retaining the power of maintaining their stage, only to progress for a great many years.—*Cochin Medical Journal.*

M. DE LA SERRA, in *The Relation of Leucocytes in Health to Disease*.—*The Brit. M. Medical Journal*, in illustrating a recent paper, by Herr Neumann, in the *Centralblatt für die Naturgeschichte der Medicin*, states that Neumann's scientific theory that the leucocytes develop blood-cells, has received confirmation by the observations of M. Bizzozero. Among other things, this observer has established the condition of the marrow in the bone of a young man, compared with the summer, furnishes an important argument in favour of the theory, that marrow is a blood-producing organ. In winter, the white corpuscles in the marrow do not half so numerous as they are in summer, and in winter

the marrow consists almost entirely of fat cells, whereas in summer it contains hardly a trace of fat cells. The experiments examined the costal marrow and there were five cases of a fall from typhus fever, and observed in the striated muscle an enormous increase of cells containing brown corpuscles.—*Popular Science Review.*

THE USES OF CARBOLIC ACID.—Mr. Lawson, F. G. S. Bellevue, that this is not a fact in a dilute form, is an antidote to all parasitic life; it is known now to destroy all the low forms of life, whether animal or vegetable. This is now certain, he says, that carbolic acid will kill all septa germs, and thus remove many causes of disease, and that glycerine is a very valuable preservative, that carbolic acid is freely soluble in glycerine, and that their united application has resulted in the speedy cure of some of the most dangerous diseases. The following are directions for use:—As a rub, it is better to dissolve the crystallized carbolic acid (Calvert's) in the proportions of one part by weight of the acid to six of glycerine (*Carbolic Acid Glycerine*). In this state it can be easily diluted to any degree of strength. In general, a dose of carbolic acid is one gram in an ounce of water. As a gargle, one to two grains to an ounce of water. As an injection, one grain to four ounces of water. As a lotion, 15 grains to an ounce of water. As an ointment, 20 grains to an ounce of benzoin tincture. As a wash, one part to 20 of water. As a plaster, one part of carbolic acid to five parts of starch. The crystallized carbolic acid may be used as a capsule. The carbolate of glycerine, as above, may be used in two or three doses, internally. Antiseptic for abscesses, one part of acid to four of boiled lard or oil. Antiseptic for the eye, six spoonfuls of the antiseptic oil mixed with whitening. Antiseptic solution of carbolic acid is one part of acid to 40 of water, (one ounce of acid to a quart of hot water well agitated and filtered). Stokers, use *disinfect*, place a portion of the dissolved crystals in a porcelain dish, and place it in a larger vessel of hot water. *Disinfecting purpises*, generally, one pound of crystals to six gallons of water. *Fluid acid*, one part to 20 of water. *Fluid acid*, one ounce of crystals with four ounces of slaked lime. For *drains*, one ounce of the fluid carbolic acid to five gallons of warm water. *Toothache* is often cured with one drop of carbolate of glycerine, and *diarrhoea* arrested in half an hour with two drops in a wine-glass of water. In all cases of *parasitic* life it is advisable to commence with very dilute carbolate of glycerine. Inasmuch as carbolic acid will destroy the power of *vacuolous* cells, it becomes an interesting inquiry as to the possibility of using carbolic acid internally as a preventive, so as to fortify the human system against the incoming of zymotic diseases.—*Pharmaceutical Journal.*

THE TELESCOPE-VIEWER: an instrument invented by M. Revel, the French architect. It is a combination of telescope and prism, and presents great advantages over the camera lucida. As the name implies, the new instrument enables a draughtsman to trace large objects at a great distance on a large scale.—*Scientific Opinions.*

A new and very easy method of acquiring and preserving talent in the intelligence has been discovered. Simply to eat fish. Our author is the celebrated Agassiz, who, in his recent book, *The Education of Children of Massa-husetts on the preservative and propagation of fish*, writes as follows:—

"It enters largely into the requirements of the human organism. It is an aliment refreshing to the system, especially after active and fatiguing. No other nutriment provides for the outgoing of the spinal, of the excesses of the head, so completely as fish, and the portion of the fat may be found in the world. The brain starts of places easy to the sea are always the most abundant."

"The condition of the system in great quantity, a chemical element in the system, is essential to the normal development. It is not the only element for the excessive use of fish can make a wise diet, and it is not the only element that the brain ought not to be deprived of, but it is one of the elements."—*The Medical Press and Review.*

The history of treatment of blood, which have been published by Prof. von Landois of the University of Greifswald, state that this fluid has been prepared 29 times in cases of hæmorrhage. Out of these 14 cases were so grave, that no favourable result could be hoped for. In the 88 remaining, the result was satisfactory, in 3 it was doubtful. The operation had been performed in 12 cases of poisoning, in 3 of which the results were favourable.—*Ibid.*

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