

# THE Medical Record.

*A Review of the Progress of Medicine, Surgery,  
Obstetrics and the Allied Sciences.*

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THE

## Medical Record.

FRIDAY, JANUARY 21, 1873.

SCHUEPPEL ON THE ORIGIN AND  
STRUCTURE OF TUBERCLE.

In the undemanded three treatises, Dr. Schüppel gives the results of elaborate investigations on the structure and mode of origin of tubercle, based in the main on examination of the lymphatic glands, but confirmed in all essential points by similar examination of tubercle in other tissues and organs. The views which he has thus been led to entertain differ very materially from those commonly held, and are of great interest and importance.

In order to obtain a correct idea of the structure and mode of origin of tubercles, he insists on the necessity of examining them in the earliest stage of their development; and he finds, contrary to the notion generally held, that the lymphatic glands are extremely well adapted for this purpose. It is, however, necessary to select glands in which the tubercles are not yet visible to the naked eye; for, by the time they have attained such a size, they will be found to have already undergone retrograde changes. He recommends glands to be selected from the territory of a tuberculous organ, and says that in many cases they will be found to be the seat of tubercles. Such glands should be hardened for about eight or ten days in a 3 per cent. solution of chromic acid, which should be frequently changed, and then kept for about four days in strong alcohol. The sections should be rendered transparent by glycerine, and may advantageously be coloured by carmine. He cautions against the use of spirit for hardening in the first instance.

The following are the principal conclusions at which he has arrived.

First, as to the structure of tubercles: he finds that a tubercle does not consist of a collection of small round cells lying in the meshes of an adenoid reticulum, and which, therefore, may be

classed with the lymphomata, or tumors having a structure analogous to the lymphatic glands; but that it is a growth with a well-defined structure peculiar to itself, which has nothing to do with the lymphomata, or with the allied inflammatory new formations.

According to him, a tubercle consists of the following elements:—1. Multinucleated giant-cells resembling the myelophages of the myxoid or giant-called sarcoma; 2. Large cells of an epithelial type; 3. Small round cells like lymphocytes; 4. A peculiar reticulum, in the meshes of which these cells lie. Tubercles are also characterised by being absolutely non-vascular.

The giant-cell he regards as the most essential element of a tubercle, which in every case originates by the formation of such a cell. In a fully developed tubercle, the number of these giant-cells varies from one to eight or ten. They differ very much in size and shape, are often angular and furnished with branching processes, and may contain from two or three to fifty or sixty nuclei.

The bulk of the tubercle is made up of the second element, viz., large nucleated cells of an epithelial type. They are roundish, angular, or fusiform in shape; their long diameter varies from two to over one millimetre. They possess a finely granular protoplasm without any distinct cell-wall, and are furnished with homogeneous vesicular nucleolated nuclei, with a long diameter varying from one cell to over one millimetre. Most of the cells contain only one nucleus, but sometimes two or three are present. These cells surround the giant-cells on all sides, and fill the meshes of the tubercular reticulum. The small round cells, like lymphocytes, which occur singly or in clusters among the other cells, so far from being the essential element of tubercle, he regards as not belonging to the tubercle at all, but as originating in irritation of the intertubercular structures, or of the remains of the tissues in which the tubercles are deposited. As soon, too, as a tubercle has begun to undergo retrograde changes, numerous nuclei, either naked or furnished with scanty remains of protoplasm, become visible; they originate from the disintegration of the giant and epithelial cells.

The peculiar structure of tubercle has a considerable resemblance to the structure of adenoid tissue; its meshes are generally wider, but are of very irregular size and sometimes extremely small; and its trabeculae have a finely granular, softer, and more protoplasmic appearance, and are more frequently furnished with nuclei at their nodes, and thus more closely resemble infantile adenoid tissue.

\* I. Untersuchungen über Lymphdrusen-Tuberkel (Anatomie des Pathologischen Zustands der Lymphdrüsen-Glanden). By Dr. Oscar Schüppel, Professor of Pathological Anatomy and General Pathology at Tübingen, pp. 1-24. Tübingen, 1870.

II. Unter die Bezeichnung der Fibrosen im Tubercolo (die Ursache der Ulcerationen im Tubercolo). By Dr. Oscar Schüppel. "Wagner's Archiv der Halsklinik," vol. xii. p. 45. 1870.

III. Unter die Identität der Tubercolo mit der Prostata (Über die Anatomie der Tubercolo und die Pathologie derselben). By Dr. Oscar Schüppel. "Wagner's Archiv," p. 51. 1870.

long been recognized as a more or less constant element in tubercles. They have been described by Rokitansky in 1833, by Virchow in 1851, by Wagner in 1861, by Busch, Langhans, Klebs, and Küster. The epitheliom-like cells have also been noticed by many other observers—in Langhans, Küster, &c.

Such is the structure of a tubercle when it has reached its full development. This stage, however, is very short, and in the lymphatic glands does not extend over more than a few days; regressive changes then set in. These are—  
1. Necrosis, leading to cavitation and its consequences, calcification and softening;  
2. The transformation of the cellular tubercle into a fibrous tubercle;  
3. The formation of concretions and calcaceous bodies in the centre of the tubercle (not to be confounded with the calcification of tubercles);  
4. Resorption, which is probably always preceded by necrosis.

Certain points of interest occur in the description of these processes. Thus Dr. Schüppel finds that, in the lymphatic glands, the necrosis and cavitation are often not confined to the tubercle itself, but extend to the intervening portions of the gland. This has been wrongly ascribed to a diffuse tuberculosis of the gland, which, however, never takes place; the individual tubercles always remain distinct, and never exceed 0·3 millimetre in diameter. The necrosis of the intervening tissues is probably caused by the pressure of the growing tubercles.

In his description of the formation of fibrous tubercles, the author differs entirely from Virchow, inasmuch as he considers that the fibrous tubercle is originally an ordinary cellular tubercle, and becomes converted in the following manner. The tubercles of the circumferential parts of its reticulum become thicker at the expense of the epithelioid cells, and become transformed into a glassy, almost homogeneous, slightly streaked connective tissue. A similar change also takes place in the surrounding reticulum of the gland. The contained epithelioid cells become granular, crumble down, and disappear; and at the same time the centre of the tubercle becomes caseous, and thus the whole tubercle assumes the form of a tiny subiliary fistula, with a cheesy centre. He thinks it possible that the cheesy centre may ultimately become absorbed, and thus give rise to the milky fistulae met with in the lymphatic glands.

The formation of concentrically laminated concretions, closely resembling brain-and, occasionally occur in tubercles of the lymphatic glands; they appear to be always attached to the giant-cells.

Absorption of the tubercle the author considers only to take place to a very limited extent; and he points out the contradiction between the idea that tubercle may heal by absorption, and the modern views as to the infective nature of the tubercular disease.

With regard to the seat and mode of origin of tubercles in the lymphatic glands, Dr. Schüppel differs entirely from other observers. He finds that the tubercle is invariably situated in the highly vascular follicle of the gland, and never occupies the lymphatic, or stands in any connection with the fibrous septa; and he believes that the first giant-cell from which the tubercle is developed is formed in the interior of a blood-vessel, generally a capillary vein. He thus stands in direct opposition to those pathologists who, like Virchow, ascribe the formation of tubercles to proliferation of connective tissue-cells, or, like Klebs and Rindfuss, to the proliferation of the endothelia, especially of the lymphatics and lymph-sheaths of the small arteries.

W. CAVELL, M.D.

(To be continued.)

#### CLARKE AND AMORY ON THE BROMIDES OF POTASSIUM AND OF AMMONIUM.\*

(Continued from page 26.)

Bromism just uncorrectly occurs where these drugs are taken several times a day for some time. The phenomena occur much more readily in some persons than in others. They do not happen when only one dose, even large, is taken daily, and are not likely to arise if this be divided, provided the doses are taken *succ. cunctis*, whereby there occurs a period each day when the system is almost free from bromine. Bromism usually occurs when a household galss is divided doses are taken daily (Eckermann on Epilepsy). The following are the phenomena narrated by Dr. Clarke under bromism:—Arousal, salivation, and talkative; irritation of the fauces, generally with edema and redness (*Vulva, Vulva Colubra ad Thymopentum*), and sometimes with painless (*Gallus, Gallus Colubra ad Thymopentum*, &c.); moderate anesthesia of the pharynx, laryngeal-bronchial weakness, sometimes with cough, sometimes with a changed or whispering voice; full or hoarse breath; occasional staggering; increase of nasal secretion; diminution of mucous secretion generally; slight constipation, and, in a few rare instances, diarrhea; sense of inertness and physical languor or weakness; sometimes temporary impairment of memory; general aspect of listlessness and indifference; more or less insensibility; repression and occasional temporary abolition of sexual desire and power; impaired locomotion, which, when the dose is excessive, resembles the gait of locomotor-

\* *An Abstract of the Physiological and Therapeutical Action of the Bromides of Potassium and the Bromide of Ammonium.* By Dr. FRANCIS H. CLARKE and Dr. SAMUEL AMORY. Boston: James Campbell, 1872.

atory; diminished nervous sensibility in general, especially diminution of reflex sensibility. Sight and hearing are unaffected. The conjunctive, like the fucus, are often congested, but the optic nerve is unaffected' (J. V. Labora, *Archives de Physiologie*, May, 1868). 'The appetite and digestion are unimpaired; tactile sensibility, the sense of temperature and of tickling, appear to be imperfectly conducted, but really are unimpaired; intellect and emotion may seem sluggish; but, when roused, they act normally. It does not alter the chemical constitution of the secretions.' After an excessive dose, 'sympathetic overaction on congestion of the uvula and fauces; the whispering voice sinks into aphonia; visual weakness degenerates into impotency; muscular weakness becomes complete paralysis; reflex, general, and special sensations disappear; hearing, sight, and taste are lost; the mind becomes insentient, and there occur hallucinations of sight and sound, with or without raves; the pupils are dilated and uncontractile.'

Dr. Clarke estimates that two-thirds of his patients who took the bromide several times a day suffered from acne, but he has never known it to result from less than daily. The spots of tonic acne vary in size from a millet-seed to a large pea, and may be few or many; they affect mostly the scalp, face, and back. They generally disperse without suppuration. They do not scar. They are often much controlled, and quickly dispersed, if iodide of sulphur be smeared several times a day over the hardness as soon as it is felt.

Dr. Clarke agrees with Zupelli (*These pour le Docteur*, Paris, 1869) that bromide of potassium affects the reflex irritability, but not the sensibility of the pharynx; thus irritation will not evoke degitation, but the pain of operations is not lessened. He also agrees with Volant that thirty grains may not impair pharyngeal sensibility, it being sometimes necessary to repeat this dose two or three times, a few hours apart. In administering bromides, Zupelli advises taking coffee with the meal, to increase the therapeutic energy of the medicine and to diminish bromism. He also says that five or ten minims of Fowler's solution with each dose, if ablution baths be also given, will prevent acne. Moderate doses given several times daily increase the hypnotic action of hydiate of chloral, hyoscyamus, camphor, trichlor, laudanum, ether, or chloroform.

Bromides must be taken several times a day for several days before the sexual functions and sexual appetite become affected. Their effects vary greatly; in some they cause only moderate diminution, in others temporary impairment of these functions. On discontinuing them the sexual organs regain their lost powers. Dr. Clarke quotes Zupelli, who says that 'bromide of potassium seems to effect particularly the phenomena of reflex irritability, whose seat, according to some authors, is at the orifice of the ejaculatory canal. The passage of the bromised urine over this orifice produces a local anaesthesia, and so takes away the point of departure of the reflex action (the excitatory point) of an erection.'

Dr. Clarke recommends bromide of potassium in bronchitis, if the cough be paroxysmal, and in excess of the physical signs (and expectoration); when it affords more relief than opium; also in sore throat, without redness or swelling, but accompanied with frequent and violent hawking and spitting, and in difficult degitation of a spasmodic character, whether hysterical or not. He employs this salt in ten-grain

doses during the day, and gives twenty or thirty grains more in a single dose at night, in terminal convulsions, whether due to 'local irritation' or to 'sexual and erotic feelings.' It reduces sexual excitement in women, in those sad instances of hysterical excitement which verge on nymphomania. In all these affections small doses are unrivaled. Not less than twenty grains thrice daily will exert a decided control over excessive sexual propensities. (*Médecine Native et Coloniale*.) 'Frequent nocturnal and incontinence of urine, connected with nervous disturbance of a local or general character, are ameliorated, and sometimes permanently removed, by bromides. In like manner, vaginismus occasionally yields to these medicines.' Injection of solution of bromide of potassium, retained in the vagina for ten minutes twice a day, may be advantageously employed in addition to the internal administration of the medicine.

Menstrual trouble, such as titillity, irritability of temper, broken sleep, apprehension of serious evil, flakings, numbness, and deranged sensations, are more controlled by bromides of potassium than by any other drug. It should be given only when the nervous disturbances are excessive, and should be continued for two or three weeks.

The bromides are useful in angina pectoris. Two grains should be given three times a day, and a thirty-grain dose at the onset of a paroxysm, being repeated in half an hour or an hour if necessary. Like angina pectoris, whooping cough and asthma are only occasionally benefited by these medicines, and the symptoms indicating their use are at present unknown.

In neuralgia, Dr. Clarke agrees with Astell (*Neuralgias and the Diseases that accompany it*), that in most cases bromides are quite useless. 'The patient must not have entered on the period of involution-degeneration.'

These salts will benefit by the bromides are subjects, especially women, in whom a certain restless hyperactivity of mind, and perhaps of body, seems to be the expression of nature's unconscious remonstrance of the neglect of sexual functions.' The medicine must be given in large doses, and it may be increased until thirty grains are taken daily.

Headache accompanying grief or worry, and also sick headache, where the pains, etc., precede and predominate over the gastric symptoms, often yield to bromides. The medicine must be given as soon as the attack begins, in twenty-grain doses, repeated hourly till the system is completely under its influence. It is also useful as a prophylactic, given daily in moderate doses.

Dr. Clarke's experience of bromides on epilepsy is too small to allow him to speak authoritatively of their efficacy. On this subject he quotes Volant, who says (*Maladies Génériques et Thérapeutiques*, May 1871): 'I have employed for many years a method which has given me the best results, and which consists in determining the condition of reflex masses, by introducing a speculum far as the epiglottis. I have remarked that a therapeutic dose of the bromide of potassium is not attained till reflex masses are suppressed; it is not till then that the bulb is completely acted on, and its excitatory force diminished. . . . The study of other reflex phenomena, such as lacrymation, cough, and sneezing, enables us to follow the action of the medicine upon the bulb and the spinal cord. The dose should not be increased beyond the suppression of reflex masses, but it should be given continuously for years together.'

If the malady be ameliorated or in process of cure, at the end of two years of administration the remedy, instead of being administered every day, may be given every second, third, or fourth day, provided reflex attacks be always and certainly absent. Voit considers the early appearance of tonic effects a good, their late appearance a bad augury. He says that bromide are useful in all forms of convulsions, as the phenomena "are the product of an exaltation of the auto-motor force of the body," which bromides of potassium can always moderate if it cannot suppress it. This remedy suppresses the fits, even when it fails to dispel completely the attacks. It has less influence over vertigo than over convulsive attacks. "It generally succeeds less well with children than with adults."

Dr. Clarke finds that bromide of potassium is very useful in epigastric hysteria. It must be continued from six to twelve months.

Dr. Clarke refers to M. Saussot's observations (*Thèse, Paris, 1868*) concerning the antagonism between the actions of bromide of potassium and strychnine on the medulla and spinal cord; bromide contracting the blood-vessels, strychnine dilating them, and heightening reflex excitability. He injected strychnine into one leg of a dog, and bromide of potassium into another. There occurred convulsions and tonic stiffness of the strychnized foot, but none in the other (and yet these results could not be due to any effect on the cord). "Next he injected a mixture of strychnine and bromide; the convulsions were double and their duration abridged, and the animals lived longer than after an equal dose of either agent singly." Brown-Séquard notices the same.

The physiological and therapeutic action of bromide of ammonium. Dr. Clarke considers identical with those of bromide of potassium. The ammonium salt, however, possesses a more disagreeable taste, and is more irritating. Dr. Clarke agrees with Brown-Séquard that it is useful to combine these two salts, thereby heightening their sedative action: ten grains of bromide of potassium with three or five of bromide of ammonium yielding a greater sedative effect than twelve or fifteen grains of either administered alone. This combination they consider less liable to produce bromia. Dr. Kehrer disputes these assertions.

Bromide of lithium acts like the potassium salt. According to Dr. Weir Mitchell, the lithium salt is a more powerful and rapid hypnotic and narcotic, in some cases of epilepsy, &c., which have proved rebellious to the potassium salt.

SYDNEY RINGER, M.D.

#### VOIT ON THE NUTRITIVE VALUE OF GELATIN.<sup>1</sup>

Although gelatin is largely used as an article of food, considerable uncertainty has hitherto prevailed regarding its nutritive value. So highly was it esteemed at the time of the first French Revolution, that Papin, Proust, D'Arsonval, Pelletier, and Cadet de Vaux having shown that considerable quantities of it could be extracted from bones, the French government issued a proclamation to the effect that "a bone is a natural cake of preserved soup; a pound of bones yields as much soup as six pounds of meat; soup from bones is to be preferred to soup from

meat, and the bone handles of knives and forks, or a dozen bone buttons, are just so much soup stolen from the pot." Galen did not retain this high reputation very long; and the labours of Desnoe, Gaillard, Edwards, and Balme, and of Magendie, brought it more and more into discredit till Jan. 22, 1850, when the Academy of Medicine in Paris, on Béthard's report, proclaimed that gelatin only causes disturbance of the digestive organs, and has no nutritive whatever to be regarded as nutritious. The investigations of Voth, Bernatz and Barreschi, Rossignol, Ferriola, Mauder, and Donders not being sufficient to settle the true value of gelatin, Volt undertook a series of experiments, in which he fed dogs on gelatin and flesh, on gelatin alone, on gelatin and fat, on flesh and fat, and on gelatin, flesh and fat. In these experiments he forcibly gave to the dog each day its allotted quantity of food, and thus avoided the fallacy arising from the animal's occasionally refusing to eat, which vitiated the results obtained by Magendie and others. Volt's own observations show that gelatin leaves the consumption of albumin in the organism, so that a less quantity of flesh is sufficient for an animal's food when gelatin is given along with it. The power of gelatin in this respect is greater than that of fat or carbo-hydrates. Its effect is increased when fat is given with it.

But gelatin alone will not suffice for nutrition, for it only diminishes the consumption of albumin in the body, but does not arrest it. If sufficient albumin to supply this waste be not contained in the food, the albumin contained in the organs and tissues will be destroyed, and death will ensue. In order to explain this action of gelatin, Volt (*Zentralblatt für Medizin*, vol. viii, p. 297) gives an exposition of his views regarding the manner in which albumin undergoes destruction in the organism. When a dog is well fed with flesh, &c., the amount of albumin destroyed daily in the body (and consequently urea, &c., excreted) will be very considerable; but when it is allowed to fast for several days, the daily destruction of albumin becomes diminished, to an enormous extent, although the weight of the body is not much lessened. For example, if a well-fed dog, weighing 3,000 grams, be deprived of food for eight days, the quantity of albumin destroyed in its body on the eighth day will be only 1/16th of that destroyed on the first day of fasting, although the weight has only fallen to 4,445 grams. If the quantity of albumin destroyed on the first day bore the same proportion to the weight of the body as that on the eighth, the weight of the dog on the first day would be eighteen times as much as on the eighth, i.e. 54,000 grams, instead of 3,000 as in reality. When the fasting dog again receives albuminous food, the destruction of albumin in its body at once increases enormously. These facts show that the albumin in the organism is very unequally decomposed, one part of it being transformed rapidly while another part undergoes slow disintegration. Volt has, therefore, been induced to divide it into two classes:—(1) Circulating albumin, or albumin which is present in the circulating fluid or lymph, and is rapidly decomposed during the process of circulation through the tissues. (2) Organ-albumin, which is contained in the tissues or organs. So long as it continues to be organ-albumin it is not decomposed, for it is not subjected to the conditions of decomposition; but it may, and does, undergo conversion into circulating albumin, and is then decomposed. This conversion takes place when the normal equilibrium between circulating albumin and organ-albumin is disturbed,

<sup>1</sup> Vom. Ueber die Bedeutung des Gelatins für die Ernährung. (*Zentralblatt für Medizin*, vol. viii.)

as by synapsis, which, by removing part of the circulating, leaves an excessive proportion of organ-albumin. The excess is not retained in the body, but is converted into circulating albumin and decomposed. In the normal condition the destruction of organ-albumin is very slow, though it is constantly going on. The greater part of the albumin taken as food never becomes organ-albumin, but circulates in the current of plasma\* and is decomposed, while only a small proportion of it goes to repair the waste of organ-albumin, or be deposited in the organism. Voit believes that the common site that albumin is converted into peptones by the digestive fluids in the intestinal canal before it can be absorbed, is completely erroneous. He cannot see why we should assume that, because albuminous substances will not pass readily through vegetable parchment or dead animal membranes, they cannot pass through the intestinal walls, when they do so with ease through every possible membrane and organ in the body. He believes that only a small proportion of the albumin introduced into the digestive canal is converted into peptones, the greater part of it being absorbed without losing its albuminous character. Fick has also observed the great decomposition of albumin indicated by increased excretion of urea which follows the injection of albumin. As he holds the common idea that the greater part of albuminous food is changed into peptones, and only a small part absorbed unaltered, he compares the rapid increase of decomposition to the blaze which occurs when a very combustible substance like gunpowder (to which he compares the peptones), is added to a slowly burning one like charcoal (which would represent albumin). Voit, believing, as he does, that it is always albumin which is decomposed both after eating and during fasting, is inclined rather to compare the process to the blaze caused by the addition of chips of wood to a slowly burning log of the same material. He supposes that during fasting very little albumin is decomposed, but every supply of food increases the current of plasma towards the organs, and thus brings much albumin under the conditions of decomposition. The theory of so-called leisure-consumers agrees with Voit's, in so far as according to it very little albumin is destroyed in the organs. He considers, however, that only so much albumin as will replace this waste is necessary, and regards any additional supply as an unnecessary surplus which undergoes combustion in the blood. Voit, on the contrary, regards the organs as the site of decomposition, and considers that an abundant supply of albumin over and above what will repair the waste in the tissues is not a superfluity (luxus), but a necessity, if the body is not to lose albumin. That that although gelatin lessens the decomposition of albumin in the body, it cannot arrest it completely, any more than fat or carbohydrates can, is simply explained by the supposition that it cannot replace wasted organ-albumin or build up organs as tissues. No new blood-corpoles, no new muscular fibres, nor even new gelatinous tissues, can be formed from it to supply the place of those which have become disintegrated. In this respect it behaves like peptones, which are likewise derivatives of albuminous substances or products of their decomposition. Gelatin is no plastic nutrient, in the sense in which

Lichtig uses the term. But when gelatin alone is given, less organ-albumin is converted into circulating, and thus the organism loses less albumin. When gelatin is administered along with a small quantity of albumin, a much less proportion of the albumin contained in the food is decomposed, and a much smaller amount is, therefore, sufficient to supply the wants of the body. The same occurs when gelatin is given along with a large quantity of albumin, and in this case more albumin is stored up. If albumin be given alone without gelatin, much more of it is required to prevent the organism from losing albumin, since that contained in the food is chiefly converted into circulating albumin and decomposed. Gelatin likewise passes into the current of plasma, and becomes subjected to the conditions of decomposition; and as it, like peptones, is more readily decomposed than the albumin of the plasma, it takes the place of the latter to some extent, and saves a part of it from destruction. The proportion of circulating albumin being thus kept up, there is no necessity for that conversion of organ-albumin into circulating, which would otherwise be necessary to keep up the balance between the two parts. The destruction of albumin being therefore less, a much smaller quantity of it will suffice to repair waste or even to supply some which will be stored up in the organism. It is probable also that, in addition to its power to save albumin, gelatin lessens the destruction of fat, though only to a very slight extent. Gelatin is therefore a most valuable nutriment, which deserves much attention. Voit is far from recommending that much albumin should be withdrawn from the food and replaced by gelatin, for much gelatin easily causes disgust, and, when taken for a long time and in large quantities, perhaps produces disease in the intestines; but when its use is rightly understood and it is properly employed, the best results may be expected from it.

T. LATIMER BETTISON, M.D.

## ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY.

E. BRÜCKE ON THE CARBO-SULPHURIC AND THE MOLE IN WHICH THEY ARE EXCITED AND ASSORBED.—Dr. E. Brücke's researches on this subject are contained in the *Wiener Sitzungsberichte der Medizin. Naturw. Cl.*, Vol. 16, Part II.

1. *Sulphur, Sulphate, and Glycogen.*—In the first part of his paper, Brücke enters into a very minute description of the different kinds of dextrin and their properties. The properties of what has been called dextrin have been variously described by different investigators. The substance which Biot called dextrin turned blue with iodine, while Béchamp described under the same name a substance which did not become coloured by iodine, and attributed the reaction of Biot's dextrin to admixture with soluble starch. In German text-books, it is generally stated that dextrin becomes violet or wine-red with iodine. Nasse shows that this colour is a mixture of a blue, depending on soluble starch (pantholite), and of a red, which is due to tree dextrin. Béchamp's dextrin, which does not become coloured, he calls desvitrinase. Very contradictory statements are also made by different writers on the reaction of dextrin with alkaline copper solution.<sup>1</sup>

Brücke agrees with Nasse in regarding the

\* The word plasma here signifies the intestinal fluid or lymph which bathes the tissues.

violet colour as due to a mixture of dextrin and starch. In order to avoid confusion with regard to the substances whose properties are so differently given, he proposes the name *Achroedextrin* for Naess's destrinogen (Büchmann's dextrin), and the term *Erythroedextrin* for Naess's dextrin, the substance which is passed red by iodine. He finds that neither erythroedextrin, prepared by Payer's method from roasted starch, nor achroedextrin, prepared from starch by digestion with malt, or by the action of sulphuric acid, reduces copper solution. The reduction of copper by commercial dextrin depends on the presence of sugar. He therefore, in the course of his paper, recognises the following substances:—  
 1. Starch which is turned blue by iodine, of which there are two varieties: (a) unchanged and neutral (Klebs); (b) soluble (amylolysin); 2. Erythroedextrin, turned red by iodine; 3. Achroedextrin, not coloured by iodine, precipitated by alcohol from watery solutions; 4. Sugar, which reduces copper and becomes brown with potash. Grisebach, whose dextrin I, is the same as achroedextrin, and whose dextrin II corresponds to erythroedextrin, says that the former has a greater affinity for iodine than starch. Brücke does not agree with this; for he finds that, when the two are present together, the blue colour of the starch appears before the red of the erythroedextrin, at least at ordinary temperatures. Tannin in sufficient quantity precipitates the starch and leaves dextrin in solution. The best method of separating the various substances from each other, is by fractioning with alcohol. The starch is first precipitated, then the erythroedextrin, and lastly the achroedextrin, which generally carries sugar with it. Part of the achroedextrin is likewise carried down with the erythroedextrin. Iodine and sulphate of sodium also, among other reagents, precipitate the starch and leave the dextrin in solution. The products of the conversion of starch differ according to the method used. The ordinary commercial dextrin made by simply roasting our starch is a mixture of soluble starch and true dextrin. That made after Payer's method (viz., macerating with nitric acid, drying and roasting) contains, along with erythroedextrin, both achroedextrin and sugar. When starch is digested with dilute sulphuric acid at first amylolysin is produced. Erythroedextrin is next formed, and this passes after longer digestion into achroedextrin and sugar.

The action of iodine upon starch is different. The product of digestion for some time is a substance resembling erythroedextrin, in being coloured red by iodine, but differing from it, *sive illa*, in being completely precipitated by tannin. Brücke calls this substance *Myrtanylum*. This substance has greater affinity for iodine than starch has, and hence, when the two are together, the red reaction shows itself before the blue. This reaction is also manifested by starch-paste, even before the action of any ferment. Hence it would appear that myrtanylum is not a product of the conversion of starch, but makes the remains of the starch-glycogen closely united with Nigroff's cellulose, and resisting the action of ferment longer than the glycogen itself. The further action of malting, is to cause the disappearance of this substance, with or without a residue, which forms a silvery deposit, coloured red by iodine, while the clear supernatant liquid remains uncoloured. Erythroedextrin seems also to be produced, but is rapidly destroyed by the further action of the ferment. The fluid contains considerable

quantities of achroedextrin, and the process of malting appears to be the best for producing achroedextrin, though it acts on starch in the most energetic manner. On erythroedextrin, dextrase acts as energetically as on starch itself.

Glycogen in many respects resembles erythroedextrin, but differs from it in always forming opalescent solutions.

*II. Digestion of Roasted Starch.*—The changes which starch undergoes in the stomach were studied in dogs, which were killed from one to five hours after having been fed on a meal principally composed of starch. The contents of the stomach and of the duodenum were separately analysed. In the stomach, along with a greater or less quantity of starch-macilage, according to the extent of digestion, large quantities of soluble starch (amylolysin), and erythroedextrin were found; the latter especially towards the end of gastric digestion. Achroedextrin is also produced in the stomach, but apparently only in very small amount. Sugar, unless it have been given in the food, is either not found in the stomach, or, if so, in very small quantity. In the small intestine sugar was always found, whether it had been given with the food or not. Erythroedextrin was not found, or, if so, not in any appreciable amount.

The first noteworthy fact in reference to these results is that, in the stomach, even after a meal of starch, traces only of sugar are found, notwithstanding that in the mouth the starch comes into contact with the saliva, and also from time to time with the saliva which is constantly being swallowed. The cause of this, as shown by experiments made by Koenigsberg, and by Pachuta, is undoubtedly the influence which the acid of the gastric juice exerts in checking the diastatic action of the saliva.

The second point worthy of notice is the occurrence of the large quantities of soluble starch and of erythroedextrin. The soluble starch is the product of the acid of the gastric juice, which, like other acid solutions, has this effect on starch. The formation of erythroedextrin is more difficult to understand, as the amount of acid which exists in the stomach does not, at the ordinary temperature of the body, convert starch into this substance. After careful investigation, it appeared that part at least of the erythroedextrin found may have been formed by the diastatic action of saliva and acid on starch. Though the conditions for this successive action exist during the process of mastication and gastric digestion, yet the quantity found could hardly be attributed to this source alone. An elaborate series of experiments, which cannot be here detailed, served to demonstrate that the production of the chief part of the erythroedextrin, was due to the process of lactic acid fermentation, which Brücke regards as a normal part of the gastric digestion of starch and sugar. This fermentation is entirely independent of all the saliva or the gastric juice, and takes place in the stomach under exactly the same conditions as it does outside the body. Starch-macilage will undergo the lactic acid fermentation, and produce dextrin, and sugar, without the aid of anything but some ferment existing in the starch itself or gaining access to it. The lactic acid fermentation in the stomach does not normally result in the formation of a large amount of acid; but this is only a matter of time.

The concomitant formation of dextrin seems to point to the fermentation-process as a normal pre-

pation of the starch for more rapid transformation into sugar in the duodenum. Dextrin is converted into sugar with great rapidity under the influence of the pancreatic juice, so that in the duodenum only sugar and adenosin are found. The pancreatic juice has some influence in converting adenosin into sugar; but the process of fermentation, which apparently continues in the small intestine, may participate in it. The *saccharification* plays only a very subordinate part in the formation of sugar in the small intestine.

[That the lactic acid fermentation of starch in the stomach is a normal physiological process, as Brücke seems to regard it, may be questioned. It depends, as he himself has shown, on agents extraneous to the system. It may be a constant, but not therefore a necessary, concomitant of gastric digestion, and will depend on the presence or absence of bacteria and certain germs. Brücke's researches, apart from microscopic and other observations, strongly confirm the idea that it is in these that we are to look as the cause of the excessive formation of acid in conditions of the stomach which hinder digestion, or after obstruction to the passage of its contents into the duodenum.]

D. FERRIER, M.D.

## RECENT PAPERS.

On the Minute Process in Healing by First Intention in Tissues. By Dr. P. Oberbeck. (*Archives d'Anatomie*, vol. iii, part 3.)

The Importance of Liver in Nutrition. By Carl Voit. (*Ztschrift für Biologie*, vol. viii, part 3, 1872.)

A Contribution on the Physiological Action of Water. By F. A. Pfeiffer. (*Ztschrift für Biologie*, vol. viii, part 2, 1872.)

The Function of the Central Nervous and of the Great Visceral Nerve in the Vascularization of the Brain's Part. By Dr. A. Mauzé. (*Archives de Physiologie*, No. 3, 1872.)

Physiological Study on the Toxic Effects of the Galvanic Point. By M. L. Potassium and Cuville. (*Archives de Physiologie*, No. 4, 1872.)

On the Cells of Blood. Physiological Experiments on the circumstances under which their proportions vary in the Arterial System. By Drs. Mathieu and Ustrem. (*Archives de Physiologie*, No. 5, 1872.)

Contribution to the Physiology of the Vagus Nerve. By MM. Arting and L. Trippel. (*Archives de Physiologie*, No. 6, 1872.)

Experimental Researches on the Physiology of the Pneumogastric Nerves. By MM. Legrain and Chauvin. (*Journal de l'Anatomie et de la Physiologie*, No. 8, 1872.)

Description and Structure of the Muscular Coat of the Oesophagus in Man and other Animals. By Dr. Goblet. (*Journal de l'Anatomie et de la Physiologie*, No. 6, 1872.)

On Cranio-tympanic Classification and Subdivision. By M. P. Brissé. (*Annales d'Anthropologie*, vol. 1, No. 3, 1872.)

Note on Parastomachy Loge of the Right Lung in Man. By Dr. Poell. (*Annales d'Anthropologie*, vol. 1, No. 3, 1872.)

The Vagus Nerve as an Accomplice of the Movements of the Heart. By Dr. H. Schaff. (*Le Spécialement, Novembre*, 1872.)

Officer Origin of Fibria. By P. Lassalle. (*Le Spécialement, Dec. 1872.*)

Experimental Researches on the Mode of Growth of the Bone (with Plates). By M. Ollier. (*Archives de Physiologie*, Jan., 1873.)

The Development of the Seminiferous. By Dr. E. Vannier. (*Centralblatt für die Medizin, Wissenschaften*, Dec. 18, 1872.)

On Hydratation. By Dr. A. Horvath. (*Centralblatt für die Medizin, Wissenschaften*, Dec. 21, 1872.)

The Topography of the Motoric-regions of the Central Nervous. By Dr. Henle. (*Centralblatt für die Medizin, Wissenschaften*, Dec. 21, 1872.)

## PATHOLOGY.

WISCHMANN ON AFFECTIONS OF THE SPINAL CORD IN PARAPLEGIA CONSEQUENT ON SMALL-POX.—Some observations made on this subject by Dr. Wischmann are described in the *Berliner Klinische Wochenschrift*, No. 47, 1872.

The first case was that of a young man, twenty-two years of age, hitherto in good health, who in Nov. 1871 was seized with pains in the head, loss of appetite, and rigors. Some days afterwards, an eruption of discrete small-pox made its appearance, but the symptoms were light. On the third day he left, on going upstairs, some weakness of his legs, which compelled him to keep his bed. The next morning the patient woke with complete paralysis of both lower extremities, and was removed to the Charité Hospital, where it was ascertained that he retained only some slight power of moving his great toes; reflex movements were abolished; sensibility was unimpaired; there was paralysis of the bladder, and a slough over the sacrum. Facial irritation of the muscles was retained. Under treatment he improved so much, that on Dec. 27 he had regained some power of bending the ankles and knee-joints, and on Jan. 29, 1872, he could stand upright, and walk a few steps by the aid of a stick. Subsequently, however, he had an attack of erysipelas, of which he died on April 8.

The second case was that of a man thirty-two years old, who, after some prostration, was attacked with small-pox on Jan. 23. The eruption was discrete, and moderately abundant. On Feb. 4 he had incontinence of urine. The next day the patient woke with complete motor paralysis of the left leg, in which he also felt a sensation of numbness. The day afterwards the right leg became paralysed, with incontinence of feces, and a peculiar condition as if the adrenals were dead. The patient died of erysipelas and slough over the sacrum. At the necropsy, the grey substance of the spinal cord was found congested, but there was no alteration in either the white columns or in the nerve-roots. In one of the sciatic nerves, a slight infiltration of blood was noticed between its bundles. On making thin sections of the cord after it had been treated with bicarbonate of potash, patches, variously shaded in colour, were found to be irregularly scattered through the grey and white substance. Areas of softening, about the size of a pin's head, were seen in the grey substance at the superior thoracic region. In all these places where the colour of the tissue was modified, there was an abundance of fatty granulations.

Wischmann proposes to give to the alterations of the cord which he found in his cases, the name of *disseminated syphilis*.

J. LOCKHART CLARK, M.D.

CHAPMAN'S RESEARCHES ON PERICARDITIS.—Dr. S. H. Chapman (*American Journal of the Medical Sciences*, Oct. 1872) undertook these experimental researches on the nature of the pericardial process chiefly to support the view of Stricker (as opposed to that of Celstine) that in inflammation the circulation is not the only source of pus-cells, but that 'all living cells can change by division into pyrocytes.'

The experiments were performed on caurated frogs and toads, the pericardium being spread and lunar caustic applied to its surface. The results ob-

vised were totally dead. 1. Application of the caustic "for several seconds" produced, after forty-eight hours, enormous distension of the pericardium with lymph; pus in abundance; great infiltration of the connective tissue with pus; and great 'disintegration of the heart-substance.' 2. When a slight degree of pericarditis was induced by less severe irritation the appearances found were chiefly—absent lymph-evacuation, adhesions both to the heart and to the pleura, and extension of the process to the heart, with the results already known to take place in inflammation of the heart-substance.' 3. The description of the microscopic appearance is almost confined to the changes on the endothelium (epithelium) of the parietal and visceral layers of the pericardium. In each case Dr. Chapman first observed swelling of the individual cells, proliferation of their nuclei, and uncoiled movements of the cells themselves, resulting in the production of cells of the most various kinds. The external cells became elongated and spindle-shaped, while the internal increased rapidly in number and assumed extremely various shapes and very various size. Finally, the spindle-shaped cells of the external surface united with each other, arranged themselves into rows, and thus formed 'a compact new membrane.' The process upon the internal surface was somewhat different; each cell threw out delicate filaments whose divisions accommodated themselves to the situation of the cells, so as to unite with like filaments from neighbouring cells, and thus to form a new network of fibres and a new connective tissue. The author describes in a few words the changes undergone by the connective tissue of the pericardium, 'the connective-tissue cells elongated and their nuclei divided.' The nerves of the part became more distinct, and their nuclei enlarged and divided. The condition of the blood-vessels was not studied.

J. M. BOYCE, M.D.

## MEDICINE.

WALDSTEIN, KRINNER, &c. ON DISEASE OF THE BONES, AND CONSEQUENT PARALYSIS, IN SUBJECTS OF HEREDITARY SYPHILIS.—Within the last year or two, more attention has been paid than at any previous time to a special form of disease, believed to depend upon hereditary syphilis. In the current text-books upon syphilis the lesson is not alluded to; for this reason, and also because the most important writings upon the subject are the newest, a summary of our knowledge may well find a place here. The following is a list of the papers which have appeared on this subject:—

Waldsteiner and Kinner.—'Contributions to the Knowledge of Hereditary Syphilis of the Bones.' (*Archiv für Kinderärzte*, vol. II, p. 320, 1872.)

Parey.—'On Pseudoparalysis due to a Lesion of the Nervous System, in New-born Children attacked by Hereditary Syphilis.' (*Archiv für Physiologie*, nos. 3, 4, 5, 1872.)

Wegener.—'On Hereditary Syphilis of the Bones in Young Children.' (*Archiv für Kinderärzte*, vol. I, p. 320, 1872.)

Guthot.—'Separative Osteitis of the Diaphyseal Ends of the Bones, with Separation of the Epiphyseal Cartilages, in a New-born Child.' (*Gazette des Hôpitaux*, Feb. 9, 1872.)

Bauer.—'Congenital Syphilis: Syphilitic Peri-

osteitis: Gonorrhœa of Liver; and Decapitation of the Epiphyses.' (*Gazette Médicale de Paris*, 1872, p. 360.)

Vallée.—'Case of Decapitation of the Epiphyses of several Long Bones, associated with Abscesses beneath the Peritoneum, and a Remarkable Production of Bone, in a New-born Child: with Remarks' (*Bulletin de la Société Anatomique de Paris*, tom. II, p. 360, 1872).

In addition, there is a case by Bangier,<sup>1</sup> in *Le Spécialiste* for July, 1872. [Not seen by the reporter].

To Wegener is undoubtedly due the credit of having shown that osseous lesions in hereditary syphilis, far from being uncommon, are very common, if not constant. Wegener's researches refer chiefly to the morbid anatomy of osseous syphilis; but Parey has pointed out the symptoms by which the lesion may be sometimes recognised during life. Vallée, Bangier, Rasson, and Guthot published only single cases of what they believed to be a very unusual condition. Vallée's case, now nearly forty years old, seems to be the first on record; it is well narrated, and an abstract of its leading particulars will serve as a good introduction to our topic.

The child, a girl, seemed to be in perfect health until the tenth day after birth, when it was noted that she could not move the left arm; in fact, that it was painful when moved; and yet, otherwise, the arm seemed natural. This arm improved a little; but, on the twenty-first day, an abscess was found around the lower end of the right radius. Next day, an abscess appeared above the left shoulder, and the next day (the twenty-third) the child died, without having manifested (so far as we can gather from Vallée's notes) any other more definite symptom of hereditary syphilis. The appearances *post mortem* were,—complete separation of the epiphyses of the humerus and radius; stripping of the periosteum from more or less of the shaft of the bone; and formation of a soft, spongy, honeying at the spot where the separation of the periosteum ceased. The corresponding joints were unaffected. Precisely similar conditions were found at the upper and lower ends of the right tibia, and at the upper end of the left tibia; namely separation of the epiphyses, suppuration, &c.; and this in spite of both legs seeming to be perfectly natural, so far as could be judged from the outside. The lower epiphysis of the left tibia was not actually separated, but could be torn off the shaft very easily. There was an abscess in front of the sacrum, communicating with the lumbo-sacral and sacro-iliac articulations (the cartilages of which were excessively destroyed); and the left 'epiphyseal eminence' of the first bone of the sacrum was separated. One ilium was severed from its hindmost epiphysis, and buried in pus. At the end of the case, Vallée gives his opinion that the abscesses were probably due to disease of the bones, dependent upon the syphilitic disease. His remarks, for the most part, refer to the osteophytic growths.

In Guthot's case, the immobility of the four limbs was so great that he suspected a lesion of the cervical portion of the spinal cord. The separation of the epiphyses of the tibiae, which was present, he attributed to violent traction upon the legs during birth. But after death the nervous centres were found to be quite natural; and Guthot quite lately has declared himself to be convinced that the child was syphilitic.

Parey thus sums up the chief characters of this form of disease. The state of the limbs in these

patients is like that due to fracture, and still more like that due to acute articular dislocation. There is more or less complete immobility, sometimes not easily ascertained, sometimes absolute. When there is no pain the limb looks as if it were dislocated, but when pain is present it is not always possible to manipulate the limb so as to make the disability manifest. The arms commonly lie alongside the trunk, and are pronated. The legs likewise are stretched out straight (which is not the natural condition in an infant), and when the child is raised they hang down, and swing from side to side. The number of limbs affected differs; sometimes all four are motionless. Occasionally a joint is bent and stiff; when this is so, it is due to an abscess in the neighbourhood. These abscesses are often very large and painful. Occasionally a cavity can be produced between the shaft of the bone and the epiphysis. Post mortem, the nervous and muscular systems are found normal. The false paralysis is sufficiently explained by the condition of the bones, being due partly to the separation of the epiphyses, partly to the consequent pain. And lastly, the children presenting this form of disease are the subjects of hereditary syphilis.

Wegener, Parrot, Waldreyer and Körner, all agree that in dead syphilitic infants, whether still-born or not, the congenital lesions are always present, and are, moreover, in most cases, manifest to the naked eye. In non-syphilitic infants, on the other hand, the lesions are never present. Not only are these lesions pathognomonic of syphilis *post mortem*, but occasionally in living children they are the only evidence of syphilis, as was well seen in a case of Köhler's. The changes, no doubt, begin *in utero*, and they are said by Waldreyer and Körner to be independent of any specific treatment of the parents. It is obvious that in miscarried and still-born children which are free (as they often are) from characteristic visceral lesions, an examination of the bones may throw great light upon the condition of the children's parents. Köhler asserts that these special bone-changes do not occur in acquired infantile syphilis; such, for instance, as that dependent upon syphilitic vaccination. Under these circumstances, the classification processes are natural. Whether the lesions are present in hereditary syphilis of later development, is uncertain.

According to Wegner there is no proportion as to severity of respective lesions between osseous and cutaneous or mucous syphilis.

The disease is never confined to a single bone; in most cases many long bones are involved. The order of frequency with which the lesions are found in the several bones is said by Parrot to be as follows: femur (the most frequent), humerus, tibia, ulna, radius, fibula, ribs; the m. illi is more often diseased than the scapula; and lastly come the clavicle, os calcis, astragalus, metatarsal, and metacarpal bones. The bones of the head are sometimes attacked.

Before proceeding to explain what these syphilitic changes are, it may be well to define certain terms which will be employed. The zone of apophysical cartilage which is preparing for ossification, and which is consequently next to the end of the shaft (or diaphysis) of the bone, will be called the 'chondroid' layer (Broca). Between the chondroid zone and the cancellous band of the diaphysis already ossified comes a very narrow zone in which the ossification is going on; this is named, by Parrot, the 'chondrocalcarous' layer.

The periosteum comes off these syphilitic bones

less cleanly than natural, especially towards the ends of the shafts. It is redder and thicker than natural; and sometimes tears away little calcareous specks. The shaft, at the corresponding parts, is swollen, roughened, rugged, and has lost the natural colour and consistency of its exterior; it is very brittle. These changes are due to a newly formed superficial calcareous layer (osteophytes), which is thicker than, much the ends of the diaphysis than at the middle. The osteophytes are of a more opaque white than the rest of the bone; in fact, quite chalky in appearance. The thickness of the new layer may be well up to its thickest parts. It is not uniform, and may be absent here and there.

The chondroid layer is much thicker than natural—double or even quadrupled; its transparency and softness are very marked.

The changes in the chondrocalcarous layer are quite characteristic. In a healthy bone it is very thin, hardly visible to the naked eye, not more than  $\frac{1}{16}$  or  $\frac{1}{32}$  of an inch thick. It is remarkably smooth and level on both surfaces, as far as to appear, in a longitudinal section of the bone, like a very narrow even line, straight or gently curved. Now in syphilitic bones this layer is much thickened, even to over half an inch. It becomes very uneven on both surfaces, and is seen, in a longitudinal section, to be undulating, irregular, even decalcified with both bone and cartilage by pointed serrations. Moreover, the brittleness of this layer is increased; and the adhesion between the epiphysis and shaft of the bone is hereby much lessened.

The adjoining cancellous bone is almost always decolorised in colour for a depth of  $\frac{1}{32}$  to  $\frac{1}{16}$  inch from the chondrocalcarous layer, being marked with patches, some greyish with spots of a rose colour, some whitish, and some chamois yellow.

These lesions are followed, after a time, by others more severe, which may be described as being, in short, destruction of the bony tissue. The cancellous structure is attacked first, and afterwards, even the compact layer. These morbid conditions are of two kinds. One is called by Parrot "gelatiniform" and consists of a very soft material, somewhat transparent, amber yellow or brownish red. The bone is replaced by this new formation; and so, when it dries by exposure to the air, a cavity is left. The second condition consists in an infiltration of the cancellous structure with material more or less purulent; the lamellae of the bone become thinner and finally disappear. Hence arise cavities of different sizes containing this pus-like matter. The progress of these lesions causes separation of the epiphysis; the rupture takes place in the shaft, close to the chondrocalcarous layer, which for the most part remains adherent to the epiphysis. And lastly, the fracture is often followed by suppuration around the affected part. The joint is not involved.

These naked-eye characters are taken from Parrot. As for the microscopical appearance, the increased thickness of the chondroid layer is due to an increased multiplication of the cartilage-cells, and a corresponding diminution of intercellular substance; hence the unnatural softness and transparency. The cells lose their normal characters, and, according to Waldreyer and Köhler, approach in shape and size small round granulation-cells—such cells as are present in syphilitic granuloma.

In the chondrocalcarous zone, the larger epithelioid cells of health (osteoblasts of Cagniard and Waldreyer) are replaced, more or less, by small

granulation-cells which lie close upon the bone, or by spindle-shaped elements (Waldreyer and Kühn).

The granulation material is composed of bands of fibrous tissue, which enclose irregular spaces containing vessels, and cells and nuclei (like those of marrow), buried in a mass of albuminous and fatty granules. Towards the centre the connective tissue bands tend to break up, the nucleoli increase, the nuclei are seen only here and there (Parrot).

The puriform material has the character of an "indifferent" granulation-tissue, similar to that of guarnata. The natural lymphoid and myeloid cells of the cancellous spaces are replaced by small angular or spindle-shaped, but rounded elements, which hang together and are not easily parted; these constitute the puriform masses. Yet, even in the severest cases, true pus is not found; the tubercular formations are always vascular, and the cells are held together by epithelia. Like guarnata, these masses have a great disposition to necrobiosis in spite of their vascularity (Waldreyer & Kühn).

To conclude: with regard to the nature of these changes, Wegener deems that they indicate a specific osteochondritis; Parrot diagnoses the latter tubercular dysplasia; Waldreyer and Kühn consider that the process is precisely the same as that which leads to the formation of the common guarnata tumour, a tubercular granulation.

[The reporter need hardly refer to the resemblance between this tubercular disease of bone and rickets, in some respects. He has not yet seen a paper upon this topic, read by Parrot before the Société de Biologie, on June 1, 1872. Parrot believes that the two forms of osseous lesions (tubercular and rachitic) are sometimes confounded.] SAMUEL GUNN, M.D.

**STICK FOR REMOVAL OF GROWTHS FROM THE LARYNX, ETC.—**Dr. Karl Stöck has recently published an interesting pamphlet (*Laryngoskopische Operations*, p. 35, Vienna, 1872), in which he describes an improvement in his laryngeal gallotome, makes some valuable practical remarks on the preparation of different kinds of caustic-holders, and discusses the relative values of various pastes. Dr. Stöck, who has given great attention to the subject of gallic acids, and done much to render them effective and, at the same time, as slight and unobtrusive as possible, has now made a still further improvement by entirely removing the covering or shield of the gallotome. The instrument now consists of two blades; one of these is an oval ring with an outer blunt and an inner cutting edge, the other is a triangle, or rather a section of an oval, corresponding to about one-eighth of the shoulder of the oval blade, and having also an inner cutting edge. Instead of the ring of the gallotome being pulled through its containing sheath, as in the ordinary instruments, the cutting action is effected by the simple withdrawal of the oval ring against the shoulder of the other triangular blade, which is a fixed point. In other words, the action is like that of scissars; but, instead of two blades of equal size and shape being used, one blade is a gallotome-like ring, the other the shoulder of a similar ring. By thus getting rid of the sheath of the gallotome, the instrument can be brought into more immediate contact with the origin of a growth, and a small excrecence can be more completely removed.

For the application of nitrate of silver to the general surface of the larynx, Stöck recommends the powdered salt in preference to solution. The in-

sument used for this purpose is a curved hollow rod, provided with a piece of elastic tubing. The exact quantity of the powder required to be used having been put into the tube, the operator brings the point of the instrument exactly to the spot desired to be cauterised, and with his own mouth gently blows the powder in the requisite direction. In this way, after considerable practice, the caustic can be blown evenly on to the vocal cord. The best vehicles for the nitrate of silver are gum arabic, sugar of milk, and calcined magnesia; common sugar is the worst. The preparation must be made fluid, as it rapidly dries. It is very important to observe that, if equal parts of nitrate of silver and the vehicle be used, a more intense cauterisation takes place than if the surface is touched with the solid caustic. For gentle cauterisation, 20 to 30 grains of the caustic may be used with 60 grains of the vehicle. The solid nitrate of silver, however, renders the best service, because its action can be most precisely localised. The salt should be fused on to the extremity of a properly curved olive [or abaculus] sound. If both vocal cords have to be cauterised, the sound may be coated entirely in this way; but if it be desired to touch the right vocal cord for example, only the right side of the sound should be coated with nitrate of silver, and the left side, whilst the sound is still hot, should be coated with a mixture of salt, flour, and water. When the *gastro-cricothyroid* intubates the larynx in the case which we have supposed, the vocal cords approximate. The right cord is cauterised, and the left is covered with a little salt. A few moments later, when the *post-cricothyroid* is withdrawn, if any cauter. paste ever is in the healthy side, it is at once neutralised and converted into an insoluble non-caustic chloride of silver. Dr. Stöck also uses caustic potash, Vienna paste, and chloric acid for cauterisation. In employing the first agent, the neighbouring and opposite parts are apt to be injured by the cauterising. This inconvenience may be prevented by coating the instrument with lead. The sound, instead of being flat, should have a deep trough-like extremity, and the paste should be fused into it, only a very small projecting portion being left. The Vienna paste has about half the strength of the caustic potash. Chloric acid is applied by Stöck in the crystalline form. To produce the same effect, it has to be kept longer in the larynx than caustic potash, and patients complain very much of its disagreeable taste, which lasts long after its application. Both it and caustic paste are troublesome, on account of their rapid disappearance.

The pamphlet contains seventeen cases of polyps of the larynx, all of which were removed or destroyed except in one instance, in which the patient refused treatment and was suffocated. One of the cases was considered to be an example of hemorrhagic phthisis until it was seen by the late Dr. Oppenheime, who at once and without the laryngoscope diagnosed the disease to be sitzbecken in the larynx. With the mirror, a large polypus was seen, in which a broad bluish-black vein ran.

In another case, the growth was an inch and a half long, and as thick as the little finger. It was of fibrous structure, and grew from back arytenoid cartilages. In a third case, one excrecence was situated in the left arytenoid cartilage, and another immediately in front of it. They proved to be chondrocytes (Vierkow). Both growths were removed, but the voice was not restored, owing, it was sup-

posed, no atrophy of the left thyroarytenoid muscles, or insensibility of the arytenoid cartilages.

[In judging of this paper by Dr. Stöck, it should be borne in mind that he applies remedies to the larynx in a different manner from most laryngologists. Instead of allowing 'the eye to direct the hand,' he, after introducing the remedy or instrument to the desired spot, removes the mirror, and waits for contact to be produced by the approximation of the vocal cords. It is on this account that his directions for protecting one side of the cricoarytenoid become necessary. Probably it is for the same reason that he prefers guillotines and scissors to forceps; the latter instruments he thinks cause more irritation, and if not guided by the laryngeal image they would undoubtedly be open to the objection.]

MONTGOMERY MACCARTNEY, M.D.

**CHAPTER ON HEMATOUREA AND PYELONEPHRITIS.**—Auguste Olivier (*Archives de Physiologie Normale et Pathologique*, Jan., 1893) records a remarkable case, under the above designation. A man aged 31 had, without apparent cause, incessant hematuria for six years. There had been no lumbar pain, no passage of sand or gravel, no signs of renal colic. The urine always contained small blackish clots and fluid blood, which soon formed a sediment. He died of bronchitis. The left kidney was healthy. The right formed a tumor with a lobulated surface; some lobes felt hard, others soft, others elastic and fluctuating. The fibrous capsule was thickened, and unusually adherent to the surface beneath. The substance of the kidney, on section, was found converted into a series of pouches of various sizes; these were filled with fibrinous coagula, the relative ages of which could be determined by their varying shades of colour, the older clots being gray or rose-coloured, while the more recent were red or black; a clot extended from the pelvis into the ureter. After removal of the clots by a stream of water, the kidney formed a cavity, divided into cells by the thickened septa which correspond with the divisions between the original lobes of the kidney. The cells were divided from each other, but all opened into the dilated pelvis of the kidney. A very thin layer of glandular tissue was spread over the surface of the organ. The renal artery was attenuated, and at its bifurcation, external to the kidney, had an aneurysm of the size of a finger. The smaller branches in the substance of the kidney presented here and there aneurysmal swellings, giving them a nodular outline. It is supposed, but not actually demonstrated, that the persistent hemorrhage was a result of rupture of minute aneurysmal anastomoses, and that the blood, partly coagulating in the pelvis, caused distension of the calyces and subsequently of the entire kidney, with resulting atrophy of the supporting tissue from compression.—GERALD JONES, M.D.

#### RECENT PAPERS.

**Pupil.** By Andrew R. Marsh, M.D. (*Pennsylvania Medical Journal*, Jan. 4.)

**Functional Therapeutics of Physical Medicine.** By Dr. Dally. (*Quarterly Journal of Phys.*, Jan. 4.)

**Treatment of Mineral and Sulphur Waters by Hydrocystoscopy.** By Dr. Colman. (*Journal of Hygiene*, Jan. 12.)

**The Anatomies of Locomotor Ataxy.** By M. Chassez. (*Pennsylvania Medical Journal*, Jan. 19, '92, p. 17, '93, p. 22, '93, p. 26, '93.) An important series of lectures by Dr. Chassez, reported by Dr. Bourneville, of which we shall shortly give an account.

#### SURGERY.

**EVIDENCE ON RECURRENCE OF CONSTITUTIONAL SYPHILIS BY RE-INFECTION.**—Dr. H. Körber, (*Nordische Medizinische Wochenschrift*, Nov. 11, 1892), contributes at some length the opinion of Sigaud, and other eminent authorities, that syphilis once introduced into the body cannot be inoculated on the same person a second time. He refers to the analogy of undoubted repetition of smallpox, scarlet fever, &c., in the same individual. To support his proposition, the author quotes forty-five cases of recurrence of syphilis through re-infection: (thirty-seven of other observers, and eight of his own). But in none of the cases narrated is the evidence quite beyond dispute. The author, to establish evidence of second or repeated infection, is satisfied with a hard sore of the genitals and indolent enlargement of the neighbouring lymphatic glands. It is true that, in twenty-three of his cited cases, syphilitic eruptions of the skin took place, but we are not also informed whether in these cases the hard sore and gland affection had been present also. One case relates upon a point of extreme interest, namely, the possibility of a person who has suffered from inherited syphilis in childhood being capable of contracting syphilis in the ordinary manner in after life. The author quotes Merckel (*Arch. f. Klin. Med.*, '86), who records of a girl, eighteen years old, having perforation of hard and soft palate with tough cicatrical borders, presumably the effect of inherited syphilis in infancy, who had, a few months after marriage with a man suffering from syphilitic skin-eruptions, indolent ulcer of the vulva, mamma-papular syphilids, and affection of the lymphatic glands generally. On the whole, the evidence adduced by the author is far less satisfactory than the cases recorded by Hutchinson, Rodin, Hardie, and others, some of which are mentioned in this paper, but which establish on sufficiently clear grounds, as a very rare clinical phenomenon, the recurrence of syphilis by a second inoculation in the same person.

BRACKLEY HILL.

**DEATH FROM THE USE OF THE ASPIRATOR IN CHRONIC RHEUMATISM DUE TO THE KNEE-JOINT.**—In an article translated in the *Irish Hospital Gazette* for Jan. 1, Dr. Valdemar Rasmussen, in some observations on the use of the aspirator, says: "In arthritis of the knee, both chronic, which does not yield to ordinary treatment, and acute, which causes violent pain from the great tension, aspiration is also a useful remedy." In the same journal for Jan. 27, Robert McDonnell records the case of a man who had no other ailment than that of chronic effusion into the knee-joint. With the aspirator, as much clear glairy sputum as twice filled the sponge was withdrawn, and the patient was carried back to bed. Severe pain, rigors, and suppurative arthritis set in, and the patient was dead within a week. Dr. McDonnell adds: "I have never met within my practice any case which made aadder or more profound impression on me."

**COLLES ON TORSION AS A MEANS OF ARRESTING HAEMORRHAGE.**—Dr. W. Colles (*Irish Hospital Gazette*, Jan. 15), writes: "I would throw out a suggestion that even in the continuity of the artery we might adopt a modification of this treatment. Thus, after laying bare the artery, we might catch it transversely in a narrow forceps, and press it so as to divide the

inner layers, and then push them away from the outer coat upwards and also downwards, leaving the outer coat *in situ*, and to contract. I throw out the suggestion, hoping it may be made the means of inducing others to pursue the investigation of this subject. As the result of my observations, I have no hesitation in proposing the torsion of arteries as the safest and simplest means of arresting bleeding in wounds, merely recommending that the artery should be as free and isolated from surrounding tissues as possible, and that the surgeon should hold the parts at the point of the forceps, so as to cause the twisting to commence at the forceps, and from this gradually extend upwards along the vessel. For the last six or seven years, in St. Vincent's Hospital, my colleagues and I have seldom resorted to any other means of arresting hemorrhage, even from the largest vessels, and we have never had any reason to regret the adoption of the practice."

**PURPURIC DISEASES OF EXPOSED DENTAL PULP.**—Mr. G. Colles [Transactions of the Geological Society of Great Britain, vol. v. 1872, No. 2], calls attention to *Galactin Fervet*, a new agent for the extraction of exposed dental pulps, which had in his hands proved very successful. Its application was attended with no pain. It might be left in contact with the dental pulp for a week with perfect safety; but he found, by experience, three days commonly sufficient to effect the object in view. In this respect its application was much safer than that of arsenic. It acts only upon the dead portions of the nerve. He raised some of the powdered galactin into a paste with dilute hydrochloric acid, &c., with the dilute hydrochloric acid of the *Pharmacoepia*, diluted with one hundred parts of water. This he left in contact with the pulp, and covered over with wax, for three days. Upon removing it, he washed out the cavity well with warm water, and scrubbed it with carbolic acid dissolved in glycerine. He then capped the pulp, filling the cavity temporarily for some months; after which it was filled permanently.

#### RECENT PAPERS.

**Ganglionic Aesthesia of the Neck and Uterus of a Jugular Vein; Consecutive Haemorrhage; Death.** By M. Martin. *Medical Annals*, Dec. 20. *Moniteur Med.*, Jan. 13. A case with references to an article in *Archives de Medicine*, 1872.)

**Surgical Treatment of Cancer.** M. Rouppé, at the Société de Médecine de la Saline Romande [Lyon Medical, Jan. 12] has endeavored to prove that skin always deposits upon lesions of the body of the usual cavity. Hence the insufficiency of ordinary therapeutic means, and the spontaneous cure accompanied by exfoliation of neoplasms. His operation avoids deformity. He makes the incision transverse in the gluteal fold below from the left to the right navel, dividing the rectus near its root; cuts down upon the anterior nasal spine; divides by the bistoury the cartilaginous septum, and if necessary divides with the scissor the nasal cartilages at their maxillary attachment, and divides their septum. The nostril can then be passed upwards. He then cuts for the mucous, on various points of bone, removes them, and applies nitrate of silver to the mucous membrane. The parts are thoroughly cleaned and replaced. Recovery by the last edition has always followed. Recovery has been immediate, and the results quite successful in the seven cases on which he has operated. [Archives Med., at la Saline Romande, Nov. 1872.]

**Strangulated Hernia treated by Aspiration.** By M. L. E. Dupuy. [Moniteur Médical, Dec. 21.]

**New Means of Destroying Constrictive Adhesions to the Bladder.** By Dr. Mathieu. [Annales de l'Hygiène, Jan. 11, 1873.]

**Surgical Application of Electricity.** By M. Trigier. [Moniteur Médical, Jan. 6, 1873.]

#### MATERIA MEDICA AND THERAPEUTICS.

**SIEBERT AND QUILH ON THE ACTION OF APOMORPHIA.**—Since the emetic properties of this drug were first pointed out by Dr. Gev (*Österr. Med. Zeitschr.*, 1869, p. 166) it has become the subject of several investigations in Germany and Russia. One of the most important of these is one made by V. Siebert, under the direction of the accomplished pharmacologist, Professor von Schmidlofsky, who was then in Dorpat, but has since become one of the professors of the newly founded German University of Strasburg (*Untersuchungen über die physiologischen Wirkungen der Apomorphin*; Dorpat). He noticed the same general symptoms as those described by Gev, both in man and animals, after the administration of apomorphia. One of the most remarkable of these is a kind of nudge movement observed in dogs. The dose required to produce vomiting in man when injected subcutaneously, he found, like Gev, to be about  $\frac{1}{2}$  grain. A grain and a half given by the mouth produced only nausea. When nausea begins the pulse becomes quicker, and reaches its maximum when the nausea is worst. It sinks under the normal in the intervals between the vomitings, and remains so for three or four hours after the last attack. During all the time the blood-pressure is but little altered. After the acceleration of the palpitation, the respirations also become quick and irregular, but no coincidence could be noticed between the acceleration of the pulse and respiration. Shortly before each attempt to vomit, the rapidity and irregularity of the respirations are at their maximum; a few deep respiratory movements alternating with shallow and barely perceptible ones. After the vomiting has ceased the number of respirations, the rate of the pulse, falls below the normal. Apomorphia has little action on the temperature of the body, but probably lessens the production of heat. Distillation of the rugi does not completely prevent the emetic action of apomorphia. In this it differs from veratrine, which has been shown by Professor Hamot Wood of Philadelphia (*Amer. Journ. of Med. Science*, July 1870) to produce no vomiting after division of the rugi. Siebert ascribes a considerable part in the act of vomiting to the oesophagus. Max Quill [Vidder die physiologischen Wirkungen der Apomorphin; Halle, 1872], under the direction of Professor Köhler, has also examined the action of apomorphia with particular reference to the dose required. The dose for subcutaneous injection is 0.003-0.007 grain.; by the mouth, 0.12-0.18 grain.; by the rectum, 0.6-0.9 grain. It had no effect as a bich when used as a poutry, nor when rubbed in an ointment into the inside of the thigh. Long-continued use of the drug produced no tolerance, nor did it injure the health, one dog having actually gained weight, in five weeks, although it had been made to vomit at least once every day by the administration of apomorphia. A most interesting observation is, that apomorphia only produced vomiting when small doses (0.003-1 grain.) were injected subcutaneously. Larger doses (2 grain. or more) caused no vomiting, but produced staggering, weakness of the hind legs, occasional dilatation of the pupil, great salivation, nudge movements, during which the animals uttered loud barks. They avoided objects in their way, and, after a while, sank exhausted to the ground, where they

stretched themselves and exerted rotatory movements such as are seen in animals poisoned by apomorphia. After large doses (200-300 grm.) the animals lost their appetite, and remained silent for two or three days after the convulsive movements had ceased, in a depressed and sleepy state. In four days at most, however, they recovered completely from the effects of the drug. On post-mortem examination of animals which had been killed by large doses, of apomorphia, no pathological appearances could be observed either in the abdominal or thoracic viscera, nor yet in the brain, with the exception of one case, in which a perfectly circumscribed congestion of the middle parts of the base of the brain, and especially of those adjoining the pons, was observed. In reference to the action of apomorphia on the nervous system, Quach did not find it affect either sensory or motor nerves. Division of the vagi prevented vomiting in every case. In this particular his results differ from Sieber's and agree with Wood's experiments on ventricle. Narcoisis by chloroform also presented vomiting. Apomorphia has no action on the blood-pressure. It has no influence upon the rise of pressure which takes place when a sensory nerve is irritated. It has no action on the muscles, either voluntary or involuntary. Riegel and Blüm (Archiv f. Phys., Med. u. Chir., 1871, 11th Gev.) found that apomorphia had no action on the bowels. The apomorphia which they obtained from Macmillan and Co., North Bridge, Edinburgh, was much more active than the German preparation obtained from Meiss. The latter also caused more sleepiness, and the symptoms which preceded and followed the vomiting lasted longer than when the English preparation was employed. Blaser (Archiv f. Path., 1871, 271) finds that the simple syrup is the best solvent for apomorphia for subcutaneous injection. He thinks that solutions which have become green have lost their activity; but this Kehler (Schweid's Zeits., civ, p. 16) denies.

T. LAUDER BRISTOL, M.D.

## OBSTETRICS AND GYNAECOLOGY.

**SIMON ON THE MANUAL RECTAL PALPATION OF THE PELVIS AND ABDOMINAL ORGANS.**—Dr. Gustav Simon [in *Goldschmidt's Deutsche Ärztebl.*, No. 46, 1872, as also in *Arch. für Klin. Chir.*, vol. 20], describes his method of exploring the pelvis. The patient is placed on the back, either in the lithotomy or ordinary obstetric position; chloroform to complete insensibility is given; and then first two, and subsequently three and four fingers, are passed gradually in by a rotary movement. Manual manipulation is enjoined, the other hand being pressed over the abdomen. Testing of the sphincter uterinus occurs if care is taken, and the operator's hand be not too large; some temporary, but no permanent incontinence may follow.

The examination is useful for all cases of disease of the pelvic organs, especially the uterus, ovaries, and broad ligaments, and of the bladder (in men) as also for tumors in the lower half of the abdomen. In midwifery, it is likely to prove very useful. The first cases examined were: vaginal glands, cancer, ovarian tumor, and fibro-sarcoma of the uterus. No incontinence whatever ensued, the explorations being repeated three to five times.

**MONTI ON CONSTIPATION IN CHILDREN.**—Dr. Alois Monti (in the *Wiener Med. Presse*, xii, 26-28, 1871) contributes an exhaustive paper on this subject. He thinks it due to the defective development of the muscular tissue of the intestines, and to the peculiar form of nourishment at this period. He sums up the various causes:—1. Mechanical impediment, as in congenital deformity, imperforate anus, intussusception, hernia, &c.; 2. Defective nourishment, as from congenital defects of the lip and throat, too little secretion of milk, &c.; 3. Faulty nourishment, as from excess of caecum or defect of fatty matters in the milk, bringing up by hand, starch food, &c.; 4. Deficiency or diminution of the peristaltic movements of the intestines, atrophy, &c.; 5. Diminution of the intestinal secretion, as in long-continued diseases in consequence of anæmia. Constipation is further a symptom of disease of the brain and spinal cord; also a consequence of deficiency of fluids, of the use of aperients, presence of ascariads, flatulences, &c.; and, in older children, it arises in consequence of deficient bodily exercise. The cause suggests the remedy—cod-liver oil and enemas of cold water, mineral waters, mucus, &c.

**SCHLESINGER ON STIRLING MOTMENTS OF THE UTERUS.**—Dr. Schlesinger (in *Schröter's Medico-chirurgischer Jahrbücher*, 1872, vol. 1) recounts some interesting experiments, undertaken with the view of ascertaining whether uterine movements may be induced by the reflex excitation of the centre. His conclusions seem to prove that they may be. 1. Electrical irritation of the central end of a spinal nerve induces general and energetic uterine movements in five to fifteen seconds; so does irritation of every nerve containing sensory fibers—as the vagus. This is explained by the so-called mammary sympathetic. 2. There is no reflex connection in the spinal cord between sensory nerves and uterine motor nerves. The centre must, therefore, be in the cerebrum only. 3. The tract which the motor impulse traverses to reach the uterus is not the vagus or the sympathetic, but (for some distance) the spinal cord; and in regard to the abdominal and pelvic nerves, the aortic plexus is a powerful, but not the sole conducting nerve to the uterus, some of the spinal nerves probably sharing in this function.

**NOTES ON THE TREATMENT OF PYURIA AND PATENTIS BY CARBOLIC ACID.**—Dr. Rothmund (Archiv für Physiologie, 19, 1872) states that the internal administration of carbolic acid in pyuric stools every other method. He has tried also the hypodermic injection of it with marked success, there being no local irritation produced as one would expect beforehand. Solutions of pure carbolic acid seem to be more efficacious than those of carbolic acid of soda.

ARRIEN W. ELLIS.

## RECENT PAPERS.

**Clinical Lectures on Prologue of the Week.** By W. H. Goodall, M.D. [Philadelphia Medical Review, Nov. and Dec. 1871.]

**Personal Reminiscences of Statistical Research.** By Robert F. Hart, M.D. [Points and Errors in the published Records of Mortality from Various Operations (—), A Study of the Chronic Diseases of Paroxysmal Origin. By Dr. George Oliver. (London: Chatto & Windus, Jan. 1872).]

**Medical Notes: Abdominal Presentations.** By M. Voigler, *Kliniken des Allgemeinen*, Jan. 18, p. 1. Ten pregnancies: presentations mostly abdominal (that of breech, substituted to presence of a胎头 turned on the left side of the abdomen).

## PUBLIC MEDICINE AND EPIDEMIOLOGY.

**PETITIONERS ON THE DIFFUSION OF CHOLERA IN INDIA.** (*Continued from p. 29.*)—In the fourth section, the question of the influence of Human intercourse on the Diffusion of Cholera in India is discussed, the conclusion being that this influence is very slight. "It cannot be imagined that the behaviour of cholera in India agrees much more with the rationale than with the contingent view: 'The natives never run away from cholera patients, but only from cholera localities; say, now . . . they take along with them from the cholera locality those sick and dying from the disease.' Dr. Murray's description of the outbreak of cholera among the Hindu pilgrims in 1857 is discussed at length; and it is concluded 'that persons leaving an infected place, as the result of infection which had already taken place in that locality, sicken on the way or on the march, and that such intercourse can possibly contribute to the spread of cholera in such districts and localities as furnish the local and seasonal predisposition for it, but that in others it cannot do so.' Attendants upon cholera patients do not contract cholera unless the place or building have become infecting, in which case the locality should be abandoned. Finally, Beyens' remarks on the contrast which exists between the course of a contagious fever like jail typhus, the mortality from which gradually rises to a maximum and then gradually declines, and that of cholera, the mortality from which attains its maximum in the first few days and then gradually declines, are quoted with approval. After this, it is not surprising that in the next section our author professes very little belief in the efficacy of quarantine regulations. Disinfection is hardly discussed at all; latrines are not looked upon as affording any special facility for the communication of the disease, and drinking water (to which the eighth section is devoted) is considered to have very little influence, and certainly not to be a necessary factor in its spread; of one of the best established cases it is said that it 'conveys absolutely no proof at all to those who do not already believe in the influence of drinking water.' It is urged that, even were it shown that the use of a particular drinking water was necessary to cause the spread of a cholera epidemic, we should still require to know 'why the drinking water only acquired this property in certain places and at certain times.' The case of the Broad Street Pump is even disputed as affording evidence in favour of Snow's theory; for, from a rapid decrease in the number of cases, Pestalozzi concludes 'that the cholera would have receded, even had the well not been closed by the police on the 6th of September.'

The length of the period of incubation is briefly discussed, instances being given of bodies of troops who were exposed for one day in an infected locality, and among whom the disease afterwards appeared; it would seem that a period of three days is about the minimum time of incubation.

Change of locality does passes under review. This has always been resorted to, though with very variable results, "for it is possible to pass from better to worse in such changes of locality." However, there are the most unexampled instances to show that, when cholera breaks out in a place, all who can should go away, and that the most beneficial re-

sults have frequently been obtained by this plan. Although they take cholera away with them, and although fresh cases occur during the next few days, the disease will not spread unless the locality to which it is taken be a suitable one.

With regard to the duration of cholera in troops on the march, Beyens has shown that for the native regiments the minimum duration is nine days, the maximum twenty-two, and the mean thirty; an entirely similar space of time to that given by our investigations on the average duration of deaths in the individual houses of an epidemically affected locality, or in house epidemics. By the 'duration of cholera' is here meant the time during which fatal cases occurred, reckoning from the first case.

In the section on "Cholera on board Ships," Pestalozzi maintains that 'a ship can as little ever undertake the part of the soil in the cholera-process as the human beings in it; cholera on board ships is always conditioned by, and dependent on, antecedent processes on shore.'

Beyens' description of the outbreak of cholera on board the *Rosso*, which left Gibraltar on August 21, 1856, cholera having appeared there on the 19th, is given at length; and it is pointed out as a very important fact, that the period of maximum intensity of the outbreak on board coincided exactly with that in the Gibraltar garrison. Beyens says, 'It may be suggested that this cholera was latent in the individuals attacked, or that the vessel sailed into a cholera-bearing stratos of air a fortnight after leaving Gibraltar. Neither possibility has any degree of probability attached to it. The germs were evidently brought on board with the wind.'

The investigations made by Cunningham and Beyens into the statistics of this matter are quoted; the several results being that, among ships leaving Calcutta for America and Mauritius, 16 or 17 per cent. were attacked with cholera, only about an average of 1 per cent. of the passengers being affected; 'on the average, in every cholera-ship there are 350 passengers and four cases of cholera.'

This shows how very unascertainable to the spread of cholera are the conditions on board ship, and warns us to hesitate before rejecting the theory of 'the indispensable part of the soil in the cholera process,' on account of the numerous cases of cholera appearing on board ship.

In a short section on "Individual Predisposition," we are told that among the troops 3·68 per 1,000 of the Europeans, and only 4·11 per 1,000 of the natives, die from cholera during epidemics. This difference is probably due to race, for the hill tribes of the Himalaya, the Gondwanas, who are Hindus, and have all the customs of the inhabitants of the plains of the Ganges, but not of a different race, are almost as susceptible as Europeans. But 'acculturation or accommodation' has a good deal to do with it, for recruits newly arrived from England suffer more than any others. Travellers in India, whether civilians or soldiers, are, according to Macpherson, specially prone to cholera, and this is true even of natives.

W. H. COOPERSTON, M.D.

(To be concluded next week.)

M. OVRUT, immensely known for his researches on the nervous system of the heart and other subjects, has been recently appointed Professor of Physiology in the Medical-Chirurgical Academy of St. Petersburg.

## REVIEW.

*Comptes Rendus des Séances et Mémoires de la Société de Biologie*, Ans 1872. 4 lithographic plates. Paris: A. Delahaye.

The volume contains thirteen memoirs, which it will suffice at present to enumerate, reserving the opportunity of publishing full analysis under the proper head in other pages. They are as follows: New Anatomy of the Vertebral Column observed in a horse (representing several vertebrae and different number of ribs in each of the thoracic walls), by M. A. Goubaux; A Case of Traumatic Tetanus, by M. A. Joffroy; Macroscopic Tissues of the Uninflated Cervix, by M. J. Robert; A Case of Double Uterus and Vagina; Intermittent Classification in Man; Special Calculus of the Skin in Silver-polishers; Pathogenesis of Foetal Alterations, by M. Olivier; Insects Injurious to the Fruit of the Walnut; Description and Figure of the Larva of the Elidae Class; Calcaceous Corporcles of the Echinococci; Physiological Observations on the Tonia Solaire, by M. Labeyrolles; Researches on the Tactile Organs of Insects, by M. Juhet; Researches on the Toxic Action of Carbolic Acid, by M. Bert.

## MISCELLANY.

**THE FATE OF EXPATRIATES.**—M. Flory has written to the Académie de Médecine to express regret that, prior to the Franco-German war, the size and shape of the kidneys in the late Emperor Napoleon III. were not investigated by a pleurotic physician.<sup>1</sup> A little more plausibility, and Flory might have been saved. On such threads does the lie of empire hang.

**THE INCIDENCE OF CANCER.**—Dr. Macnamara stated at the meeting of the Dublin Surgical Society, Jan. 2, that vesical calculus was very rare in Ireland in proportion to the population. Some of the most eminent Irish surgeons in the largest practice had not had more than fifty cases of lithotomy. Sir Philip Crumpton had only had fifty two, while when on a visit to Dublin he had witnessed the 200th and 250th case of Mr. Keath of Atherton. [The general law seems to be that calculus is relatively rare on western coasts, and common on eastern coasts; thus it is very common in Suffolk, Norfolk, Lincolnshire, Yorkshire, and along the coast to Aberdeenshire, and rare on the opposite coast. All the great lithotomists of the country have belonged to the eastern coasts.]

**PATRONS AT FOREIGN SEAS.**—British visitors in foreign ports are apt to attach some importance, in selecting their medical adviser, to the official staffs of the *Académie Impériale des Sciences* who hold state appointments there. The report of the Académie de Médecine of the Commission des Eaux Minérales affords some rather startling and not uninteresting information on this subject. The reporter, M. Gruber, in the name of the Commission, points out that the members addressed to the Academy by these officials are quite valuable; and most commonly come absolutely nothing. The authors confine themselves to saying here and there a few chemical analysis and pathological diatribes. These inspectors, it is added, functionaries without functions, simply probe by their rôles to make as much money as possible by undertaking to cure all sorts of disorders. They are nominated not for scientific works and medical value, but according to the caprice of the central authority. The Commissioners, while recognizing the fact that the inspectors are of no use, have not asked for them to be suppressed, but the Academy has decided that the report shall be printed and discussed, and

it is hoped that the suppression of the inspectorship will be voted.

**A HINT FOR THE POLICE.**—By order of the Prefect of Police in Paris, large tablets comprising the elementary principles of aid to be given to the sick and wounded, are to be suspended in all the public-places of the city, in order to avoid errors in continuing the insensibility of apoplexy, &c., with that of drowsiness, and to prevent mistakes in immediate proceedings before the physicians arrive.

**SOCIETY OF MEDICAL HYDROLOGY, PARIS.**—The officers for 1873 are M. Le Brez, President; MM. Goldar and Bourdin, Vice-Presidents; M. Turpin, General Secretary.

**SOCIETY OF MEDICINE, PARIS.**—The officers for 1873 are M. Lassere, President; M. Prieur, Vice-President; M. Chauvet, General Secretary.

**SOCIETY OF ASTROPHYSICS, PARIS.**—The officers for 1873 are M. Berthillon, President; General Faucheris and M. Dally, Vice-Presidents; M. Boucic, General Secretary.

*Journal of the Illness and Death of the late Napoleon III.* Dr. Guyot Saund, physician of the hôtel d'Instruction, announces a paper for this evening at the Société d'Hygiologie de Paris on Urinary Blood-poisoning.

The mortality among the members of the Académie de Médecine continues to be very great. During the past fortnight of the year two deaths were announced, those of M. Haugier and M. Dubois d'Amiens.

Steps are being taken to encourage the study of ophthalmology in France. M. Pans, *agréé* of the Faculty of Paris, has been charged with delivering a course of ophthalmology in the said faculty. M. Monoyer has been appointed to the same function in the Faculty of Medicine of Nancy.

The position of *agréé* of the Faculty of Medicine of Paris has been secured, after a 'brilliant augmentation' of three written by each candidate, to M. Devat. M. Devat's thesis was on the structure and uses of the retina. M. Collin presented in the same competition a thesis on connective tissue, which he identified with the connective substance, lamellar tissue, and cellular tissue of anatomy, all of which he considers as identical. M. Farberow presented a thesis on the epidermis and epithelium; and M. Le Guen one on the rachis-motor nerves.

**FAMOUS OR FEW: SOCIETY OF CHIRURGIC OF PARIS.**—At the annual sittings of the Société de Chirurgie, on Wednesday last, the prizes of the Society were distributed as follows:—The Durand prize to Dr. Albert Malherbe of Nancy for his thesis, 'Fever in the Diseases of the Urinary Passages. Researches on its Relations to the Affection of the Kidneys.' The Laheur prize was not awarded, but 'encouragements' were awarded to Dr. Guyot, of Lyon, for his 'Experimental Researches on the Capsule of the Crystalline Lens; surgical applications'; Prof. Dr. Desgranges for his thesis, 'On the Excavation of the Crystalline Lens in the Operation for Capsulo-lenticular Cancer'; to M. Petit for two memoirs entitled 'On the State of the Loin-muscular Veins on the Surface and in the Vicinity of Wounds when Nappening; Relations of this State with the Erigic Theory of Pyrexia,' and 'Notes towards the History of Ingual Phlebitis consequent to the Compression of the Femoral Artery in the fold of the Groin.'

**THE MEDICAL FACULTY OF CAMBRIDGE** proposes to candidates the following questions.—1. To study, proceeding from clinical and experimental data, the modes of transmission of tuberculosis, other than hereditaries; 2. To study, by experiments and observation, the part played by the lower organs in the production of miasmatic and contagious diseases; 3. To study the cholera from the point of view of their physiological action; 4. To determine the inconveniences of the employment of preparations of silver administered in therapeutic doses; 5. The employment of

electricity in the treatment of the insane; 4. To study the influence of the body on the mind from the point of view of moral responsibility, respecting the study by well-accostomed facts; 5. The action of sulphate of quinine on the uterus; 6. Thermotaxis by heat, the value of simple counteraction and counteraction combined with instruments of union, in the treatment of uterine fibroids. The memoirs, in French, Flemish, or Latin, must be sent free by post, according to Academy rules, to Dr. C. Williams, Secretary of the Society, Rue des Épinettes, No. 6, at liberal. The author of a memoir which is judged worthy of a prize will receive—1. A gold medal of a value to be determined by the importance of the work; 2. The title of corresponding member; 3. Fifty copies of the memoir.

PRISES OF THE ACADEMIE DES SCIENCES.—At its recent annual meeting the Academy awarded the following prizes (the two posts). For 1872, *Prix Béclard* (the general interest), M. Chauveau, for his Researches on the Viscera; *Prix Alibert*, a sum of 2,000 fr., to M. Gobat, for his Physiological and Medical Researches on the Respiration of Man; honorable mention to M. Monnier (Savant), for his Toxicological Researches (2,000 fr.); to M. Ringer-Pernod, for his Treatise on Direct Immobilization in Patients (1,000 fr.); to M. Cohn, for his Treatise on Intermittent Fever (1,000 fr.); mention to Dr. Reinhardt for Experimental Researches on the Transfusion of Maligrau Fluid by Film; Dr. Boughey, Clinical Lectures on the Disease of the Heart; Dr. Hayem, Symptomatic Myopathy, and the Relations existing between Nodular Deaths and the Various Alterations of the Heart in Uppertive Fever; *Prix Jules*, Dr. J. Joly, on Cancer of the Prostate; Dr. Pochet, *Avenir*; honorable mention, MM. Chauveau and Goujon, for their Researches on the Functional Properties of Nerves and Muscles during Uterine Life; *Prix Béclard*, M. Bourguet, pharmacian, on Crystallized Ascorine. For the year 1873, the *Prix Béclard*, to MM. Grimaux de Caux and Thibout, each a 2,000 fr.; honorable mention to Dr. Bourguet, *Avenir*; *Prix Cléménçat*, M. Tardieu, Workmen Medical Jurisprudence, 10,000 francs. *Prix Alibert*, a 2,000 fr., to MM. Lassereau and Luckebusche, for their Treatise on Pathological Anatomy; a 2,000 fr. to M. Chastang (Froeschl); a 2,000 fr. to MM. Cott and Feltz (Infectious Diseases); Dr. Jonquet (Pathology on the Scorpion); Dr. Desnoyer (Pathology); Dr. Desprez (Illustrations of the Neck of the Uterus); honorable mention, Dr. Wieser (Fusiform Absorption Spots of Saliva); Dr. Bergeret (Alterations of the Urine and the Bladder); M. Ernest Cade, Statistical Prize; Marriage in France, Dr. Ely; honorable mention, The Army and the Population, *Prix Gobat*; Dr. Massart, Studies of Koch's Symptomatology Newsgirls of Flannery's Epididymitis.

## FOREIGN BIBLIOGRAPHICAL RECORD. RECENT FRENCH WORK.

- De la Thérapie cathartique dans la Diabète*. Par le Dr. J. Robinson, Interno des Hôpitaux, 1872. Paris; A. Delahaye, 10 fr. 50.
- Etude sur la Révolution des Lésions endocrines d'origine traumatique. Combinations diabétiques et l'hypothèse des Adénos*. Par le Dr. Vitaut. 10 fr. Paris; A. Delahaye, 10 fr. 50.
- Des Maladies des Parties molles de la Jambe*. Par le Dr. P. Luton, 1872. Paris; A. Delahaye, 10 fr.
- Des Accidents des Parties molles de la Grossesse et l'Éclat puerperal*. Par le Dr. J. Cornillon, ancien Interno. 10 fr. Paris; A. Delahaye, 10 fr.
- Lectures sur l'Opération militaire faite à l'Hôpital Lariboisière*. Par S. Jaccard, Professeur agrégé à la Faculté de Médecine de Paris, etc., 1 vol. in-8, accompagné de 20 planches en chromolithographie. Paris; A. Delahaye, 1872.
- De la Curation des Charbons, de la Coquille, et des principes Malakof qui guérissent les Boeufs, les Bœufs, les Chevaux, et les Cochons. I. Traité de la nouvelle méthode à l'Acide Phénique*. Par le Dr. Deveze, 2<sup>e</sup> édition. 1 vol. in-12. Paris; A. Delahaye, 10 fr.
- Alimentation du Corseau et des Nest*. Par le Dr. Tatin.

Dospilles, 1 vol. in-8, avec 3 planches. Paris; A. Delahaye, 10 fr.

*De l'Hydratation contemporaine et son rapport à l'acide*. Par le Dr. Ch. Bellier. Paris; A. Delahaye, 10 fr.

*Traité d'Anatomie Description, avec Figures illustrées dans le texte*. Par Steiger. Traduction d'Anatomie à la Faculté de Médecine de Paris, 1<sup>e</sup> édition, entièrement refondue. T. 4. 10 planches. Splanchnologie. Appareil urinaire. Digestion. Paris; A. Delahaye, 10 fr.

*Conciliation à l'Ecole de Médecine, un Nord et une Théorie*. Par Louis Jullien, Interno des Hôpitaux de Lyon. 10 fr. Paris; A. Delahaye, 10 fr.

*De l'Art Augmenter dans les Néphrites et de l'Irrigation Spéciale*. Par le Dr. Armanagaud. 10 fr. Paris; J. Delahaye, 10 fr.

*Des Calculs de la Vesicule chez la Femelle et chez les Femmes Félines*. Par le Dr. Hydard, ancien Interno des Hôpitaux. 10 fr. Paris; Lévi, 10 fr.

*Traité de Physiologie Comparée des Animaux vivifiés dans ses rapports avec les Sciences Naturelles, la Médecine, la Zoologie et l'Anatomie Rurale*. Par M. Cohn, Professeur à l'Ecole vétérinaire d'Alfort, membre de l'Académie de Médecine. Deuxième édition, considérablement augmentée. 1971. 1 vol. In-8, avec 20 figures illustrées dans le texte. Paris; J. B. Ballière, et fils. Prix de l'Exposition universelle, 1873.

*Glossaire de l'Ophtalmologie et de la Pharmacologie*. Par A. Kallmann. Discours en Médecine, act et doctorat Faculté, 100 pages. Paris; H. Leucère, 10 fr.

*Principes de Psychologie, avec une étude sur l'Imagination et sur la Nature du Génie*. Par le Dr. P. A. Martin, 1 vol. in-12. De 100 pages, avec 4 planches. Paris, 1872, 10 fr. 50.

*Revue des Soins Médicaux en France et à l'étranger, recueil mensuel, analytique, critique et bibliographique*. dirigé par M. G. Hayen. No. 1. in-12. De 400 pages. Paris; G. Masson, 10 fr. Prix de l'Exposition universelle, Paris, 1873; déparment, 10 fr.

*De la Néphrite néphrolithiasique*. Par Dr. Kristeller. 10 fr. G. Masson, 10 fr.

*De l'Indication de l'Amputation sur l'Anse Viscérale*. Par Dr. M. Th. Klein, 10 fr. 50. Paris; H. Masson, 10 fr.

*Clinique chirurgicale de l'Hôpital de la Charité*. Par L. Gagnon. Tome I. in-12 de 300 pages, avec figures illustrées dans le texte. Paris; H. 1872 (l'avenir), 10 fr.

*Places et documents sur la maladie Pseudo-Latigoïde de 1793-94 (Calvados, Normandie et Pas-de-Calais)*, suivie de celle de Marseille. Par Dr. Héritier. In-8. A. Delahaye, 10 fr.

*De l'Enlèvement des os par les malades et chez les modernes et des Conséquences pour l'étude de l'Anatomie*. Par Dr. Stoecken. In-8. Paris; A. Delahaye, 10 fr.

*Résumé élégant sur le diagnostic et le traitement des différentes espèces de Néphrite et de la Diphtherite Amalgamée des reins*. Par Dr. Gobat. 10 fr. Paris; A. Delahaye, 10 fr.

## BOOKS, &c., RECEIVED FOR REVIEW.

- The Beginnings of Life*. By M. Charles Baillie, M.A., M.D., F.R.S. Macmillan & Co. 1872.  
Another World. Tinsley, 1872.

## NOTICES TO CORRESPONDENTS.

The suggestion of Dr. Hawking (Chesney) shall, as far as possible, be adopted.

Communications have been received from Dr. Crighton, Dr. Macpherson, Dr. Bannister (Paris), Dr. De Quincey (Paris), Mr. Allingham, Mr. Berkeley Hill, Dr. Morell Mackenzie, Dr. Baldwin Woodman, Dr. Popham, Dr. John Murray, Mr. William Lewis (Basingstoke), Dr. G. L. Loudon, Dr. Bruce, Mr. Marcus Beck, Dr. George Johnson, Dr. Cobbold, Mr. Schuster, Dr. Collie, Dr. M. Watson (University of Edinburgh), Dr. Lucas Charnier (Paris), Dr. T. Lester Weston, Mr. Russell Martin, Dr. J. H. Morgan, Dr. Popham, Dr. Justice, Dr. Franklin.

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**THE LANCET**, March 9, April 20, and Nov. 2, 1871;  
**MEDICAL TIMES AND GAZETTE**, Nov. 11, 1871;  
**THE PRACTITIONER**, Nov. 1871;

**BRITISH MEDICAL JOURNAL**, Aug. 11, 1871;  
**MEDICAL PRESS AND CIRCULAR**, Oct. 16 and Nov. 8, 1871;  
**PHARMACEUTICAL JOURNAL** (3rd Series), vol. i., p. 136.

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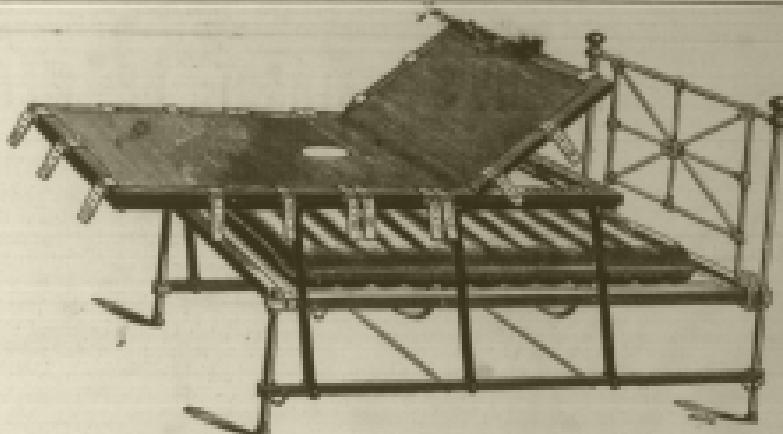
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