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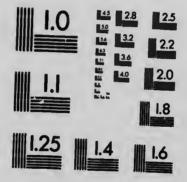
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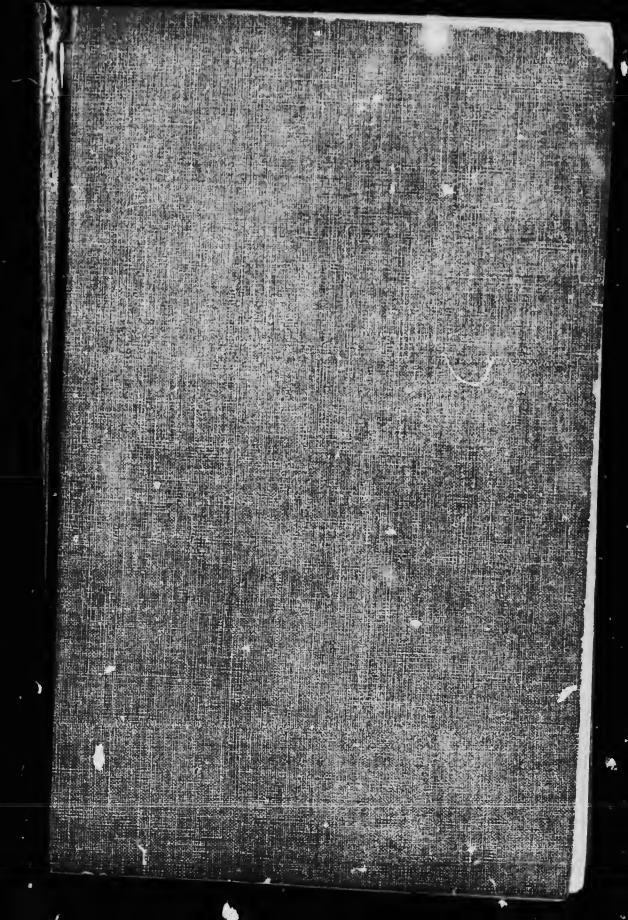


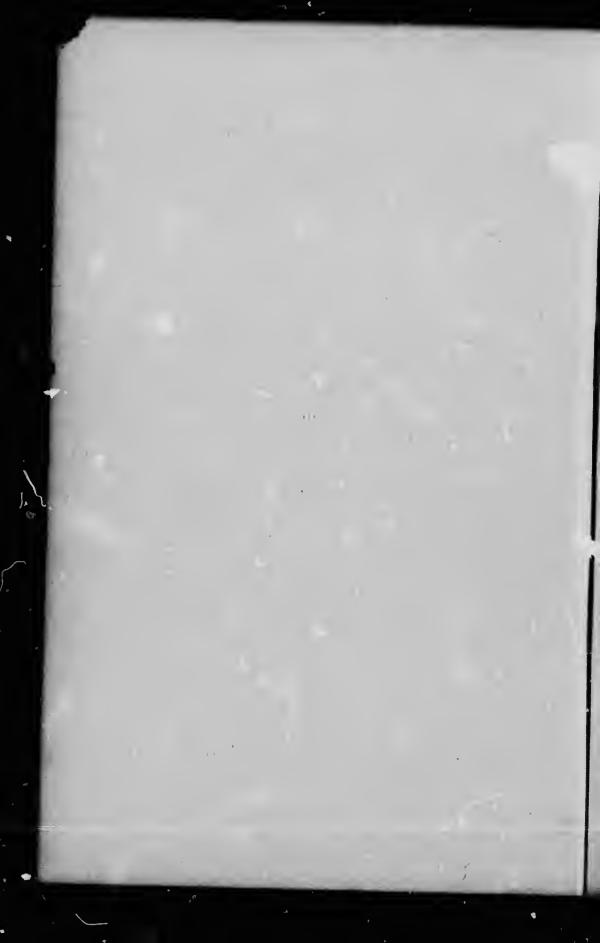


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THE PRACTICAL

Household Physician

A CYCLOPAEDIA

Family Medicine, Surgery, Nursing and Hygiene

FOR DAILY USE IN

THE PRESERVATION OF HEALTH AND CARE OF THE SICK AND INJURED

BY HENRY HARTSHORNE

merly Professor of Hygiene in the University of Pennsylvania lessor of Physiology and Diseases of Children in Women's N College of Pennsylvania: Author of "Our Homes," "Essen of Practical Medicine," Etc., Etc., Editor of the Americ Edition of "Reynolds" System of Medicine."

INTRODUCTION BY

ALEXANDER McPHEDRAN, M.D., Etc.

Toronto - Canada

Professor of Medicine and Clinical Medicine, Toronto University; Physician Toronto General Hospital, St. Michael's Hospital, and Victoria Hospital for Sick Children.

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INTRODUCTION.

"Household Manual of Medicine." This book was written by one of the ablest Physicians in the United States. It will serve as a useful guide to the heads of families in the general care of their households, especially in those parts of the country in which Medical Assistance is not easily obtained. The whole work will be found interesting, especially the parts devoted to Hygiene and to NURSING THE SICK. Among people generally there is much need for instructions in such matters. So much can be done by HEALTH-FUL LIVING to keep people well and strong that no means should be neglected in teaching them what conditions are healthful, and what are injurious, in order that they may seek the former and avoid the latter as far as possible.

In sickness nothing contributes more to the comfort and recovery of the sick one than intelligent and capable nursing, so that the chapters devoted to Nursing should be carefully studied by all who have such duty to perform.

The sections on special disease and the remedies useful for each will be of use in emergencies, and in places where the services of a Physician cannot be obtained. Under such circumstances, intelligently applied, these sections may afford much assistance to those placed in such difficult conditions.

The author is at pains to point out that the book is not intended to displace the doctor, but only for use in emergency and to assist in carrying out the Physicians' directions in nursing the patient. Many of the most serious diseases are very mild at first. For instance, in DIPHTHERIA, there may be only a slight sore throat at the beginning, and very often even the Physician cannot be certain what the disease is until he has examined for the germs present; and it must not be forgotten that this disease may

occur quite unexpectedly when not prevalent. So it is with SCARLET FEVER, ACUTE BRIGHT'S DISEASE, and others. While it is, therefore, desirable that parents should not be over anxious about the slight ailments of their children, it is important that they should not forget that many serious diseases begin as slight ailments.

During recent years much advance has been made in our knowledge of the causes of some diseases, and the best means of preventing and curing them. For example, the germ of MALARIA is now quite well known, and it is practically certain that the disease is spread by means of a certain kind of mosquito—the "Anopheles." The malarial germ grows in the body of the mosquito and is injected into human beings when the mosquito forces its proboscis through the skin to suck the blood. Almost all living in low-lying districts in which water lodges have malaria because they were bitten by these infected mosquitos which were present in great numbers in such places. When such districts are drained most of the mosquitos disappear, and those left lost their infection. The MALARIAL GERM as well as the mosquito seems to require staggernt water for its growth.

Of Typhoid Fever our knowledge has greatly increased. It causes many deaths annually, and also entails great loss of time and money to the many who recover. To prevent its occurrence it is only necessary to provide pure water for household use and to have our houses properly drained. Wells often become impure, and the use of the water for drinking, for washing milk-pans, dishes, etc., may spread the disease. If the purity of the water is in doubt it should be boiled to destroy the germs in it before being used for such purposes. We cannot judge of the purity of water by its appearance, as it may contain many typhoid and other germs and be quite clear.

In late years perhaps most advance has been made in our knowledge of the causes and the means of spreading Consumption, and the steps necessary to be taken for its prevention and cure. We know that the disease is caused by a germ which grows slowly wherever it finds lodgment—in the Lungs, the Bowels, the Joints, etc. It is very difficult to destroy the Germ in the body, and it lives long after being cast out of the body. It is present in the Sputum, if the Lungs are affected; in the Urine, if the Kidneys are affected; and in the Stool, if the Intestines are affected. It is

by the germs thus cast off getting into the bodies of other persons that the disease is spread, especially through the coughing of those having disease of the Lungs. It is important, therefore, that all these materials be destroyed at once, because if allowed to dry, particles from them may get into the air and infect those who may inhale them. Of these substances the Sputum, of course, is much more dangerous, as many people are so careless about it. It can be easily destroyed, and no one should be permitted to spit on the floor of any room, in cars, or any place where people assemble, as, besides being a dirty habit, we cannot be sure that the germs of Consumption are not present. Spitting on walks of all kinds should be stopped as offensive and dangerous; ladies' dresses may gather up the Spurum, carry it home, where it may be shaken into the air to be inhaled by the family.

Recently it has been shown that in coughing, the Consumptive expels into the air small particles of Sputum, so small that they may not be visible, and many of these particles are loaded with germs. It is probable that it is from these particles that the disease is usually contracted by those who are exposed to it. This source of danger is much more difficult to control than that from the Sputum. As far as possible, therefore, while coughing, the handkerchief or a piece of paper should be held before the face to catch

Milk from tuberculous or Consumptive cows, and beef from infected cattle, may, and often do, contain the germs, and should not, therefore, be used for Food. The germs may be destroyed by boiling or cooking. This source of danger is much less than that from breathing air in which the germs are floating. The chief danger is to children, as they drink much more milk than adults.

In the prevention as well as the cure of Consumption the most important means is living in an atmosphere of fresh air both day and night. Cattle as well as people that live an out-of-door life all the time are free from Consumption. This is well illustrated by the history of the Indians of America. When they lived a wandering life on the prairies, sleeping in tepees or in the open, there was no Consumption among them. But since they began to be civilized and to live in houses, very many of them have died of Consump-TION. The reason is plain. On the plains the air was fresh and pure; there is so much of it that it cannot be poisoned with anything, as germs of all kinds are rapidly swept away, just as the

waters of the lakes remain pure, although refuse from the many ships on them is thrown into them. In their houses, on the other hand, little if any care is taken as to ventilation or cleanliness, and the airsoon becomes loaded with whatever germs gain entrance into them, and the Bacillus of Tuberculosis soon finds its way there.

The lesson from this is very simple. To prevent the disease as well as to cure those who have it, the first requisite is a life in FRESH AIR night and day. In order to live such a life both the living and sleeping rooms should be well ventilated, and as much time as possible should be spent in the open air. All houses should have at least small verandahs attached to them on which the family may sit in mild weather. Those affected with Consumption should spend as much time as possible out of doors on these verandahs, or in summer houses, tents or shelters, even sleeping all night in such places in summer. There is no danger from exposure to cold so long as sufficient covering is worn to prevent chilling. By wrapping up warmly and the use of foot warmers, even weakly persons in advanced Consumption may sit or lie in a couch in the open air for several hours daily in our coldest weather. No degree of cold that we have should prevent consumptives being in the fresh air. The cold, wet weather of the early spring, is, however, rather severe on people so affected, especially if they are weak and unable to get about with fair vigor. Change to a mild, bright climate is advisable for such persons, if they are able to secure all the comforts necessary, because they are better able to live out-of-doors. However, the air of these climates—of California, for example—is no better than the air of our own country, except so far as it is less cold and wet. The way to "stamp out" the disease is not by seeking other climates, but by making our homes healthful and living much in the fresh air. In proportion to our doing that will be our success in freeing our country of this terrible scourge that has been well named the "white plague,"







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ILLUSTRATING MODERN METHOD OF TREATING CONSUMPTION AT THE NATIONAL SANATORIUM, GRAVENHURST, ONTARIO

Cottages and Tents near by,

PREFACE.

I is the aim of this book to convey, in a simple manner, all the information likely to be wanted by unprofessional persons, concerning the preservation of health, and the care of those who suffer from disease and injury.

No intention is herein implied to supersede the attendance of physicians or surgeons upon persons who are ill or seriously hurt. On the contrary, it is hoped that the readers of this book will be thereby better prepared to appreciate and assist the skilful efforts of medical practitioners to relieve suffering and save or prolong life. But there are, especially in the country, many instances of sudden illness, or of accident, when no physician can be obtained, perhaps or several hours. It is then very desirable that some one, at least, if not all concerned, should know enough to do promptly what can and ought to be done; as delay may sometimes, indeed often, make the difference between life and death. Moreover, many ailments occur in families, particularly among children, hardly severe enough for it to seem necessary to send for a physician; and yet in which it is important not to neglect symptoms and conditions, which, without early care, may grow worse and give much trouble. The "stitch in time" is here a very applicable Lyword. Such treatment as can only be safely and advantageously carried out under the direction of a physician or surgeon is, if mentioned at all, not dwelt upon in the present work; the reader being referred, for special and extended information of that kind, to professional medical treatises.

The outline of Anatomy and Physiology given in this book is purposely brief; but, aided by the illustrations, it may suffice, for those before unacquainted with the subject, to make more intelligible the statements and allusions occurring in the rest of the volume.

Hygiene, the science and art of the Preservation of Health, is systematically treated in the second division of the work. The author hopes that a careful perusal of what is said in these pages upon that subject will reward some readers, at least, for the time devoted to them.

Under Domestic Medicine, after general considerations concerning the Nature, Causation, and Symptoms of Diseases, and upon the modes of action of Remedies, attention is given at considerable length to Nursing. Then, in regard to Special Diseases, Accidents, Injuries, and Poisoning, information is supplied in detail, suel as appears to be suitable for a work on Home Medicine and Surgery. Those portions of the book are arranged alphabetically; for easy and convenient reference. As there are, besides a very full General Index, several special Indexes, it is hoped that few if any questions appropriate to such a work will occur, to which answers may not be readily found in it, expressed in terms which will be understood by all.

HOW BEST TO USE THIS BOOK.

Two purposes belong to it: 1. To impart such knowledge as will enable every one to keep good health. 2. To give information about what to do for those who are sick or hurt in any way when no physician or surgeon is at hand. It is not meant to take the place of a doctor in severe illness or injury (see p. 257), but to show how to do the best possible in the absence of a doctor.

One who knows little about physiology will do well to read carefully the sections on Anatony and Physiology (pp. 35-113). All who possess the book are advised to cac the whole of the section on Hygiene (pp. 117-199). It is meant to tell all about how to keep well. The author has tried to make it interesting and easily understood.

Heads of families or those who expect to become such may find it to their advantage to read, in the Domestic Medicine (Part I., from p. 203 to p. 496), on the Causes and Nature of Diseases; also, Part II., from p. 256 to p. 294, on Remedies; and especially Part III., on Nursing, from p. 262 to p. 290. Mothers and nurses should also read carefully from p. 382 to p. 402. Part VII., on Old Age and Death, pp. 659 and 661, is short and easily read. As action in cases of poisoning must be very prompt, it will be well for every one to know beforehand the main facts given in Part VI., on Poisoning, from pp. 629 to 657.

Sions and Symptoms of Disease, from p. 240 to p. 255, will be worth studying by those who have patience for it; but that part of the book is very condensed, and is somewhat hard reading.

SPECIAL DISEASES are arranged in the alphabetical order of their names, from p. 403 to p. 578; and Accidents and Injuries, in the same way, from p. 579 to p. 625; Poisons, from p. 629 to p. 657. These portions of the book are suited either for reading or for ready reference in time of need. Most persons will use them chiefly for reference. In the treatment of diseases and injuries all is told that can

be safely done without a doctor. For information about what more a doctor will find and may do, readers may be referred to strictly medical books (as, for example, the author's Essentials of Practical Medicine or Flint's Practice of Medicine, etc.).

Doses of Medicines are given from p. 357 to p. 359, and Giving Medicines is considered from p. 382 to p. 384. Sick-Foods

are told about from p. 373 to p. 381.

MANAGEMENT OF LABOR (childbirth) is fully dealt with, giving

all necessary particulars, from p. 391 to 102.

There are seven INDEXES: 1. P. 6... of Local Disorders and Injuries. 2. P. 665, of Diseases. 3. P. 928, of Accidents and Injuries. 4. P. 929, of Poisons. 5. P. 670, of Classes of Remedies and of Sick-Foods. 6. P. 671, of Medicines and other Remedies. 7. P. 76, GENERAL INDEX of all subjects mentioned in the book. The use of the special indexes will often be convenient, but in a subject is not at once so found, look for it in the GENERAL INDEX.

The Glossary contains definitions of all technical and otherwise out-of-the-way words used in the book. While convenient for ready reference, it is made almost unnecessary by such words being explained where they are used (which is as little as possible) throughout the book. The author has end-avored to write so as to

be easily understood by all readers.

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Tuberculosis

A Curable and Preventable Disease

BY

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The Microscopic World. With Pasteur's discovery of the micro-organic world civilization entered upon a new epoch. With it many of the phenomena of life which had not been understood and which had led to superstitious practices became clear and intelligible. Disease for the first time appeared in its real character and came within the control of man on a rational and exact basis. In the wake of Pasteur's work Koch discovered the active cause of consumption, a living entity subject to the same fundamental laws as govern all living things. With Koch's revelation an onslaught upon consumption began. It has gained force with every step since then and will culminate in the complete extermination of the white plague, as consumption has been properly termed.

What Consumption is. Consumption is caused by the growth of certain micro-organisms in the tissue of our bodies. These micro-organisms grow in us in the same way as wheat, timothy and elover grow in a field. The chief of them is called the tubercle bacillus. Without it consumption cannot take place, but it alone cannot produce all the phenomena which we know as consumption. Some of the others which help to make up the disease are the streptocoeens and the staphylococens. The word consumption means burning up, and was given to the disease because the person who is affected wastes away as though he were consumed. In olden times the disease was not recognized until the patient was on the brink of the grave. The stages which lead up to this fatal termination were usually looked upon as other diseases and were known under other names. This relationship was not recognized until scientific men began to dissect the human body after death and carefully study the changes which had taken place. It was then that the word tuberculosis came into use. It was gradually substituted for the word consumption.

What Tuberculosis is. Tuberculosis is the implantation and growth of the tubercle bacillus in the tissues of a human being or an animal. The tubercle bacillus as a living entity conforms more

nearly to the laws governing the vegetable kingdom than those governing the animal kingdom. It is rod-shaped about one sixthousandth of an inch in length and about one hundred-thousandth of an inch in thickness. It grows on the tissue as a parasite and ordinarily does not grow except upon the tissue of some living thing. It can be grown artificially in a laboratory on boiled potato, in beef tea and on agar, but it is difficult to grow in this way. It is only when it grows upon a living thing that the phenomena which it produces are called tuberculosis. The word tuberculosis is derived from the Latin word "tuber" which means a little root or lump. The name was given to the disease because the first stage of it is the production of little lumps.

Distinction between Consumption and Tuberculos. i. In the popular mind consumption and tuberculosis are one and the same thing. They are not the same thing, however, and it is worth while keeping the distinction in mind. Consumption : the terminal stage of tuberculosis but tuberculosis does not have to become consumption. If tuberculosis were always recognized when it is merely tuberculosis and proper treatment followed, nobody would need to die of the disease. When the tubercle bacillus gets lodging in the tissue it reproduces itself very rapidly. The cells of the body at once start a fight with it and in the struggle many of them die. An accumulation of dead cells and living and dead hacilli take: 'ace on the hattle field and a little lump forms. This is the lump uich has given us the name tuberculosis. By and by when the little lump grows large enough to become a foreign body, nature cuts it off from healthy tissue in order to save that which is still healthy. Here is where the other micro-organisms come in to help the tuberele bacillus. The streptococcus and the staphylococcus which exist very plentifully in nature, and which can do no harm to the body so long as it is perfectly healthy, get lodgment in this injured tissue and help to break it down. What is ealled softening takes place and the little lump becomes a eheesy mass. This is consumption. For the purpose of getting rid of this dead matter nature breaks a channel into the nearest opening of the hody and throws it out. This is called ulceration and ejection of the dead tissue. During this time there is danger of the tubercle hacillus again getting back into the system through re-infection. If the person is at all uncleanly or does not destroy every particle of this dead tissue when it comes off, he is sure to re-inoculate himself.

Recurrence of Tuberculosis. No one ever dies of a single attack of tuberculosis. The first attack is mild. This is followed by one slightly more severe, and there is a series of attacks, each

more severe than the preceding one until finally the process culminates in death.

Colds, Influenza and Pneumonia in relation to Tuberculosis. Colds, influenza and pneumonin have been looked upon as eauses of consumption and are still regarded as such. They are not primary causes but secondary causes. When the tubercle bacillus has gotten into the system these diseases can help to break down the individual and hurry up the tuberculous process but they eannot themselves produce tuberculosis. The injury which they themselves can do may also prepare the individual for the tuberele They are themselves due to living micro-organisms which are independent entities. Colds are probably due to various kinds of miero-organisms whilst influenza and pneumonla are due each to a specific micro-organism. A micro-organism can only re-produce its own kind and can never be transformed into other micro-organisms. A cold will therefore always produce a cold, influenza will always produce influenza, pneumonin will always produce pneumonia and tuberculosis will always produce tuberculosis. For a person who has tuberculosis an attack of cold, influenze or pneumonia is a sorious matter and for this reason tuberevious people should keep away from people who have those diseases.

History of Consumption. Consumption has existed in the world as long back as history records anything. It is found in every part of the habitable globe. It has been a plague upon the earth in all times. It is a disease of the poor, and flourishes best among those in the lowest walks of life. In the United States upwards of a hundred thousand people die of it annually, and throughout the civilized world there are at least a million deaths a year from the disease. We are apt to form our ideas about its prevalence by the death rate from consumption. This does not give a true pieture. Many people die of tuberculosis and the death is recorded under some other name. Many people are, moreover, crippled by the disease without dying. Some of the names under which consumption parades are marasmus, meningitis, serofula, inanition, peritonitis, Potts disease and white swelling. It often appears even under other names, such as typhoid fever, pneumonia and pleurisy. Many of the misshapen people whom we see on the streets have been made so by tubereulosis. Nearly all spinal curvatures are due to this disease. Some of the horrible disfigurements of the skin are due to lupus which is caused by tuberculosis. Some of the insanities are due to this disease. In reality the death rate which is recorded under the head of consumption gives but a very faint picture of the toll

which tuberculosis levies upon the human family. Our insane asylums, orphan asylums, almshouses, houses of refuge, reformatories, prisons and penitentiaries shelter many of the indirect results of tuberculosis, and give some indication of what this disease costs the human family.

How Tuberculosis got into the World. The question is often asked how did tuberculosis get into the world? As a disease it probably came through the sin of man. It is not, however, due to providential intervention, as many formerly believed, but is the natural result of the working out of nature's laws. We now know that there are in nature millions of micro-organisms of various kinds which have to do with the changes going on in nature all the time. What we know as saprophitic micro-organisms change dead organic tissue into inorganic tissue. They break up those things which had life, and which for one reason or another have ended their usefulness in death, into inorganic substances so that the elements can again go back to nature to be taken up as food by the living things which are still growing and developing. In this way the chain of change from organic to inorganic tissue and from inorganic to organic tissue is kept up. The probabilities are that the tubercle bacillus originally was one of these innocent microorganisms which gradually acquired the power to grow on living tissue through the debasement of that tissue by man when he failed to live up to the laws of nature. Even now the individual who keeps himself perfectly well, lives in the open air and eats ouly the things which he ought to eat can resist tuberculosis. When, however, through dissipation, through overwork, through improper housing or through any offense against the laws of good health he puts his tissue below par, his cells become a ready prey to the tubercle bacillus. In time by evolution this bacillus has acquired the power of attacking living cells and this no doubt is how tuberculosis came into the world.

Is Tuberculosis Inherited? The old idea was that tuberculosis was inherited. People got this idea because they saw the disease occur so frequently in families, and saw it run through two or three generations. We now know why this happens. It is not because tuberculosis is inherited but because it is communicable in a peculiar way. For communication of the disease a long intimate association is necessary, such as most frequently exists in the family, and therefore the disease is conveyed oftenest along the family tree. The intimacy which is necessary for the spread of tuberculosis may also exist outside of the family in places of employment, and the disease is sometimes conveyed in

this way. Tuberculosis is never transmitted from the parent to the offspring in the true sense of heredity.

Sometimes a child is born with the disease, but this is because the mother has the disease so far advanced and so widely distributed in her body that the child gets it by direct contact. The child is then born with the disease and usually dies shortly after birth. Even this occurs very rarely, and so free is offspring of tuberculous parents from the disease that in some parts of the world tuberculous eattle are used for breeding purposes, the young being separated from the parents immediately after birth and thus brought up in perfect health.

Predisposition to Tuberculosis. Whilst the disease eannot be inherited a predisposition to it may be inherited. Some families undoubtedly are more prone to tuberculosis than others. This is true not only of families but of races. The negro race and the Indian race are very much more susceptible to consumption than the white races. Some white races are more susceptible than others. Moreover, in some people the disease runs a much more violent course than in others and is much more likely to prove fatal. Some races get the disease readily but have it in an exceedingly mild form so that it rarely proves fatal. Predisposition is usually divided into three kinds, individual, family and racial. The individual predisposition is often brought about by improper living and by excess in eating and drinking. Family predisposition may be due to inherited tendencies or to environment under which the family lives. Racial predisposition appears to hinge largely upon the length of time to which the race has been exposed to the disease and the resistance which the race has built ap against the disease. We do not know yet exactly what constitutes predisposition and why it exists but there is probably the same fundamental law underlying it which governs the usefulness of soil for certain crops. We all know that some crops do better on some soils than others and that if we continue to plant the same erops on the same soil, year in and year out, it is only a question of time until the soil will no longer produce the crop. Future observations and study will no doubt give us more light upon this

Diseases as Predisposing Causes of Consumption. There are some diseases which predispose to consumption. They do this in two ways, by changing the contour of the body and by modifying the tissues of the body. To the former belong rickets, post uasal adenoid growths, rheumatism and gonorrhea. To the latter small pox, measles, whooping cough, typhoid fever, syphilis and pneumonia. Rickets may, for instance, produce chicken breast

and thereby interfere with healthy breathing. Enlargement of the adenoid tissue also interferes with breathing. Rhenmatism may do damage to the heart or to the pleura or the lining membranes of the joints and thereby pave the way for the tubercle bacillus. Much of the blame which is put upon small pox, measles and such acuto diseases as a predisposing cause of tuberculosis is probably unwarranted, but it is possible that the damage which these diseases may do to the tissues may make soil for tuberculosis. A person who has gone through an acute disease while still weak offers good soil for implantation of the tubercle bacillus if he is exposed to contagion at that time, and in this sense, at least, all of the acute diseases predispose to tuberculosis.

Dissipation as a Predisposing Cause. Dissipation is a predisposing cause of consumption. In this way consumption is the wages of sin. Dissipation is a scattering of vital forces by excessive indulgence of any kind. It always strikes at the most vulnerable point, and this is true when the indulgence even seems to feed the body. Whatever makes for lowered vitality makes for consumption, and dissipation of every kind makes for lowered vitality. Dissipation which directly or indirectly grows out of the affinities of the sexes, self-abuse, sowing of wild oats, beau catching and all the arts and devices which go with it in these times, may make soil for tuberculosis by exhausting the nervous system. Loss of sleep, excessive eating and drinking, excessive use of tea, coffee and tobacco all are predisposing causes.

Want and Overwork as Predisposing Causes. Two of the most potent predisposing causes of consumption are want and overwork. This is why tuberculosis is so largely a disease of the poor. Want means not only bad nutrition of the body but bad housing. When the body does not get enough nutrition it becomes good soil for the tubercle bacillus. Bad untrition may be due to insufficient food or insufficient air. The poor are apt to lack both food and fresh air, partly because they cannot afford to buy them and partly on account of ignorance. Much of the food which poor people buy contains little nutrition and they, moreover, do not know how to prepare it so as to make it digestible. Poor people should learn to buy milk and eggs rather than pastry and They can really get more mutritition for their money in milk and eggs than they can get in any other food. Fresh air is at the command of everyone and there can scarcely be any excuse for anyone not having enough of it. In a sense, however, we are compelled to buy fresh air indoors because we need houses into which fresh air can be admitted. Houses are not built in a way which makes it easy to get fresh air into them, but with

that the inhabitants of them can sleep in the open air. However humble the dwelling the inhabitant of it should insist upon having the sleeping room so ventilated that he is practically in the open air. As to overwork this is not always within the control of the individual. Working people, however, should realize that excessive fatigue greatly predictores to consumption, and when they have to work hard should take rest on every possible occasion. When people have tuberculous they should reduce their work to within the limits of fatigue, as otherwise they are bound to go under. Of all predisposing causes to the disease, overwork is probably the most potent.

Alcohol in Tuberculosis. In olden times and among a great many people even now alcohol is looked upon as a protection and a cure of consumption. It is neither, but on the contrary is a predisposing cause, and when a person has tuberculosis helps to develop the disease. It may be that a very limited amount of alcohol taken at mealtime is of use in building up the body, but even this is uncertain. But whether a small amount of alcohol is beneficial or not it is quite certain that the quantity which can safely be taken daily is exceedingly small, and that when this amount is exceeded the alcohol becomes poisonous and injurious. The only safe practice to follow is to abstain from the use of alcohol altogether. Alcohol in the parent, moreover, leads to degeneration in the offspring and may create a predisposition to tuberculosis in the offspring. For the person who has tuberculosis there is only one safe practice and that is to abstain entirely from alcohol.

Climate and Tuberculosis. It used to be taught that the only eure for tubereulosis was elimate, and lots of people still have an idea that elimate is a very important factor in both the development and treatment of tuberculosis. As a matter of fact climate has no influence either upon the development or the treatment of tuberculosis. Every part of the world has had tuberculosis, and nearly every part of the world has the disease now. disease is more virulent in warm climates than in cold. are many parts of the world which have been at one time free from tuberculosis but which when the disease was introduced had it as abundantly as any other place and sometimes more abundantly than places in which the disease had existed for a long time. At present the beautiful climates of California, Arizona, Oregon, Nevada, Colorado, and some of the southern states have the highest mortality from tuberculosis in the United States. In a general way cold climates give better protection against consumption and

are of more use in the treatment of the disease than warm climates. For some people high altitudes are better than low altitudes, but for some consumptives low altitudes are better than high altitudes. It is pefectly safe to disregard the question of climate entirely in dealing with tuberculosis.

Immunity in Tuberculosis. There is a resistance to tuberculosis in human beings which is called immunity. Most people possess it in some degree, but some to a much greater degree than others. Some races possess it in a greater degree than others, and some families possess it in a greater degree than others. The probabilities are that immunity is gradually developed by resistance to the disease, and for this reason families and races which have been fighting the disease in some of their members for long periods have great resistance. Children born of tuberculous parents are apt to have more immunity than the parents had, and when the disease has been in a family for three or four generations those who have withstood it usually have a very great immunity. Of the various races the Jews have the greatest immunity. There is no permanence in immunity against tuberculosis in the individual, the family or in the race. It may be lost after many generations in the family and it may be lost in the individual through depression in health. Racial immunity is probably the most durable of all.

Contagiousness of Tuberculosis. Tuberculosis being due to a living thing is communicable from one person to another and cannot be gotten except by communication from a previous case. The mode of communication of tuberculosis is by contact and the disease is therefore contagious. This contact need not be direct but may be indirect through a place or thing. A room which has been occupied by a consumptive or a thing which has been used by a consumptive may accumulate enough of the contagion to convey the disease to another person who subsequently occupies such a room or uses such a thing. Nowadays the words contagious and infectious are used synonymously although formerly they had different meanings. The old meaning of infection was conveyance of a disease through a force generated outside of the person giving the disease to the person receiving it. Yellow fever, for instance, is an infectious disease according to the old meaning of the word because it is carried from one person to another by a mosquito. The contagion of tuberculosis differs, however, from the contagion of such diseases as small pox, measles and scarlet fever, in that it is very much slower and requires longer and more intimate exposure. You cannot get tuberculosis by a single contact with a person who has the disease; you have to be in intimate

relationship with such a person for a considerable time. You can 25 get small pox, measles and searlet fever by a single momentary contact with persons who have these diseases. The slowness and mildness of the contagion of tuberculosis makes the prevention of the disease very easy when properly understood.

Mode of Contagion of Tuberculosis. The contagion of tubereulosis is always contained in broken down tissue given off by the person who has the disease. Usually this tissue is thrown off in the form of spit but relimes it is given off in the form of matter. When a consumptive coughs he may spray out some of this matter in his cough and he may do the same when he sneezes. The contagion is not in the breath, however. A tuberenlous subject is not contagions until he begins to give off broken down matter, because there is no contagion execpt in this broken down matter. A tuberculous subject who gives off broken down matter can make himself non-contagious by properly disposing of that matter immediately when it is given off. The dangerousness of the consumptive, therefore, depends upon his habits. promisenously or if he spits into handkerchiefs or rags and smears himself all over with the sputum he is a dangerous person to have around, but if he spits into a sputum cup which he holds close to his mouth, and if he always holds a paper napkin to his mouth when he coughs and sneezes and puts that paper napkin into a bag where he cannot smear anything, he is entirely safe.

How Contagion can be Prevented. A tuberculous subject should always put every profession of broken down tissue into a receptacle immediately who given off. If he expectorates he should hold a paper sputn a up close to his mouth so that he does not distribute any of the matter over his clothing; after expectorating he should earefully wipe his mouth with a paper napkin, fold up the paper napkin and put it in a paper bag. When he has an accumulation of these things he should burn them. He should always keep his hands and lip elean and be careful to wash his hands and cleanse his lips before eating. If by any chance he spills any broken down tissue on his bed elothes or on the floor he should immediately clean up the matter. If the clothes are of a character that they can be boiled they should be boiled at once. Absolute eleanliness is the safest protection against the spread of tuberculosis.

Consumption a House Disease. Consumption has been called a house disease because it is in the house or rather in an enclosure of some kind that the disease is usually conveyed from one person to another. It is questionable whether tuberculosis can be contracted out of doors. The enclosure in which the disease is most

frequently contracted is the home, because it is in the home where the greatest intimacy exists and where a consumptive spends most of his time. A house will harbor the contagion of tuberculosis a varying length of time accordingly as it is sanitary or unsanitary, light or dark, dry or damp. The tubercle bacillus does not live long in the bright light and fresh air, but may live a very long time in a dark and dingy room. Damp, badly drained houses are particularly conducive to the development of tuberculosis. Next to the house the workshop undoubtedly is the place in which the disease is most frequently conveyed from the sick to the well. Working side by side, day in and day out, with a consumptive who expectorates carclessly in the shop is exceedingly dangerous. If the consumptive can be induced to properly care for his sputum there is no danger whatever. Stores and offices also are the means of spreading the diseasc. In such places the danger is greatest to those who are next to the consumptive and seldom extends much beyond this immediate environment. All this danger can be done away with by proper disposal of the broken down tissue.

Hotels and Boarding Houses as Means of Spreading Tuberculosis. Hotels and boarding houses sometimes become the media of spreading tuberculosis, although perhaps not as often as people think. The occupancy of a room by a consumptive for a single night or for two or three nights would ordinarily not contaminate the room sufficiently to make it possible for a subsequent occupant to get the disease. Neither would the occupancy of a badly infected room for a single night by a healthy person likely conveythe disease. It really takes some time to implant tuberculosis, and one would have to occupy a room of this kind for a good many days before he could get an implantation. Something depends upon the condition of onc's health. If one is much depressed he will get an implantation much easier than when he is in perfect condition.

Servants and Employees as Spreaders of Tuberculosis. Servants and employees sometimes give tuberculosis to their employers or to their fellow employees. A consumptive cook, for instance, could very easily infect a whole family. A consumptive chambermaid or dining-room girl might likewise give the disease to those upon whom she waits. There is all the more danger from sources of this kind because the person who has the disease is apt to hide it. Employers should insist that servants and employees of every kind shall use the proper receptacles for expectorated matter when they cough and expectorate.

Contracting Tuberculosis in the School Room. Much fear has been expressed by some of the danger of contracting tuberculosis

in the schoolroom. A consumptive teacher may give the disease to his pupils, and a consumptive pupil may give it to his fellow pupils, but the danger from this source is not great and can easily be obviated by proper cleanliness and proper disposal of the sputum. There is no necessity for excluding consumptive teachers from the schoolroom provided they dispose of their sputum according to approved methods. The same is true of children. Besides children rarely have tuberculosis in a contagious form.

Contracting Tuberculosis in Churches and Public Places. Churches and public places may become infected with the contagion of tuberculosis, but contagion in such places rarely becomes intense enough to give the disease to anyone. Most people are in places of this kind for too short a time to get an implantation. Nevertheless all public meeting places should be kept clean and the floors should be kept in such condition that they can easily be cleansed. The people who are most exposed to tuberculosis in the floors instead of sweeping them there would be much less danger of these contracting the disease.

Contracting Tuberculosis in Public Conveyances. There is really very little danger of contracting tuberculosis in public conveyances although some people have a great fear of getting the disease in this way. Here again, as in the hotel, the time during which both the consumptive and the well person occupy the conveyance is too short to implant the disease. The sleeping berths on railroads over which a great many consumptives travel may disease, but even here the danger is not great.

Getting Tuberculosis on the Street. As has already been intimated there is practically no danger of getting tuberculosis on the street. Rain, sunshine and fresh air very quickly devitalize the tuberculous matter which is thrown on the street. Besides one could scarcely take in enough of this matter whilst passing over a spot on which someone has expectorated, to get an implantation. Street cleaners and policemen who are on the street all the

Relationship between Human and Bovine Tuberculosis. There has been a great deal of discussion of late on the relationship between human and animal tuberculosis. There is a wide difference of opinion as to the danger of human beings contracting the disease from animals. That animal and human tuberculosis are one and the same disease no one denies. It is probable, however, that the tubercle bacillus which has been accustomed to grow on

animal tissue will not readily grow on human tissue, and that the bacillus which has been accustomed to grow on human tissue will not readily grow on animal tissue. The preponderating evidence seems to be in favor of the view that human beings practically never get tuberculosis from animals. Until the subject is cleared up, however, one should not drink the milk of tuberculous cows in which the disease is far advanced and particularly in which the udder is involved. Whatever little danger there may be of getting tuberculosis from the meat of tuberculous animals is obviated by cooking. The danger which may exist of taking the disease through milk can also be obviated by pasteurizing the milk.

How the Tubercle Bacillus gets into the System. In this connection it may be worth while considering how the tubercle bacillus gets into the system. It may get in by the skin, by the stomach and by the lungs. It rarely gets in by the skin, probably most frequently by the lungs and sometimes by the stomach. Whatever way it gets in, it first goes into the lymphatic glands or is carried into the circulation to be distributed throughout the body. By reason of its getting into the lymphatic system, it may lie dormant in the body for a long time before it develops into a disease.

Duration of Tuberculosis. Tuberculosis is a long-drawnout, tedious disease under ordinary circumstances. It is a long time before it shows itself after implantation and frequently it develops even to the stage of breaking down without manifesting many symptoms. Sometimes people have it for a lifetime without recognizing it. Some of the first symptoms are a sense of fatigue, indigestion, loss of appetite, loss of weight, slight feverishness and occasionally a little cough. At intervals the cough becomes severe and perhaps there is expectoration, but this is usually ascribed to a cold. Between these attacks the health is pretty good and the individual is deceived. As each little process matures and some of the broken down matter is thrown off there is a reinfection and each subsequent attack is a little more severe than the preceding one. Finally the individual discovers that his health is undermined and that he is in a bad way. The average duration of tuberculosis from the time of implantation to the fatal termination, when it terminates fatally, is about ten years. The severe symptoms often last from six months to two years. The dying period is usually about two months.

Tuberculosis a Curable Disease. Tuberculosis is a curable disease. This has been proved beyond doubt. Up until recently the disease was looked upon as ineurable and many people still have this false impression. This crroneous idea came about be-

cause in the past the disease was not recognized until it reached 29 its terminal stage. At all times many eases got well spontaneously, and now that we fully understand the disease we find that we can cure practically all eases if we get them early enough. tendency to recover is really very much greater than the tendency to a fatal termination, and all that is necessary is to place the individual who has received an implantation under proper conditions, give him rest and feed him properly and he will recover. Under modern method even fairly advanced eases get well and occasionally very advanced cases. It is only after the individual becomes extremely emaciated and the disease has invaded almost every organ of the body that the case becomes absolutely hopeless.

Remedies for Tuberculosis. There is no specific remedy for tuberculosis, but there are a great many remedies which when skilfully used at the proper time help nature win the victory. The essential elements in the treatment of the disease are rest, food, air and proper exercise. Drugs are to be used only to help restore organs of the body to their physiological action when they are not doing their full duty. Drug-taking may really be an impediment to recovery. Food is the most important element of As the disease wastes the body so the treatment must not only restore what has been lost but lay up a supply of nutrition

Food in the Treatment of Tuberculosis. As the digestive organs and all those parts of the body which have to do with nutrition have been weakened by the disease it is important to select food which is easily digested and assimilated and to avoid food which produces indigestion or clogs up the system. The best food for the treatment of tuberculosis is milk and the next best eggs. A good plan is to take three quarts of milk and six raw eggs a day and one meal of solid food. The mistake is often made of trying to take a large amount of milk and eggs and three meals a day. This should not be done because the digestive system gets overburdened and the change of food into tissue is incomplete by reason of the fatigue of the organs. For the solid meal beef steak, roast beef, roast mutton or mutton chops, fresh vegetables and fresh fruit should be taken. This meal should be eaten earefully and at least an hour should be devoted to it. The solid meal may be taken in the middle of the day or in the evening. Pastry and starehy food which has been fried in grease should under no eireumstances be used by a tuberculous subject.

Fresh Air in the Treatment of Tuberculosis. The taking of for I means very little unless the patient remains in the open air or at least gets enough fresh air to properly oxidize the food. Air is as important for nutrition as food and should really be looked

upon as part of the food. So far as possible air should never be rebreathed. Air which has once been breathed is deprived of some of its oxygen and what is still more objectionable is loaded with some of the poisons given off by the body. A tuberculosis subject should sit in the open air all day while under treatment and should sleep in a room with the windows open on two sides unless he can do what is better still, sleep out of doors. Even well people should keep their bedroom windows open because what will cure will also help to keep well. There should be no shades or blinds on the windows and houses are better without shutters. Sun and air should be allowed free access to every sleeping room. There need be no fear of draughts. One can sit or sleep in a draught provided he is properly elad or covered.

Rest and Exercise in the Treatment of Tuberculosis. Rest and properly graded exercise are important factors in the treatment of tuberculosis. So long as a tuberculous patient is below normal weight and is running some temperature he is much safer at rest, even complete rest in bed, than taking exercise. During the fever stage of his disease absolute rest in bed is really necessary. After he gets better and no longer runs a temperature, exercise if taken within proper limits is of value, and under proper direction can be made serviceable to recovery. When a patient gets up to full weight he should have graded exercise and should gradually harden himself to considerable endurance. Deep breathing exercise should never be taken while the disease is active

and after it is considerably advanced. There is danger of tearing

loose adhesions by such exercise and again setting up the disease. Slowness of Recovery from Tuberculosis. With the very best treatment recovery from tuberculosis is a very slow process. Restoration of physical health comes much quicker than complete recovery from the disease. This often leads to mistakes because people who look well and feel well eannot convince themselves that they are not well, and sometimes being thus misled do things which lead to fatal relapses. The time which it takes for recovery depends upon the advancement of the disease, the amount of tissue involved and the amount of tissue destroyed. When a patient comes under treatment very early, he may recover in six months, and when he comes under treatment very late if he recovers at all it may take him from six to ten years. No time can really be fixed for recovery and every ease in this matter must be a law to itself. After a great deal of tissue has been destroyed recovery never again becomes complete in the sense that the person is as well as he was before he took sick. Such persons, no matter how well they get, should always be content with a half loaf. Even those who have not had the disease very far advanced will always

have to live pretty much the same life which led to their recovery 31

Preventability of Tuberculosis. The most consoling feature of the modern teachings about tuberculosis is that the disease is preventable and can be wiped out. What has life and depends upon reproductou can be exterminated. The chief difficulty in the way of exterminating tuberculosis is its universal prevalence. Prevention, however, is easy and when every one comes to know just what to do to prevent the disease, the extermination of it will be easily accomplished.

The Consumptive Protects Himself by Protecting Others. Every consumptive can avoid giving the disease to others. If he knows what to do and is willing to do it he can make himself absolutely non-contagious and can prevent any of his bacilli getting into another person. Nowadays with the crusade against tuberculosis so active it is easy to find out just what to do, and even when one cannot get the things that are necessary for accomplishing the prevention of the disease with his own means, he can usually get them for nothing from some institution which is devoting itself to the crusade against tuberculosis. Sometimes people are ashamed to do what is necessary to prevent the spread of the discase for fear of criticism and because of the prejudico against consumptives. There is this to be said, however, that no consumptivo can get well who does not do all that is necessary for the protection of others. The practices which will prevent the disease from being given to others will also prevent the individual from re-infecting himself, and unless precautions are takon against reinfection recovery cannot take place.

The Government in the Prevention of Tuberculosis. The government is alive to the importance of stamping out tuberculosis and is everywhere co-operating. Boards of Health are ready to disinfect houses without cost to the individual and distribute literature telling people what to do. Whenever a house has been occupied by a consumptive, even though ne has been cleanly and has practiced measures for the prevention of the disease, it is worth while disinfecting it when it is vacated by removal or death. In fact, it would not be bad practice for consumptives to have the rooms which they occupy disinfected from time to time, both for their own protection against re-infection and for the protection of those who are near and dear to them.

Humane Isolation of Advanced Consumptives. So far as possible advanced consumptives should be humanely isolated in hospitals which are properly equipped for taking care of them. It is exceedingly difficult and very expensive to so guard and

manage a consumptive in the home during the last few months of life as to prevent him from infecting those around him and contaminating the room in which he lives. In a hospital this can be done because there are nurses on guard all the time and linens can be changed as often as soiled. Humane isolation of the dying cases and of other cases during the acute process of the disease is really the most valuable means at our command for stamping out the disease. It should be practiced everywhere and by everyone as far as possible.

Groundless Fear of Consumption. The nervous and timid nowadays are so much afraid of getting consumption that they treat the poor consumptive inhumanely. There is no ground for such fear and timidity. All that is necessary to avoid getting consumption is to use common sense, to be cleanly oneself and to insist upon cleanliness in all those around and about one. We can safely be in contact with a consumptive provided he takes the proper precautions, and we ourselves should insist upon every continuous with whom we come in contact defined to the safely with whom we come in contact defined to the safely with whom we come in contact defined to the safely s

tive with whom we come in contact doing those things which are necessary to protect us against contracting the disease.

Should Consumptives Marry? Should consumptives marry? This is a question which is often asked and the enactment of a law prohibiting marriage has even been agitated. Consumption is not hereditary; on the configure immunity may be inherited from a consumptive parent. The coan therefore be no reason for prohibiting marriage for the protection of the offspring. Consumptives who still have the disease in an active form or who have been very scriously damaged by it should not marry for their own good. The burdens and responsibilities which come with married life are projudicial to them and may influence the disease towards a fatal termination. People who have recovered, however, and in whom the disease is entirely dormant can safely marry.

Should the Consumptive Mother Suckle her Child? Another matter which bears somewhat on this question is whether a consumptive mother should suckle her child. As a rule she may do so for some months at least. But if she is in the active stage of the disease she ought not to do so. It is much safer to remove the child from the parent than to have it in contact with her and this should always be done when it is possible to do so. Where the mother has to feed the infant it is safer to suckle it than to feed it artificially. During the time of suckling the mother should take a very large quantity of milk, even more than she takes ordinarily. After the child is strong enough to thrive on cow's milk it should be taken from the breast, but its food should not be prepared by the mother.

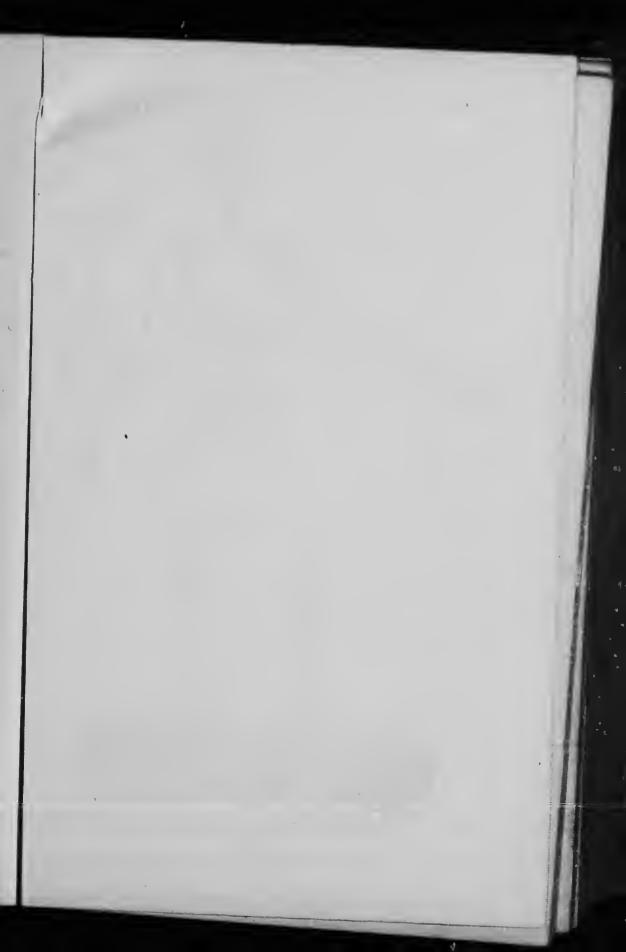
ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY.

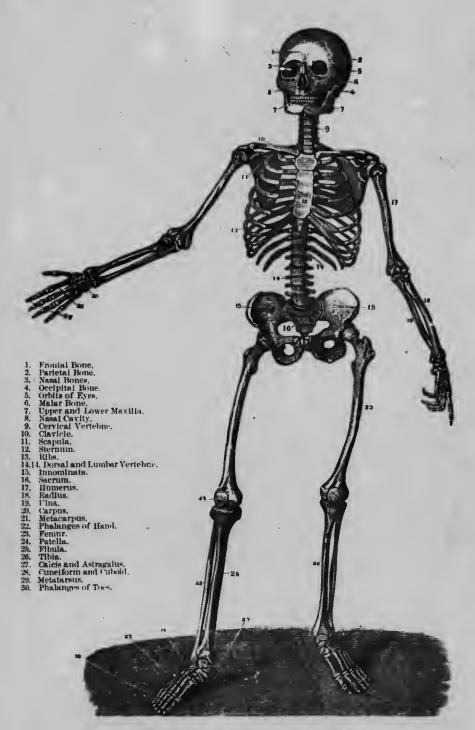
A GENERAL VIEW

THE HUMAN BODY:

TT STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONS.







A FRONT VIEW OF THE ADULT SKELETON

ANATOMY.

OUR purpose in this work is to place before the reader such an account of the living body as will enable any one to understand the essential truths concerning the preservation of health, the causes of diseases, and their management.

Anatomy, with which we begin, is the study of the parts or organs of which the body is made up, and of the way in which they are put together.

We may look upon these parts or organs as consisting of a number of sets, or systems: as the

Bones.

Bones,
Muscles,
Skin and Fat,
Stomach and Bowels,
Liver, Spleen, Kidneys,

Lungs and Air-Tubes, Heart and Blood-Vessels, Reproductive Organs, Brain and Nerves, Eye, Ear, etc.

THE HUMAN SKELETON.

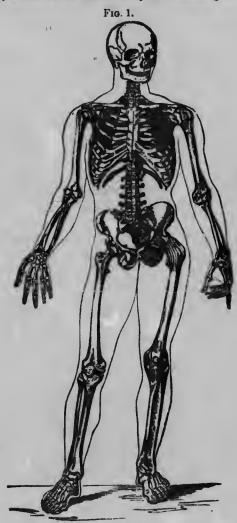
Two hundred and six bones make up the solid framework of a human body. Of these, twenty-eight are in the head and face; one in the throat; twenty-five in the chest; twenty-six constitute the spine or back-bone; sixty-four are in the shoulders, arms, and hands; and sixty-two in the hips, thighs, legs, and feet.

Head, Trunk, and Extremities are the natural divisions of the skeleton.

Eight bones make up the skull (cranium) of a grown-up person, and fourteen are in the face. Besides these, we count among the bones of the head three tiny ones in the interior of the ear, on each side.

The Spinal Column (back-bone) in Man consists of twenty-six parts, attached in a sort of chain to each other. In very early (embryonic) life

they number thirty-two or thirty-three parts; but five of these, at the lower portion of the spine, grow together into one bone, the sacrum; and, later, the very last three or four (below the sacrum) unite, making the os coccygis, which is the rudimentary or undeveloped tail of man.



HUMAN SKELETON.

Each of these links in the spinal chain is called a vertebra; all animals having back-bones being called Vertebrates. They constitute the highest division of the Animal Kingdom; with Man at the summit of the whole series.

Between each two vertebræ is a piece of thick gristle, or cartilage. These elastic pieces act like the springs of a carriage or railway car, preventing jarring in the movements of the body.



SPINAL COLUMN.

One bone, the hyoid or U-shaped bone, in the throat, does not touch any other bone. It forms the base of the root of the tongue, and has several muscles and ligaments attached to it.

The thorax, or chest, is made of the breast-bone (sternum) in front, twelve ribs on each side, and the dorsal part of the spine behind. Naturally, it is largest below the middle ribs. Tight-lacing spoils this shape, by narrowing the chest below, to the great disadvantage of the heart and lungs, which are contained within the thorax, injuring the health and often shortening life. Sometimes sudden death has resulted from this cause.

Below the chest are the hip-bones; which, with the wedge-shaped sacrum between them, include the cavity called the pelvis.

The upper extremity of the body consists of the shoulder, arm, forearm, wrist, and hand.



FRONT VIEW OF THOBAX.

For the shoulder there are two bones in Man: the shoulder-blade (scapula) and collar-bone (clavicle).

Fig. 4 gives a view of the scapula or shoulder-blade; the flat portion of it, which rests against the ribs below, and the ridged part above, which makes the shoulder proper.

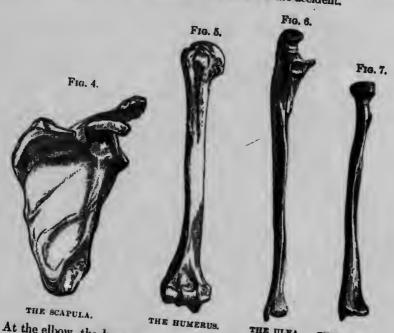
One can feel either of the clavicles or collar-bones easily, in front, in his own person, below the neck, between the shoulder and the upper part of the breast-bone or sternum.

We commonly speak of the "arm" as being all between the shoulder and the wrist. Surgeons and anatomists make the elbow-joint the boundary between the arm and forearm.

In the arm proper there is but one long bone, the humerus (Fig. 5).

The head of this bone fits into a shallow socket of the scapula, in which it is kept by ligaments and surrounding muscles. Much more

easily, however, than the thigh-bone, the humerus may be, by violent 39 falls or blows, with the arm in certain positions, forced out of place, that is, dislocated at the shoulder. Fortunately, it is not so very difficult to replace, if this be attended to soon after the accident.



At the elbow, the humerus connects with the two bones of the forearm—ulna and radius (Figs. 6, 7). The ulna has the most to do with the elbow-joint.

The radius is more widely joined to the small bones of the wrist.

No bone in the body is so often broken as the radius, because of its getting the main stress of a fall on the hand, naturally stretched out to save the body as one trips

Eight small and irregularly rounded bones make up the carpus, or wrist. This is a very hard joint to dislocate, bound together as the carpal bones are with tough, short ligaments. This is needful, on account of its frequent exposure to violence through the hand.

Fig. 8.



Fig. 8 shows also the beginnings of the five metacarpal (next to

carpal) bones which make the framework of the hand. Although covered

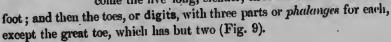
by muscles and held close together under the skin, we can easily trace the form of these by feeling for them: one bone for the thumb and one for each of the fingers.

Every finger (digit) has three parts or joints; the thumb only two. Phalanges these are called by anatomists; 1st, 2d, and 3d phalanx of each finger; 1st and 2d for the thumb.

The lower extremity consists of the thigh, leg, and foot; with joints at the hip, knee, ankle, and toes. The thigh-bone, or femur, is the longest bone in the body.

Two bones, tibia (the thicker one) and fibula (slender), make the skeleton of the leg. At the knee, in front, is the small round and flat patella, or knee-pan; which gives pretection to the joint.

Seven bones constitute the ankle and instep of the foot, called the tarsus. The heel-bone, one of these, is called in anatomy the os calcis. Next to the instep come the five long, slender, metatarsal bones of the





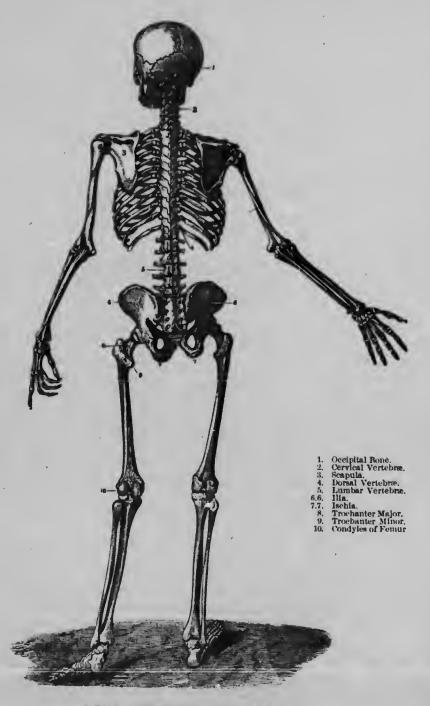
THE BONY FOOT

JOINTS.

Bones are held together by tough, fibrous ligaments. Between their ends, or in the sockets of some joints, are pieces of cartilage. There are two principal sorts of joints—more exactly called articulations—fixed and movable. The sutures of the head are examples of fixed or immovable joinings or articulations of bones.

Movable joints are various, as follows: hinge-joints, as at the elbow and knee; ball-and-socket, as at the thigh or hip-joint; gliding, as at the junction of the lower jaw with the temporal bones of the head.

All the other bones which are connected together have their union secured by ligaments, variously (and yet simply) arranged: as, the pieces (vertebræ) of the spinal column; the collar-bone (clavicle), at one end with the .shoulder-blade (scapula), at the other with the breast-bone (sternum); the ribs with the spine, etc.



A BACK VIEW OF THE ADULT SKELETON.



MUSCLES.

Looking at a piece of butcher's meat as it hangs ready for sale, we may see a fair specimen of red voluntary muscles. Dissecting one of these lengthwise, we would find it made up of delicate fibres; and a microscope would show one of these to be composed of many lesser strands or fibrillæ, each of which again is formed of roundish, cell-like bodies, placed end to end, like beads.



1. Lengthwise cleavage. 2, 3, 4. Crosswise cleavage. 5. A detached disk of muscle-cells. 7, 3.

Separate fibrilise, formed of cells end to end.

Another sort of muscular tissue, pale, almost white, in bands rather than fibres, is found in the substance of the stomach and bowels (muscular coat of the alimentary canal), and in the walls or coats of the blood-vessels, especially the smaller arteries. Over these muscular parts the will has no power; their action is involuntary. All red muscles are voluntary, except the heart, and (partially) the breathing muscles, the lower swallowing muscles of the throat, and the muscles of the face by which our feelings are spontaneously expressed. The heart is almost altogether a muscular organ. Its fibres are spirally arranged, and contract regularly by a power residing in them, the exact cause of whose "rllythmie" timing is not very well understood.

As the number of voluntary muscles is very large (between three and four hundred), we will not, in this work, undertake to describe them. Many are long, and thickest at the middle; others are broad, flat, and thin; a few run through or over distinct pulleys, changing the direction of their action. By the origin of a muscle, we mean its attachment to a bone or other part at the end nearest to the centre of the body. Its insertion is its connection at the farther end; usually to a bone, by a round, white, fibrous cord, called a tendon. Sometimes tendons are flat instead of round. Figs. 11 and 12 show the form and location of a number of the muscles in the body.



MUSCLES, FRONT VIEW.



MUSCLES, BACK VIEW.

THE SKIN.

We have a true skin (cutis), which is laid bare by a blister, and is very sensitive; and over that the protective, delicate, leather-like cuticle, epidermis, or scarf-skin. This has no feeling at all; as can be easily shown by clipping it carefully where it is thick, as near the sides of the finger-nails. The tough parts of corns and warts consist of cuticle.

Of the true skin there are at least two layers; undermost, one composed of a fibro-elastic tissue; and on that another, having a multitude of little elevations on it, giving it a hill and valley character all over. Rows of hillocks, with valley lines between them, are easily seen on the palms of the hands.



HAIRS AND OIL-GLANDS.



SWEAT-GLANDS AND DUCTS.

Each little hillock (papilla) of the skin contains the ending of a tiny branch of a nerve, and a little loop (or more than one) of small blood-vessels. The warmth and nourishment of the skin depend on these vessels; its feeling resides in the nerve-endings.

The epiderm or enticle (scarf-skin) is formed of layers of flattened cells (epithelium); seen under the microscope to have that character.

Under the epiderm and upon the cutis, or true skin, is the colorlayer, composed of cells which contain a dark matter. Blondes, as we call fair-complexioned people, have but few of these color-cells. Brunettes, such as Spanish or Italian beauties, possess more of them. Chinese, Egyptians, American Indians, and Mulattoes show still more;

Negroes, and some natives of Southern Hindostan, enough to make them fairly black. But the sun evidently has a good deal to do with the growth of this color-layer; as any one may be tunned by summer exposure (freekles are tan spots), and, by several years of tanning, in a hot climate, even a Philadelphian, New Englander, or Englishman may be browned as dark as many minintoes are.

Glands of two kinds are seated in the skin: sweat-glands and oil-The latter abound hear the roots of the hairs, furnishing them with a untural grease. The sweat-glands are distributed all over the body. Each of these has a eurious, long, corkserew-like tube running up through the skin, by which the drops of perspiration find their way out. A good deal of moisture, however, transpires, like a vapor, without gathering in drops. Both kinds, by evaporation, cool the skin. to our great advantage in hot weather and when exercising actively.

Beneath the skin is the common connective-tissue; serviceable as a packing material between parts everywhere. In that tissue, near the skin, and also sometimes at quite a distance from it, as around the eyeball, heart, and kidneys, is the fat. Over the abdomen, in very corpulent persons, two inches or more of this may accumulate.

STOMACH AND BOWELS.

Central in the body, and indispensable to its continued life, is the stomach; and, connected with it, the intestinal canal. In Fig. 15 is a view of the whole alimentary canal. The pharynx is the upper part of the swallowing throat; the lower part is the cesophagus, going to

The stomach is a large sac or bag, shaped something like an old shoe; with the larger end towards the left side. At the right end is the outlet (pylorus) from the stomach to the small intestine.

The first twelve inches of the small intestine constitute the duodenum, into which pours the bile from the liver and gall-bladder, and also the pancreatic juice from the sweetbread, or pancreas.

The whole length of the first or small intestine is about twenty feet; of the lower, or large intestine, between ten and fifteen feet; making from thirty to thirty-five feet for the length of the bowels of a full-grown man. Occasionally, a tapeworm has been known to live within the intestines until it has acquired more than half the length of the whole canal! This worm is, however, quite flat and thin, and not

F10. 15.



ALIMENTARY CANAL.

In Fig. 15, the beginning of the large intestine is seen at the lower

F10. 16.



THE STOMACH.

right side of the subject; its termination (the anus) is shown on the left side, below. At the junction of the small and large intestines is the ileo-colic valve. Not far above this is the place where there is usually tenderness on pressure in cases of typhoid fever. Sometimes, also, inflammation of the bowels begins near the same region.

OTHER ABDOMINAL ORGANS.

Ftg. 17.



INTERNAL ORGANS: THE LIVER BEING TURNED UP AND BACKWARDS.

1. Great Blood-vessels of the Heart. 2, 2. Lungs. 2. Heart. 4. Edge of Diaphragm. 5. Liver.

6. Gall-bladder. 7. Bile-duct. 2. Stomach. 9. Omentum, or caul, cut off. 10. Another portion of Omentum. 11, 12. Colon. 13. Small Intestine. 14. Rectnm. 15. Worm-like Appendix.

The Liver lies across the body, chiefly but not entirely on the right

side, behind the lower ribs. In color and general form, a calf's liver is considerably like it. Underneath it lies the Gall-bladder. A tube or duct carries the bile from the Liver to the Gall-bladder, whence it passes out, from time to time, into the duodenum, already mentioned as the first portion of the small intestine.

The Spleen is a round, flattened gland, a good deal smaller



UNDER SURFACE OF THE LIVER.

than the liver, and of a stony bluish-red line. It lies near the stomach, somewhat on the left side. It is often enormously enlarged in persons who suffer with chills and fever; being then called "ague-cake."

The Pancreas is a rather long, flat, and thin gland, lying across the middle of the body, just below the stomach. It has a tube or duct, which empties into the Duodenum, near the entrance of the bile-duct,

which comes from the Liver and Gall-bladder.

The two Kidneys lie, one on each side, far back in the abdomen, between the ribs and the hip-bones (ossa innominata).

The Kidney is dark-red in color, containing, especially near its outer surface, many small blood-vessels (capillaries) full of blood. Its shape is very much that of a "kidney bean;" its length, about four inches; width,



THE KIDNEY, LAID OPEN.



THE KIDNEYS, UBETERS, AND GREAT BLOOD-VESSELS.

two, and thickness an inch or so, in the adult. Out of it proceeds the ureter, a tube through which the wrine flows to the Bladder.

The Bladder rests in front, below the intestines, just behind the bony ridge of the pelvis. From the Bladder the urine escapes through a tube called the urethra.

the

ny 1 a



TEART AND HEART VESSELS.

LV.C. Inferior Vena Cava.

BREATHING ORGANS.

In Man, these are the windpipe, lungs, breathing muscles, and the blood-vessels and nerves connected with these.

Through the nostrils or the mouth air enters the Larynx.

We can feel this, or see it in another, where the "Adam's apple" is in a man's throat. Larynx is the organ of voice; hence it is larger and less simple than if it were only to breathe Below the Larynx is the Trachea, chiefly composed of cartilaginous rings; and this branches into the two Bronchial tubes, one going to each Lnng.

The Lungs are light, spongy organs, pinkish slate-colored, which fill up almost all the space within the chest not occupied by the heart and great blood-vessels. After death, a healthy lung crackles softly when pressed by the hand; and will float on water, on account of the air contained in it.

I.C. Int'r Carotte

R.V. Right Ventricia.

R.P.A. R. br. Pulmonary Artery.



Six hundred millions of air-cells, it is calculated, make up, with the little tubes joining them, the two lungs of a grown person. Each cell is about the one hundredth of an inch in diameter. The right lung consists of three portions, called lobes. left lung has but two lobes.

HEART AND BLOOD-VESSELS.

Our blood is circulated throughout the body by the Heart, Arteries, Capillaries, and Veins. Another set of vessels carry along the white or colorless liquids called lymph and chyle; those vessels being called Lymphatics and Lacteals. Of the latter, more hereafter.

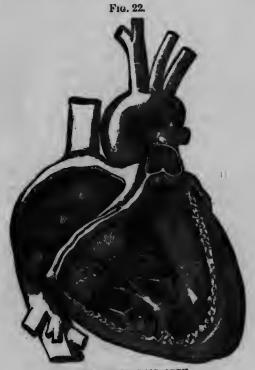
A man's heart is about the size of his fist. It is two hearts in one; that is, one half has its entrances and exits quite separate from those of the other half. Again, each half-heart has two chambers; an anricle and a ventricle. We have, then, the right auricle and ventricle, and the left auricle and ventricle, built against each other, like twin houses. The right half of the heart is almost all in front of the other half.

The heart is placed behind the breast-bone (sternum), with its larger end upwards, and its tip (apex) pointing downwards and to the left. As its larger and stronger parts (ventricles) press out the blood from themselves into the great arteries, the heart-tip beats against the chestwall, under the fifth rib.

Into the right anricle enter two large veins, the largest in the body, one from above and the other from below. These bring all the blood of the body back to the heart. The right anricle opens into the right ventricle. From the right ventricle a large vessel, the pulmonary artery, passes out, and branches into the two lungs.

Four veins from the lnugs (pulmonary veins) enter and carry the blood into the left auricle. This opens into the left ventricle. Out of the left ventriele goes the aorta, the largest artery of the body; whose

branches supply all parts of the system with blood.



THE HEART, LAID OPEN.

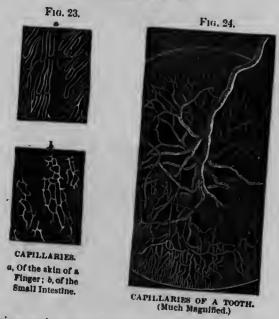
Over the Heart is a covering sae, called the Pericardium.

The Aorta forms an arch above, and goes down behind the heart (Fig. 22). It gives off branches all along, and descends in front of the back-bone (vertebral or spinal column). Right alongside of it lies the great vein (vena cava), which carries the blood from the lower part of the body and pours it into the right auriele.

There are a great many arteries in the body. You can know where one lies by its pulsating or beating, like a little heart. There are still

more veins, many of them right under the skin, where they can be seen, of a bluish color, as on the back of the hand. When an artery is cut, bright-red blood flows, with a jerking, pulsating spart, a great deal of blood escaping in a short time. If a vein is cut, dark, blue-black blood comes out, with a steady flow. From a large vein, as the jugular of the neck, enough may come to cause death in a little while; but from a small vein much less, and it is more easily stopped by pressure than

One simple rule will enable any one to judge where the principal artery of each part of the body lies. The artery is always in the safest possible place which its destination allows.



Capillaries receive their name from their being smaller than a hair. Some of them are not more than the 3000th of an inch in diameter. They are arranged variously in different parts of the body.

Veins receive the capillaries as rivers do rivulets emptying into them. Small veins then join to make larger ones, till at last all unite in emptying into the great ascending and descending veins (venæ cavæ), which pass from below and above into the right auricle. Some veins are deep-seated, companions to the arteries; others are at the surface, and can be readily seen. Nearly all the veins have valves along their course, by which their blood is prevented from flowing backwards. All blood-movement in the veins must therefore be towards the heart. None

of the arteries have valves, except, as before said, just at the origins, in the heart, of the pulmonary artery and the aorta.

One exception there is, in regard to veins always joining to make



LACTEALS AND LYMPHATICS.

larger and larger trunks. There is a large vein in the centre of the body, called the portal vein, receiving blood from the stomach, small intestines, and spleen, which divides up into capillaries. These then



LYMPHATIC VESSELS AND GLANDS.

go through the liver, and are again united into a vein (hepatic vein), which runs out from the liver into the great ascending trunk (vena cava).

Lymphatic vessels are distributed all over the body, except in the brain, spinal marrow, and a few other parts. They are small and delicate (except the two large ducts which receive the rest), and contain a colorless fluid, called lymph. Those of the small intestines, however, convey a milk-like fluid called chyle; and these vessels are named

Most of the lymphatics and all the lacteals empty into the left thoracic duct. This passes up through the abdomen and chest (thorax); to discharge its contents into the junction of two large veins, one from the arm and the other from the neck (subclavian and jugular There is a much shorter similar thoracic duct on the right side.

All along the course of the lymphatic vessels are small flat and round "kernels," the lymphatic glands. They are most numerous in the deeper part of the abdomen, in the arm-pit, the neck, and the groin. When healthy, they are not large and hard enough to be seen or felt; but when diseased, they sometimes become quite large and conspicuous.

ORGANS OF REPRODUCTION.

Our purpose will be here best served by giving a very brief account of some of the organs (chiefly internal) which are essential to the continnance of the species. Those of the female system are the Ovaries

There are two Ovaries, one on each side, suspended in the "broad ligament" of the Uterus.





OVARIES AND UTERUS.

Each Ovary is an oval body, about an inch and a half long, threequarters of an inch wide, and a third of an inch in thickness. In the free margin of the broad ligament there is on each side a tube, four inches long, opening at its inner end into the body of the Uterus. The

outer end of each duct widens out, and is fringed (see Fig. 27). Ordinarily, this end opens into the cavity of the abdomen; but at certain periods it presses upon the ovary, so as to receive from its surface a discharged ovum.

The Uterus is a pear-shaped body, broadest above, suspended by its ligaments in the pelvis; that is, the lowest portion of the trunk It is about three inches long, two inches wide at its upper part, and an



MAMMARY GLANDS.

inch thick. When in its right position, its upper end is directed upwards and somewhat forwards; its lower end, downwards and slightly backwards. Behind it is the bowel (rectum), and before it the bladder. Anatomists speak of the fundus or body, the cervix or neck, and the os or mouth of the Uterus.

The Mammary gland, or breast, is a part of the reproductive system, being designed for the nourishment of offspring.

It is composed of a great number of cells, in which milk is secreted from the blood. These open into tiuy tubes, which unite to form larger ducts, making of these at last fifteen to twenty actiferous ducts. All these converge to the nipple, where the milk is supplied to the infant after its birth. The

mammary glands commonly grow much larger at the approach of maternity.

BRAIN AND NERVOUS SYSTEM.

All vertebrate or back-boned animals, among which man is the highest in the scale, have a Brain, a Spinal Cord, Ganglia (nervecentres), and Nerves. Man's brain is much larger in proportion to his body than that of the most manlike Apes, such as the Gorilla, Orang-Outang, and Chimpanzee.

Nearly the whole cavity of the skull in man is filled with the Brain. It is made up of a greater and a lesser brain (cerebrum and cerebellum). Each of these is in two halves or hemispheres; but the division is deepest between the right and the left half of the upper, front, greater brain, cerebrum,

Three membranes wrap and protect the brain; an outer tough, fibrous one (dura mater) next the skull; then a thin layer (arachnoid),

always moist, like the pleura which wraps the lungs; innermost, very close to the brain, the delicate pia mater, almost all made up of blood-



UNDER SURFACE OF THE BRAIN.

Convolutions, that is, in and out winding irregular channels, cover the whole surface of each hemisphere of the greater brain in Man. So they do also in Apes, Lions, and many other animals; but some ani-





ONE HEMISPHERE OF THE CEREBRUM.

mals are smooth-brained. Man has the greatest number of convolutions of all. They might, from their appearance, be imagined to be made

by the brain growing almost too large for the skull, and so becoming verinkled, as clothes do when packed in a trunk without being folded.

Anatomists speak of three lobes or portions of the cerebrum, one behind another; but these, as well as the inner structure of the brain, need to be described only in a technical or professional study of the subject. We may say here merely that, while the outside part of each hemisphere, where the convolutions are, is composed mostly of gray nerve-cells, much the greater part of the cerebrum is of white nerve-substance; and this, when examined with the microscope, is seen to be made up of myriads of tiny tubes; the same as those of which the nerves are constituted, all over the body. About a dozen pairs of nerves are connected with the base or lower part of the cerebrum. Among them are the optic nerves, for the eyes; olfactory nerves, for the nostrils; auditory, for the inner ears; one pair for the muscles of the face; another pair for the tongue, etc. Several of these are shown at their beginnings in Fig. 33.



AN INSIDE VIEW OF THE BRAIN.

The cerebellum, or lesser brain, is behind, and, in Man, though not in all animals, below the cerebrum. It is, in Man, considerably smaller than the latter. Instead of convolutions, it is marked outside with lines, and within, when cut open, it has a branched appearance, faucifully called by some old anatomists the tree of life. It has no more, really, to do with life than the rest of the brain.

Out from the cerebrum, and partly also from the cerebellum, there passes down the beginning (medulla oblongata) of the spinal cord (medulla spinalis).

The Spinal Cord, or Spinal Mar-

row, extends all the way down the back, encased within a channel immediately behind the bodies of those pieces of the back-bone called vertebræ. Nerves which go in and out through the small holes on each side of the back-bone, are shown in Fig. 34. These spinal nerves carry messages, so to speak, between the brain and the hands, feet, and other parts. Were any of them cut across, some parts of the body would be deprived of feeling and of the power of motion.

In Fig. 33 we have a view of the two optic nerves; which are peculiar in joining and crossing each other between the brain and the eyes.

Almost all the nerves are white and cord-like; they branch, so as to become smaller and smaller, and their final ends are connected with muscles, the eye, ear, skin, or other parts.





HALF OF THE CEREBELLUM AND PARTS NEAR IT

Ganglia are little knots of gray nerve-cells, scattered about in different parts of the body, but always having nerves connected with them. They are nerve-centres. Oysters, clams, and cuttle-fishes have no brain nor



THE OPTIC NERVES.

spinal marrow; only ganglia and nerves. Insects and worms also are without brains, or any real spinal cord; but their ganglia are laid in a double line, something like the spinal marrow in form.

The most regular arrangement of ganglia in Man is in a double row, on the two sides of the back-hone (spinal column), outside of it. These ganglia have nerves connecting with the spinal nerves, and they send branches also to the great organs within the body (stomach, liver, spleen, heart, lungs, kidneys, ovaries, uterus) and to the arteries, which have



BRAIN AND SPINAL CORD TOGETHER.

no other nerves. Moreover, there is a small ganglion on each of the hindmost of the two roots which every spinal nerve has.

Behind the stomach lie the largest ganglia in the body, called, from their half-moon shape, the two semilunar ganglia. Near them is a great mesh (plexus) of nerves, called the solar plexus. Because of their close connection with the spinal marrow, and also with the heart,

lungs, stomach, and other central organs, a severe shock to these ganglia is felt all over the body. That is the reason why a heavy blow upon the pit of the stomach may even kill at once.

Auatomists have long been accustomed to call these ganglia and their nerves the Great Sympathetic System. They do connect a great many



NERVES OF THE BODY.

parts together; yet as feeling belongs not to them, but to the brain, spinal cord, and their nerves, and these gauglia are most related to the central organs of digestion, circulation of the blood, etc., the best came for them and their attachments is, the Ganglionic System of Organic Life. (See Physiology.)

PHYSIOLOGY.

Physiology shows the actions and uses of these parts of the body (called organs, or *instruments*, their fabrics being called the tissues) whose shapes, sizes, and places in the system are set forth in Anatomy.



HAND OF MAN AND GORILLA.

Two sets of functions or operations are performed by different organs or instruments in the body. One set, being exceedingly like functions performed also by plants, are called vegetative functions; the others, peculiar to animals (including Man), are termed animal functions.

Of the first set there are:

Digestion, Respiration,
Circulation, Exerction,
Growth, Reproduction.

Of the second set:

Sensation, Intellection,
Spontaneous Motion, Emotion.

HOW WE TAKE FOOD.

Man's teeth are in part like those of carnivorous animals (dog, cat, lion), being sharp all around in front; but our back jaw-teeth (molars) are more like those of the ox and horse, fitted for chewing our food.

What is chewing for? It is to break up and soften our food, and mix it with the saliva of the mouth. This makes it more easy to swallow, and begins its digestion. Much of our vegetable food (such as bread, potatoes, peas, beans, etc.) consists chiefly of starch. Now the saliva acts upon moist, warm starch, changing it somewhat. That particular change, the beginning of digestion, being less active while the food is in the stomach, goes on faster and is ended in the small intestine.



E. Canal for Spinal Marrow.

3. Hard Palate. 2. Epigloitis. 11. Traches. 30-34. Muscles of Pharynx. 35-37. Œsophagus.

Sivallowing is done in the gullet (pharynx above, esophagus lower down) by its muscles. The first part of the act of swallowing we can manage by an act of the will; after the morsel is down apiece, it will go farther, in spite of us. Even at the beginning it sometimes needs "coaxing," so to speak. A small pill is harder to swallow than a large one; because it does not stimulate (wake up) the swallowing muscles of the throat so well. Put the pill into a mouthful of jelly, or place it far back on the root of the tongue, and then take a drink of water,—and down it will go.

DIGESTION.

In the stomach is secreted (chiefly just after food has been taken) the gastric juice. This is an acid fluid, containing a substance called pepsin (from a Greek word meaning digestion; dyspepsia is bad digestion). It dissolves and changes, that is digests, the lean part of meat, the pasty part (gluten) of bread, and the cheesy part (casein) of milk. The fatty portion of our food scarcely begins to be digested till, after being made into chyme, it all passes out through the pylorus, from the stomach into the small intestine. Into the beginning of this, the duodenum, pour the bile from the liver, and the pancreatic juice from the pancreas. By these fluids, in the small intestine, the process of digestion is completed.

ABSORPTION.

Before food which is digested in the stomach goes from it (through the pylorus) into the duodenum, it is converted into chyme. Part of it, entirely dissolved, is soaked up, absorbed, by the small blood-vessels (capillaries) of the stomach, and is carried by these and larger blood-vessels (veins) into the general circulation. A good deal of the blood from the stomach (and also from the small intestine) goes through the portal vein, into the liver. In this blood there is conveyed to the liver a large amount of nourishing material, which afterwards passes into the general circulation.

Chyme, acted upon in the small intestine, is changed to chyle. This is a milky fluid, which is taken up, very much as the small rootlets of plants take water from the ground, by vessels called lacteals.

All the lacteals empty into the thoracic duct (see Anatomy), a tube which ends at the junction of two large veins at the upper left side of the chest, just below the throat. Thus the chyle gets into the blood. But, all along their track, the lacteals go through small round, flat bodies (made of cells), called the mesenteric glands. These act upon the chyle, changing it, so that it becomes more like blood. This kind of change is called assimilation. Blood going through the liver and spleen also seems to be assimilated, that is, made like or similar to the tissues of the body; and the glands scattered along the other absorbent vessels, called the lymphatics (see Anatomy, under Circulation), assimilate the lymph, which they take up everywhere in the body, to the blood-lymph, which nourishes all the tissues.

Nourishes; what does that mean? Does not eating directly nourish? Not exactly. It prepares food to become nourishment; and so does digestion. Absorption then brings it, thus prepared, into the blood; and the blood directly nourishes all parts of the body. It is meant by



THE LACTEALS AND LYMPHATICS.

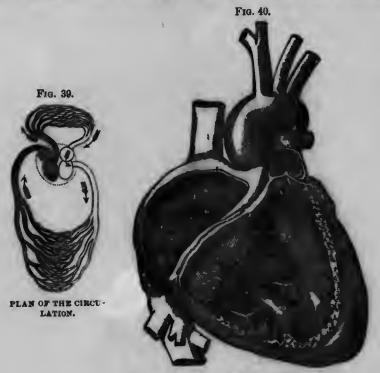
this that, as every part is alive, growth and waste must be provided for by new material.

That any part of the body, as bone, muscle, or brain, shall grow and keep healthy and strong, needs several conditions. 1. It must have a sufficient supply of blood. 2. The blood must be of a good quality.

3. There must be also a supply of nerve-force, through connection with a healthy nervous system. 4. The part or organ must have its natural and proper share of use or exercise. 5. Between the periods of exercise there must be time enough for sufficient rest for the repair of waste.

CIRCULATION OF THE BLOOD.

Beginning at the right ventricle of the heart (see Anatomy), the blood passes thence to the lungs. Thence, after being aired, it returns



A HUMAN HEART, LAID OPEN.

to the left auricle. This pours it into the left ventricle. Out of that cavity it goes into the great aorta, the main artery of the body.

Between each auricle and its attached ventricle there are bands and cords, making a sort of doors or valves, shutting behind the current of blood when it passes from the auricle to the ventricle, and preventing its return. Some of these are shown in Figs. 40 and 41.

At the beginnings of the aorta and pulmonary artery (the latter going to the lungs) there are three-pocketed valves, called semilunar, from the half-moon shape of the pockets.

When the heart acts during life, two of these great valves are always open, and two of them shut. As the ventricles, right and left, squeeze out their contents into the great arteries (pulmonary and aorta), they





REARTS CUT OPEN, SHOWING THE VALVES OPEN AND SHUT.

close the membranous valves behind them, and at the same time the semilunar valves of the arteries are open. Then the ventricles relax; the semilunar arterial valves are shut by the back-pushing blood current, and the membranous auriculo-ventricular valves are open, allowing the blood to pass from the auricles into the ventrieles.

The heart in man, all mammals and birds, might be described as two

Fig. 42.



VALVES OF THE AORTA, SPREAD OPEN (NAGNIFIED).

hearts laid together, like irregular "twin houses." The right heart (composed of auricle and ventricle) takes venous blood and sends it to the lungs. The left heart (auricle and ventricle) receives aired blood from the lungs, and sends it over the body, through the sorts and its branches. From those branches it is divided up among the capillaries (smallest blood-vessels), and they give it to the veins.

Through the veins, joining together like branches of a running stream, the blood is at last (by the vense caves) returned to the heart.

Muscle (red, striped) makes up the substance of the heart. It never stops acting, whether we are sleeping or waking; taking no rest, except in the short pauses, one of which occurs after each beat, before the next begins.

When the ventricles contract, the tip (apex) of the heart knocks gently against the inside of the chest, just below the fifth rib. As we feel this, we call it the impulse of the heart. If you put your car on any one's chest, right above where the heart is felt to beat, or a little nearer to the middle of the breast-bone, two sounds will be heard, lub-dnp, lub-dnp; the first the londest and strongest. These are of much importance to physicians, in judging about disorders of the heart.

A grown man's heart beats, on the average, when quiet and in health, seventy times a minute; a woman's, seventy-five times. There is no harm, however, in a pulse (as we call it when counted at the wrist) beating only sixty times a minute. Exercise, great heat, emotion, or stimulating drink, may hurry it up to more than a hundred per minute in any one. Standing, it is most rapid; a little slower, sitting; slowest, lying down.

Infants have pulses of a hundred or more beats per minute while perfectly well. Old people have the pulse slower than those of middle age, until they come to be very old, when it may be weak and rapid.

Fever is always attended by a rapid pulse. Opium poisoning, apoplexy, and compression of the brain from a broken skull, are marked commonly by a slow pulse. When one becomes very feeble, especially from long illness, the pulse is small and rapid. Dying persons most generally have a rapid, thready, small, weak pulse.

The arteries have each three coats: the outer one tough and fibrous, the innermost thin and very smooth; the middle one both muscular (white, unatriped muscle) and elastic. When blood is pushed into the arteries by the heart, they contract upon it; and so help to carry it farther, into the capillaries, and, through them, into the veins.* As the most assistance to the movement of the blood is wanted at the greatest distance from the heart, so the most muscular arteries are the amallest branches. By these, the amount of blood given to different parts is regulated according to their needs.

^{*} Many physiologists do not acknowledge that the arteries assist the heart in forcing the blood onwards; thinking that they regulate its flow merely by resisting il, more or less. But, after much study of the subject, the author is satisfied that the above account is correct.

Veins are easily seen on the back of any one's hand. They do not heat or pulsate like the arteries. In them the blood flows towards the heart; and there are valves along their course (which the arteries do not have) keeping the blood from going back again. Exercise of the muscles, by pressing on the veins, helps forward the circulation of the blood in them. Whales, reptiles, and fishes have no valves in their veins. As arteries have no valves, muscular pressure acts on them both seays, forwards and backwards; although in them the current onward is stronger. Several arteries go through long channels, which protect them from pressure. This is the case with the vertebral artery at the back of the neck on each side; it runs through holes in the side projections (processes) of the pieces of the back-bone (vertebræ) of the

The whole bulk of the veins is three times that of the arteries. The blood moves, therefore, much more slowly through the veins. Altogether, it takes about half a minute for a drop of blood to go the whole round; say from the beginning of the aorta to the entrance of the vena cava into the right auricle.

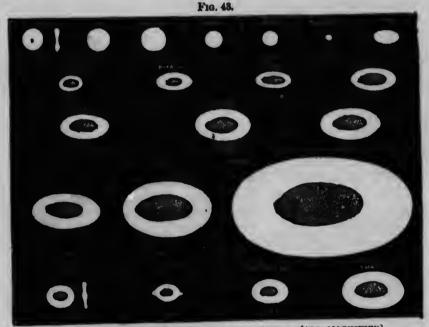
Capillaries are the very minute vessels between the ends of the arteries and the beginnings of the veins. They are too small to be seen without a microscope. But in them the blood goes to and through all parts of the body (see Anatomy), and irrigates, so to speak, each part, by the oozing of lymph (the liquid part of the blood) through the capillary coats or walls. But one coat, however, and that a very thin one, belongs to the capillaries. The Mood is pushed into these small vessels by the heart, aided by the arteries; and assisted somewhat by capillary attraction.

This kind of attraction may be studied outside of the body also. Put a lump of sugar into a sancer which contains only a teaspoonful of water. Presently you will observe that the water has climbed up to the top of the lump, and is melting (dissolving) it down. This happens because the sugar is porous; and each pore is a kind of small tube, in which the water is drawn upwards. So, too, in the little, delicate fibres of the roots of a plant or tree, capillary action takes place, forcing upwards the liquid from the ground.

THE BLOOD.

Many Caterpillars and Worms have blood which is a reddish, greenish, or hrownish liquid. Man's blood, and that of all the higher animals, is a colorless liquid, in which float multitudes of minute bodies, red corpuscles, which give it a red color. Eight millions of these corpuscles would not more than cover the head of a pin!

With a microscope these are seen, shaped, in Man, something like railway car-wheels. Less easily observed, and much fewer (only one to several hundred of the red) are the somewhat larger white or



SIZE OF BLOOD-CORPUSCLES IN DIFFERENT ANIMALS (ALL MAGNIFIED).

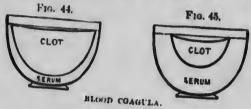
coloriess corpuscies. The white are rather more, and the red rather less, than one three-thousandth of an inch in diameter, in Man.

Wasting diseases lessen the number of the red blood-corpuscles, and reduce also the amount of iron in them, which is important for their and our health. Hence physicians often prescribe iron to be taken as a tonic medicine; it might really, in such cases, be called a food.

Blood has a saltish taste, and contains "salts," as chemists call substances more or less like common salt in their nature. When the blood dies, it clots or coagulates. That is, it separates into a watery liquid, called serum, and the clot, or coagulatm.

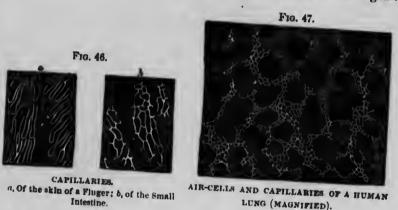
About ten minutes after leaving the body the blood begins to clot; but, in a large quantity, it may be a good while, even hours, before the serum and coagulum are entirely separated.

Even within the body, a portion of blood which is parted from the current (as in that sort of swelling on an artery which is called an an-

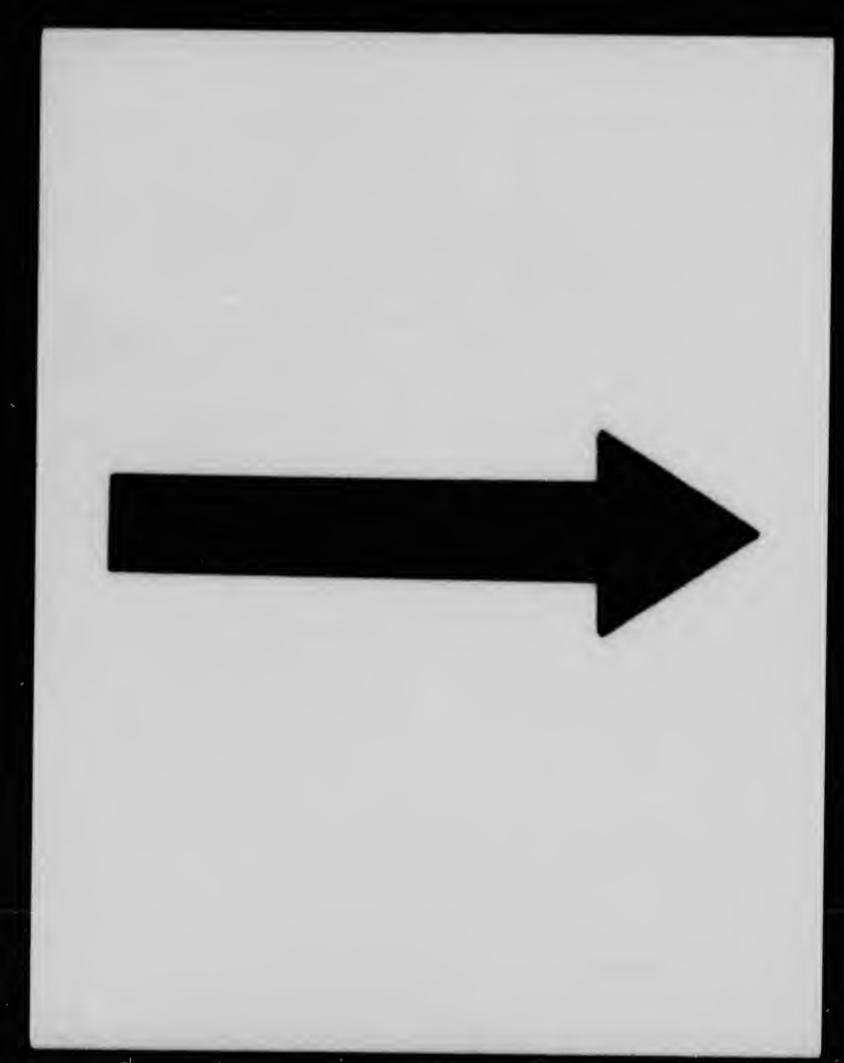


curism) may "die," so as to coagulate. Now and then, when life is very low from exhausting disease, clots may form in the heart itself, and hasten death.

Uses of the blood are two: to nourish all parts of the body, and to stimulate, that is, wake up and spur on, the actions of the organs.

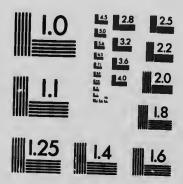


Nonrishment is given (as already explained) by the liquid part of the blood (lymph) oozing through the capillaries everywhere into the tissues. Stimulation of all the organs is ascribed to the gas (oxygen gas) in the blood, which needs to be renewed by breathing (respiration).



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BREATHING.

Our lungs consist of about six hundred millions of air-cells, all surrounded by very fine capillary vessels, carrying blood. Thus the air, coming through the bronchial tubes to the lung-cells, acts on the blood through the thin walls of the cells and the delicate coats of the capillary vessels.

How is the air made to go into and out of the chest?

By the action of the intercostal muscles (see Anatomy), we lift our ribs, somewhat as we open an umbrella. Also, the diaphragm,



HUMAN WIND-PIPE, LUNGS, AND HEART.

the dome-shaped muscle arching across the middle of the body under the lungs and heart, contracts and goes down, becoming nearly flat. Thus, very much as with the two sides of a pair of bellows, we expand the chest, and draw the air in through the nostrils or mouth, or both. When these are closed, we cannot breathe at all.

Women lift their ribs most in breathing; children depress the diaphragm more, as shown by the bulging of the stomach (abdomen). Men breathe about equally in both ways. When one breaks a rib, a surgeon will bind the chest pretty tight with a broad bandage, so as to keep the ribs nearly at rest.

When the lungs are diseased, or the breathing muscles are weak, so much cannot be taken in as when we are

well. It is a good sign of health to be able to draw a very long, deep breath. Life insurance examiners sometimes use this as a test of what is called vital capacity.

About sixteen times in a minute is the average breathing rate of a grown person, when quiet and in health. When ill, as with inflammation of the lungs, or even merely with fever, it may be hurried to forty or more times a minute. Children breathe more rapidly, taking much shorter breaths.

What we breathe for has already been partly explained. It is to get oxygen into the blood, and carbonic acid gas out of it.



PLAN OF AIR-TUBES AND AIR-CELIA.

We also exhale watery vapor constantly; as may be seen in the little mist before one's nostrils out of doors in cold weather. Also, the frosting of window-panes shows the freezing of moisture, part at least of which is from the breaths of people in-doors. Moreover, the odor of the breath of most persons gives proof of the giving off of waste matter (dead and dying particles) from the blood by the lungs.

Carbon, to an amount equal to about half a pound of charcoal in twenty-four hours, is exhaled by every grown person, in the carbonic acid of the breath. Of watery vapor, each of us breathes out, in the same time, what would make, if condensed, nearly a pint of water.

Carbonic acid gas, when unmixed with air, cannot be breathed at all; it "chokes" at once. When mingled with a large quantity of air, we can breathe it easily enough; but if there is one-tenth or less of it in the air, it puts one to sleep; and this, if prolonged, is the sleep of death. Persons lying or sitting near a charcoal fire whose fumes are not carried off by a good chimney, are thus overcome in a short time. Common "coal gas," from a fire of anthracite or bituminous coal, is even more poisonous. No one should ever remain in a room where, from bad draught, a stove or other fire gives off gas enough to be known by the smell. Burning gas, used for lighting, is likewise very poisonous when breathed. Not a few persons have lost their lives, through ignorance, by blowing out the flame of a gas-burner, without turning it off, and then going to sleep where the gas is escaping.

The Grotto del Cane, in Southern Italy, is a cavern from the ground of which there is a natural supply of carbonic acid gas. That gas is

heavier than air, and lingers awhile near the earth. When a man goes into the cave with a dog, the animal, being nearest the ground, is soon overcome, and falls as if dead. If taken out at ouce it will revive again.

Nitrogen gas, which makes four-fifths of the air, appears to have no important part therein, except to dilute the oxygen.

ANIMAL HEAT.

On our commonly used Fahrenheit thermometers, "blood heat" is put at ninety-eight degrees (98°). But it should be marked higher. In the armpit of a healthy man or woman, a thermometer with its bulb remaining for five minutes will mark 98.5°. In the heart itself, it is 100°.

Our bodily heat does not increase much with hot weather, or in tropical climates, because the perspiration modifies it. Evaporation, of water or any other liquid, cools the surface where it happens. Thus an engineer can attend to his fires where the thermometer marks 110° or higher, so long as he sweats freely; not otherwise. Flannel is the best thing for clothing under such eircumstances; because it absorbs perspiration well, and is also a slow conductor of heat—that is, heat does not go through it rapidly, as it does, most of all, through metals. All clothing is useful to us chiefly by its slow conduction of heat, either from or to the body. (More will be said of this under Hygiene.)

Chabert, who was called the Tire-king, by special training and preparation of his clothing, was able to enter safely a large oven or furnace heated to 600° Fahr., nearly three times as hot as boiling water.* Hot-air baths are often taken at 150°; some use them as higi as 250°. Yet if the blood is really heated up to 110°, life is endangered. Many reptiles are killed by a temperature of 100° Fahr.

What causes the warmth of the body? This has been briefly explained already, when we referred to carbon being consumed, burned (along with hydrogen, etc.), in our bodies by oxygen. It is not in any one part of the system that this occurs, as in the house it does in a stove, grate, or furnace. It is going on in the blood everywhere, as it flows; but the heat is of course greatest near the centre of the body, in the heart and lungs, where there is the most blood; and is least in the parts farthest away from the centre, as the feet.

^{*}Water boils at 212° Fahr., and freezes at 32°.

Children have rather more natural warmth than adult persons; but when exposed to severe cold, they suffer soonest and most. When only the feet are frozen, they may mortify, and the sufferer may survive. Arctic explorers have sometimes thus lost their toes. If any one is in danger of being frozen to death, from continued exposure to extreme cold, great drowsiness comes on, which ought not to be yielded to; sleep

Fever is marked by increased heat of the body; the hotter the more serious the case. In scarlet fever, for example, it 1 becomes, to 104°, 105°, or 106°, or higher. run up

EXCRETION: DISCHARGES.

"We all do fade as a leaf." All creatures that live on earth die, particle by particle—life and death are inseparable everywhere. As we have compared the heat-making process in our bodies to the slow burning of a fire, so our waste material may be compared to the gas, smoke, and ashes of the furnace. All such things must be removed, or the fire is smothered and extinguished.

Breathing serves both to supply the draught to our inward combustion and to carry off a portion of waste, such as carbonic acid, watery vapor, and minute dead particles of organic matter, from the blood.

Other organs help in this indispensable removal; most directly, the kidneys and bowels (large intestine); also, secondarily and partially, the liver and skin. Should any of these stop their work of purifying the blood, it must become poisoned by its own decay. If the stoppage of breathing did not kill at once by arresting the supply of oxygen, it would soon do so by accumulation of carbonic acid in the blood. When the skin cesses to transpire for a day, or the kidneys fail to secrete for a week, or the bowels for two or three weeks, death will usually follow.

Secretion is the process by which any finid or solid material is sepaled from the blood. Excretion is the name given to it when such matter is entirely thrown off as waste. Milk is an example of a secretion for a purpose of use (to nourish offspring), not for waste. Tears also are useful, in moistening the eyes; and their abundant overflow at times gives relief to the brain under the excitement of strong feeling.

Altogether excretory, in man, is the action of the large intestine and that of the kidneys. Perspiration, upon the skin, has its use in maintaining the softness, and moderating the temperature, of the surface of the body. Bile, secreted by the liver, is partly excretory, but also serves a purpose in digestion.

THE LIVER.

This is the langer of the glands. It secretes bile; but that is not all that it does. It receives blood by an artery, coming from the aorta; but it also receives venous blood, through the portal vein (see, on a

previous page, under Physiology of the Circulation).

Now this portal vein receives a good deal of blood from the stomach and small intestine. When these have received and digested food, the chyme and chyle there formed are absorbed (taken up) both by capillary blood-vessels and by lacteal absorbents. And while the lacteal vessels take their chyle, through the mesenteric glands, to the thoracic duct, which empties into the great veins at the left upper corner of the chest, the capillary vessels go to the portal vein, and thus supply food-enriched blood to the liver. The liver then acts upon it; assimilates it to the stuff of the body which it is to build up and repair; that is, to nourish. Going into the liver as fluid food, the blood leaves it more like fluid tinsue. The spleen, as already said, probably does a work somewhat like this; but exactly how these organs act, it is very hard to make certain.

The greenish-yellow bile, when formed, goes generally from the liver into the gall-bladder under it. Then, an hour or two after a meal, it is forced from the gall-bladder into the duodenum, into which also is poured the secretion of the pancreas. Both of these liquids aid in finishing digestion. The bile, also, stimulates the muscular (peristaltic) action of the intestinal canal; in common words, keeps the bowels open. Costiveness is very apt to be accompanied by clay-colored discharges, having little or no bile in them. Very bilions ones are yellow, or yellowish-green. Their natural healthy color is a dark yellowish-brown. Black passages are not common, except when iron is taken as a medicine.

Right action of the liver is very important to a healthy condition of the body. Its disorders are most common in hot climates, and (in any climate) among those who drink alcoholic liquors. Janudice is a yellowness of the skin from the coloring matter being thrown out on the surface of the body, instead of taking its usual course through the intestines. The "whites" of the eyes are then commonly tinged yellow also, and sometimes the tongue.

Most of the bile is re-absorbed, with digested food, from the small intestine into the blood; but not all of it. And it is necessary to health—it would seem essential even to life—for it to go from the liver or gall-bladder into the intestines. Experimenters have found that if, by a tube, they turn off the bile from the body of an animal altogether,

it will die.

THE KIDNEYS.

These secrete the urine, from the blood; from arterial blood, in Man. In some other animals (reptiles and fishes) portal venous blood goes to the kidneys as well as to the liver, and there mingles with arterial blood.

Only the rind or outer coating (cortex) of the kidney secretes urine.

There is in this part a remarkable arrangement of secreting cells, tufts or knots of capillary blood-vessels, and little tubes (all microscopically small) beginning in a sort of caps over these tufts or knots.

These tubes run into larger ones, which all join (see Fig. 50)

Fra. 50.



SECTION OF A KIDNEY.

STRUCTURE OF KIDNEY, MUCH PAGAIFIED.

to go to the ureter, the duct through which the urine runs to the blooder. There it waits until removed from the body by the urethra (see Anatomy).

The nrine is a true excretion; mere waste. Two or three pints of it are thrown ont daily by a grown person in health; the most in cold weather. The kidneys and skin take turns, as it were, in their work. Both act all the time; but the more we perspire, the less is passed from the kidneys; and vice versa. Check of perspiration, from cold, may find relief in increased urination. If not, then comes trouble; we "catch cold," as we say; really, the cold catches us. When both skin and kidneys have their secretion almost entirely stopped, or considerably

lessened, dropsy may follow, from the water (commonly going out as perspiration and nrine) escaping from the blood-vessels, under the skin, or into the abdomen, chest, or elsewhere in the body.

Slight changes in the quantity, color, or clearness of the nrine are not important. When a physician suspects that something is wrong, he examines the nrine chemically and with the microscope. Sometimes there is a good deal of sugar in it, making the disease diabetes. More often, especially in somewhat broken-down people, there is albumen (very much like white of egg) in it. One sign of Bright's disease is this, albuminuria.

Some things taken as food or medicine pass out but little changed with this secretion. Thus may be observed the odor of asparagus, and the color of rhubarb, etc. In jaundice, especially if there is less color of bile than natural in the passages from the bowels, the urine is often of a dark bronze-yellow or porter color.

When no secretion from the kidneys occurs at all for days together (suppression of nrine) ursemia, or blood-poisoning from materials of nrine not removed, occurs; with a tendency to stupor and death. Gravel and stone in the bladder result from a change in the nrine, owing to a fault of the kidneys, and generally of the blood still more; the water secreted not dissolving all the mineral matter sufficiently.

INTESTINAL EXCRETION.

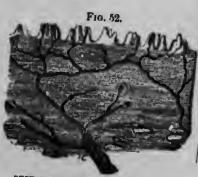
In Man, as already said, the large intestine takes no part in digesting food (as it does in grass-eating animals, such as the ox), but only carries out refuse and waste; excreting, as physicians say, the feces, or discharges from the bowels. Not only what is left over, either because indigestible or because too much has been eaten, goes thus out from the body. Along the large intestine there are small glands, made of minute cells, which have the duty of taking from the blood the most offensive and putrescible of all waste matters. These and the refuse of food, together, make up the excretion. Its necessity to health is well known to all. We shall refer to it again in connection with Hygiene.

THE SKIN.

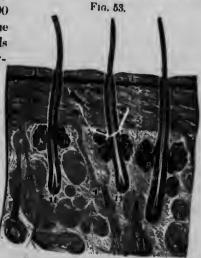
Two important uses, besides help in excretion and purification of the blood, belong to the skin: protection of the parts beneath it from injury, and feeling or sensation.

Two kinds of secreting glands are found in it; sweat-glands and

oil (sebaceous) glands. The first of these are very numerons—2700 to a square inch on the palm of the hand. The oil or sebaceous glands are most numerons apon parts covered with hair.



SECTION OF THE SKIN (MAGNIFLED).



HAIRS AND SEBACEOUS GLANDS (MAGNIFIED).

The sweat-glands send up spiral tubes, which open slantwise on the surface of the skin, where, though they are too small to be seen without a microscope, we know of their existence when the perspiration collects in drops. The oil-glands are planted, so to speak, in the tissue under the skin near the hairs; as shown in Fig. 53. By slow transpiration and seen or felt perspiration together, we give off between one and two pints of water from the skin daily; most in summer.

OUR MOVING POWERS.

Muscles move the bones like any other kinds of levers. There are three sorts of levers. First, that in which the fulcrum, or place of rest, is between the power that moves and the weight to be moved.

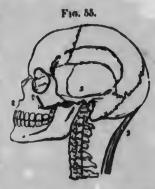
In the second, the weight is between the fulcrum and the power the third, the power is between the fulcrum and the weight.

Fig. 54.

1
W F P
2 P
W
3 P F
W
THE THRFF
KINDS OF LEVERS.

Working a pump-handle is an example of the first kind of lever. So is throwing one's head back or forward; the fulcrum then being at the junction of the head with the upper end of the spinal column.

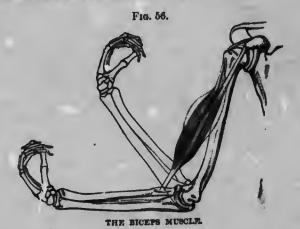
Of the accord kind of lever, wheeling a wheelbarrow gives an example. In the body, we have it in raising one's self on the toes. Then the fulcrum is at the toes, the weight is the whole body, and the power is that



1. Place of the Pulcrum. 2. End of the Weight. 3. The Muscle, which is the Power, when the Head is moved backwards on the Spine.

of the muscles of the calf of the leg, applied by the te do Achillis (see Anatomy) at the heel.

The third sort of lever is used when we pull a ladder out from a wall by one of its lower rungs, while keeping the end ou the ground with the foot. In our bodies it is exemplified by the muscle with which we bend the arm at the elbow (biceps muscle).



Here the fulcrum is at the elbow; the power acts where the tendon of the muscle is attached to the radius; and the weight is that of the forearm and hand. In this arrangement, there is not more than one-

tenth as much lifting power as there would be if the tendon were inserted at the wrist. But what would be thus gained in strengta would be lost in speed; and such a formation would make a limb nearly or quite as thick as an elephant's; out of all proportion, and excessively swkward. We are add more wisely than that.

Opposition of muscles is seen all over the body. Flexors send the arm at the clow, the hard at the wrist, and the fingers on the hand; extensors put them back again. Inhalation (breathing in) is effected by the intercostal muscles lifting the ribs, and the diaphragm flattening down under the lungs; expiration (breathing out) is made forcible (lilowing) by the flat muscles outside of the abdomen pressing Adductors bring the fingers, or the legs, near together; abductors separate them from each other; and so on.

There are many nuscular parts of our bodies which are not under

control of our will. Early in this book, something was said of the fibres of red, striped, or striated muscular tissue. We can get at these fibres by splitting up a piece of an animal's red flesh lengthwise, with a fine knife, and then examining a very small shred of it with a microscope.

Fig. 57.



STRIPED MUSCLE



SMOOTH MUSCLE

The other kind of muscular tissue is not made of fibres, but rather of flattish bands, each of which is composed of long, spindle-shaped cells, as seen under the microscope. This is the smooth, pale, or white muscle, found in the walls of the arteries, in the muscular coat of the stomach and bowels, and in some other internal parts. This sort of muche is never under cont of the will. It is not so quick in its action as the red kind.

We may divide all our muscles into voluntary, involuntary, and mixed muscles.

The voluntary are all those of the arms, legs, jaws, neck, and trunk,

emotion.

which every one can do with as he will. Involuntary are chiefly those of the stomach, howels, blood-vessels, iris around the pupil in the eye, and the heart. The heart is remarkable in being formed of red, striped muscle, and yet being not, like them, under the command of the will. Emotion acts upon it; as when it beats strongly from excited feeling, drags weakly from sorrow, or comes almost to a sudden stop from fear. So, in many languages, "the heart" is said to be the seat of all our feelings. In fact, this is not true. The heart is affected by our feelings, but their real seat is the brain; of which more after awhile.

Mixed nuscles are those over which we have some power, but which also act without, and sometimes against, our will. Such are those of the lower part of the pharynx, or swallowing-tube of the throat. Get something half-way down, and (unless it is too large or sharp and sticks fast) it will go the rest of the way, whether you wish it to do so or not. Our breathing muscles are by no means altogether under the power of our wills. We may hold our breath for some seconds; it is difficult to do it for a whole minute; nobody, can do it for two minutes at a time. Suicide was never committed by a person holding his breath until he died. It would never do for a man to be able to manage his breathing at his will. How, if one could, would we get on when sleeping? Some nervous people would be afraid to go to sleep at all, for fear it would stop altogether for want of attention.

Another set of mixed muscles are those of the face and of the vocal windpipe (larynx), by which we naturally express our emotions. Most people show in their faces whether they are happy or unhappy, pleased or angry, conrageous or frightened. Also, the tones of our voices we express joy, sorrow, anger, pity, of fear. All this is done by muscles; those of the eyebrows, cheeks, lips, and organ of voice (larynx). We can frown or smile, or speak softly or harshly, at will; but the natural way is, for our feelings to express themselves involuntarily. An actor who wants to represent a character does it best by throwing himself into the person whose part he is taking, so as to suppose himself to be that character. An orntor who wishes to arouse feeling in those to whom he speaks, must first feel strongly himself; and then he will express it so as to affect them also. Artificial, studied tones and gestures, are much less effective than those which are the natural language of

Every muscle, whether voluntary or involuntary, acts by drawing its ends or sides towards each other. This is called the contraction of the muscle; its shortening. But, while it shortens, or becomes smaller in one direction, it thickens, growing larger in another direction; its whole bulk remains the same.

A slight contraction belongs to every muscle charing life. The stronger muscles get, of course, some advantage when no effort is being made. So our flugers are bent more or less when we are asleep, because of the flexc.s being stronger than the extensors.

After death, the muscles stiffen. This is the rigor mortis, as it is called. It does not happen at once, but in a variable time; beginning, at the earliest, ten or fifteen minutes after breath ceases; more commonly an hour or two later; sometimes not until six or seven hours have passed. All the muscles the become firmly set. Gradually this passes off; and then decay of the body begins and (unless prevented by cold or an embalming process) goes on rapidly. A body should be prepared, by an undertaker or some other proper person, for "laying out" before the stiff ring comes on; as the position of the limbs cannot be adjusted rightly wring the time of the rigor mortis.

All the muscles, inside and outside of the body, heart, arteries, stomach, intestines, and the rest, undergo this rigor. Indeed, it begins in the left ventricle, and the last part to contract is the right nuriele of the heart.

When one dies after a long and exhausting illness, the rigor mortis comes soon and lasts but for a short time. A person struck down in the midst of vigorous health, will have the same change delayed for several hours, and then passing but slowly away.

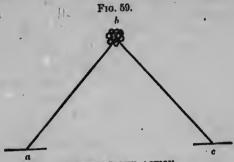
Before the rigor mortis begins, electricity can be mad to cause movement of the unuscles. A fearful appearance is thus posited, when a dead man's face has its eyelids, brows, or lips to move Decasionally, without any such cause, especially in those dying of epidemic (Asiatic) cholera, an arm or a foot has been seen to move after death, of itself!

HOW WE FEEL AND KNOW.

Brain and nerves, every one is aware, we all have. Brain, spinal cord, ganglia, and nerves make the full list of the apparatus of the highest animals, for feeling, knowing, thinking, and willing.

Plants have no brains, ganglia, nor nerves. They do not feel, think, or will. In the simplest animals, there is no need of any; just as a border-ranger, living in a hut, has no use for a front-door bell or a speaking-tube. Nerves are made to take messages. A nervous system is a telegrap's system; ganglia are, so to speak, the offices at which messages a 'sen and sent out. All animals that have nerves have

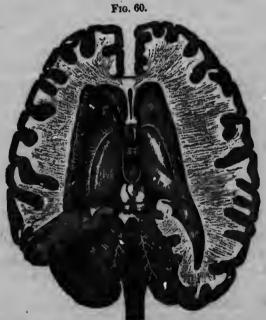
Why should a fly need a nervous system, when an amœba (single-cell animal) does not? Because the amœba feels, so much feeling as it has,



SIMPLE REFLEX ACTION.

a, Seat of Touch. b, Ganglion. c, Place of Motion.

all over at once. A fly does not. Suppose that, flitting about, it touches foot to something burning hot. The message of pain goes through a merve from its foot to its central nervous cord (where there are gauglia,



LOWER PART OF HUMAN BRAIN; ALL THE UPPER PORTION CUT AWAY.

though not brains like ours), and from that centre a message goes to the wings, making them carry the fly away in safety.

The simplest movement under nervous communication is called a reflex action. It needs two nerves and a nerve-centre or gaughion. One nerve takes an impression (from a to b, Fig. 59) from a sensitive part to a nerve-centre. The other (from b to c, same Fig.) carries it from the ganglion to the muscle which is thus excited to motion. This is something like the reflection of a ray of light from a mirror; whence the term reflex action. It is of the same nature whether the sensitive part which gets the impression is at the outside surface of the body, or

Fig. 61. Frg. 62. CONNECTION OF A GANGLION WITH THE SPINAL MARROW. c, Spinal Marrow. s, Nerve going to a Ganglion. anywhere within it; also whether it goes to a simple ganglion apart from brain or spinal cord (see Anatomy), to the spinal cord, or to the brain. Or, again, whether from the ganglionio centre, whatever it may be, the impression is reflected to a muscle, causing motion, or to a

BRAIN AND SPINAL CORD.

gland, producing secretion; for instance, of In those animals which, like the insect, have only ganglia, without true brains, reflex actions occur automatically. What is an automaton? A clock, a watch, or a steam-engine is one. It is a machine that goes of itself, after you wind it up; or, if wound up or fixed up, then a touch, or a shovelful of coal now and then in the right place (as with the steam-engine), will keep it going. A man is not an automaton, because he has a will of his own; but many subordinate actions in our bodies are automatic.

In Fig. 60, the white substance of the cerebral hemispheres is shown on each side, bordered by the convolutions (wrinkle-marks), which are mostly of gray nerve-substance. The hollow spaces are ventricles (cavities) of the iuner brain. At the lower part of the

Figure, we see the cerebellum.

Below the brain, the medulla oblongata, which begins within the skull, goes down into the spinal marrow. Out of and into the spinal marrow and brain many nerves pass; afferent nerves taking impressions to nerve-centres, and efferent nerves taking impressions outward from nerve-centres to muscles or other parts. (Afferent, from ad, to, and fero, to bear; efferent, e, from, and fero, to bear.)

Moreover, nerves connect the spinal marrow, all the way down, with a number of ganglia (once called sympathetic); a double row of them being ontside of the back-bone, a large pair behind the stomach,

and others near the different internal organs.

NERVES.

As shown above, the simplest possible nervous system consists of a ganglion and two nerves. One of the latter (afferent nerve) carries impressions from a part of the animal's body to the ganglionic centre; the other (efferent nerve) takes impressions out from that centre to some

portion of the body.

We find certain general facts, which may be called laws, to be proved about nerves. 1. Each nerve-filament (of which there may be many in each nerve, which is a bundle of filaments) conveys impressions only in one direction. No filament is both afferent and efferent. This is different from telegraphic wires, which take messages either way; from Boston to Philadelphia, or from Philadelphia to Boston, for example, at the will of the operators. But, in our nerves, each bundle may have filaments, some of which are afferent (in-carrying) and others (out-carrying) efferent. And these filaments are so fine and so closely laid together as to seem in a nerve like one solid mass. By aid of the microscope, however, not only is each nerve shown to

consist of a large number of them, but each filament is found to be a tube, whose contents during life are almost or quite fluid; certainly

2. Each nerve of sensation (touch, sight, hearing, smell, taste) conveys only one kind of impression. This impression depends upon what centres and organs it connects. No one can hear with his eyes, smell with his ears, or see with the ends of his fingers. Should any one say that he can do so, do not believe it; whether it be called mesmerism or otherwise. Miracles are possible, under the power of the Creator of the world; but they show their Divine authority. Miracles apart, it is a question of science; and science ascertains the true usual order of nature; whatever seems to violate that, must be either a trick or somebody's mistake. In public exhibitions, it is most likely to be the former; in private circles, it may be the latter. Either way, it is the part of good sense to maintain a strong confidence in the order of nature, as made known by the careful and many times tested inquiries

So general is this fact of the specialty of sense-nerves, that even common touch is not conveyed by the nerves of sight, hearing, taste, or smell. When an eye has been removed by a surgical operation, touching the end of the optic nerve causes not pain, but a flash of light. So also a blow on the eye makes one "see stars." Such a blow canses pain also; but this is because nerves of touch go to the eye, as well as the nerve of sight (optic nerve). We caunot bring this fact to the direct test with the other special nerves, but there is every reason to believe

How, then, it may be asked, do blind people get about? using the information given by such senses as they have. You see the blind man feeling his way with his stick (or his hands, in a room), and listening intently for all sounds around him. He learns to feel and hear more acutely than others who have their eyesight. Blind persons can learn to read with their fingers, in books with raised letters, made on purpose for them. Laura Bridgman, the famous patient of Dr. Howe, who was blind and deaf from infancy, was, by great skill and patience, taught to know and do a great many things, by touch

3. Sense-nerves commonly report their messages as coming from their ends. Experience may correct this; but such is the general fact. When the nerve (often called "crazy bone") at the inner side of the elbow-joint is struck by accident, a tingling follows in the little finger and the finger next to it; not in any other fingers. This is because that (ulnar) nerve which was struck goes down the forearm and gives its

branches to those two fingers; and it reports the effect as if it was in the

fingers themselves.

So, when a leg has been cut off while the patient was made unconscious by breathing ether, he may for some days feel pain or itching, as he will say, "in his toes," when there are no toes there. The impression really is in the stump, where the nerve was cut off.

Pain from disease is, likewise, not always felt in the seat of the disease. Hip-joint affection (coxalgia) is attended usually by pain, not in the hip, but in the knee; and there are other instances of the same kind, in different maladies. When a tooth is partly decayed and inflamed, the impression of pain may become so strong in the nerve-centre to which its nerve goes, that the whole side of the face may seem to ache with the offending tooth.

THE GANGLIA.

Scattered in different parts of our bodies, these nerve-centres always have two sorts of connections: one (by nerves) with the spinal marrow, and the other with various organs. Those organs are always the organs concerned either in digestion, assimilation, circulation, secretion, or reproduction. Of these functions, a good deal has been said already, on previous pages. While, then, the power need by these ganglia may come from the spinal marrow, it is almost certain that they mainly regulate the actions of the heart, arteries, stomach, bowels; liver, spleen, kidneys, ovaries, uterus, and lymphatic glands. To these actions or functions the name is applied, "the functions of organic (as distinguished from the more truly animal) life." They serve to keep up the conditions necessary for the action of the organs, and thus of the organism, i. e., the whole living body. Animal functions are those which animals have and vegetables have not; as sensation, motion, and thought.

All the ganglia now spoken of together make, with their connections,

the Ganglionic System of Organic Life.

SPINAL MARROW.

Up and down the whole length of the back, in a channel for it in the spinal column, lies the soft nervous mass called the spinal cord or marrow. (The marrow of bones is a fatty material, not of nerve-substance.)

Gray matter, formed of nerve-cells, is in the interior of the cord, and spreads out in four horns

(Fig. 63); two in front (lower part of the Figure) and two longer ones behind.

Out from the spinal cord, through all its length, go and come nerves, in pairs, one on each side, through holes (foramina) arranged for them. There are thirty-one pairs of spinal nerves.

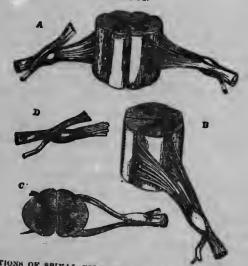
Each of these nerves has two roots; an anterior (front) and posterior (back) root.

On each posterior root there is b. One Horn of Gray Substance. e.f. Parts of White Substance. a ganglion; none on any anterior



root. Experiment proves that feeling goes up to the cord through the posterior roots; motion is impelled by messages sent down through the anterior roots only. Cut the anterior root of a spinal nerve, and

Fig. 64.



SECTIONS OF SPINAL CORD, SHOWING ROOTS OF NERVES. A, Front view. B, Right side. C, Upper side. D, Roots alone.

the animal will feel as usual; but it cannot move the part to which that nerve sends its branches. If you cut the posterior root, it will no longer

feel anything done to the part which that nerve supplies; but motion

can be effected through the anterior root.

Impressions must go to the brain in order for us to feel them. Therefore the spinal marrow must carry them up to the brain. That, and bringing down from the brain commands for movements, are two of the uses of the spinal marrow. Under Anatomy, it has been shown that several nerves (of sight, taste, smell, hearing, and of touch for the head and face) are directly connected with the brain. No nerve of any special sense except touch ends in the spinal cord; but all the 31 pairs of spinal nerves are nerves of touch as well as of motion; that is, they contain filaments of both kinds.

But the spinal marrow has some business of its own, besides being subordinate to the brain. When a frog's head has been taken off, if one of its feet be touched, that limb will be jerked away. How is that, when, as the brain has been removed, it is supposed not to feel anything? Some physiologists think that the spinal cord may feel as well as the brain. But this conclusion is not here necessary; we can explain the foot-movement otherwise. It is a reflex action. A few pages since, we gave some account of such actions. In their simplest form these do not need a brain; any ganglion will do. So there are reflex act ins whose centres are the ganglia of organic life, referred to above, not long since. Others have their centres in the gray substance of the spinal cord; still others, in the medulla oblongata, which connects the spinal marrow with the brain, within the skull. These last are the most important of all; breathing and swallowing. When an animal is pithed by passing a knife through the uppermost part of the back of the neck, dividing the spinal cord just below the medulla oblongata, it will die at once if it be one of the higher vertebrates (man, mammals, birds); and after no great length of time if of a lower class (reptiles, fishes).

Breathing is a beautiful example of a reflex action. Want of air is felt by us only when rather extreme; but before that, an impression, not felt, of that want, goes from the blood in the lungs up to the medulla oblongata. Thence is reflected downward through motor nerves the message of command to the breathing muscles, namely, intercostal muscles and diaphragm (see Respiration). They at once respond, lifting the ribs and flattening down the diaphragm, sucking air in through month or uostrils and windpipe; which air goes to the lungs and freshens up (arterializes) the blood. This goes on regularly, 16 or 18 times a minute, day and night, of itself, automatically; without our attention. If the brain proper (cerebral hemispheres) be stupefied by opinm, or by pressure of a clot of blood, breathing will still go on, so long as the medulla oblongata is all right. Thus, when surgeons

give ether or chloroform by inhalation for surgical operations, or a dentist uses nitrous oxide when he extracts teeth, the brain may be so lulled that the patient feels no pain; but the greatest caution is needful lest the anasthetic (as chloroform, ether, and nitrous oxide, so used, are called) should extend its action down to the medulla oblongata. If it does so, death may result.

Swallowing is, in part, another reflex action. When the morsel has been pushed down into the pharynx, its muscles contract by reason of the impression being conveyed to the medulla oblongata, and reflected thence, as a motor impulse or message of commandment. (This last expression is, of course, only a figure of speech.)

Light shining upon the eyes causes their pupils to grow small by a similar reflex action upon the iris (muscle surrounding the pupil). If the retina has lost its sensibility to light, or if a cataract (opacity of the lens of the eye) prevents the rays from reaching the retina, the pupil will not contract under light. There are many other examples of re-

Under disease, we see morbid and excessive reflex actions. of nervous temperament has some difficulty in teething. Worriment of the gurns is "telegraphed" through nerves to the brain, and, by sympathy, the spinal cord also is disturbed. Then may follow a violent reflex action of muscles, known as a fit, or convulsion.

Or, again, worms, or unremoved remainders of food, in the bowels, may irritate the spinal marrow by impressions carried through nerves, and convulsions may result. The spinal marrow is much more irritable in infants than in older persous. Couvulsions are more often met with, aud are less alarming (though always dangerous), at about teething time than later in life.

Another form of reflex disturbance is quite common at the same period of life. Teething may, if not going on just right, irritate, reflexly, the secreting glands of the bowels, instead of, or in addition to, the muscles of the body. Then we have diarrhoea. A moderate amount of this relieves the irritation. It should not be too much suppressed. Only when it is so great as to weaken the little patient, should medicine be given to keep it in check. When the gums are swollen, or tense and tender, over a tooth not yet through, a neat, clean cut down to the new tooth with a sharp lancet may give relief, and may prevent or put away either the motor or the secretory (excito-motor or excito-secretory)

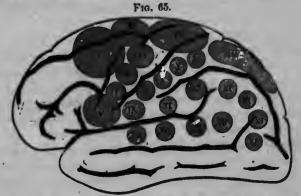
Hysterical people, those who have lockjaw (tetanus), and those who suffer with hydrophobia (from the bite of a mad dog), all illustrate morbid reflex actions, in ways which it would take too long to explain in this place.

THE BRAIN.

When the sk.dl has been partly removed, and the brain is seen uncovered, it looks like a wrinkled, gray mass of putty; in two equal parts, right and left, with a split (fissure) part way down between them. Wonderful, indeed, that such a material should ever have had to do with knowledge, love, fear, hope, right, wrong, conscience l Yet it was once so during life—the dome of thought, the palace of the soul.

Already, we have spoken of the main parts of the brain. More particularly, we may now say that, in the human brain, they are as follows: 1. The hemispheres of the cerebrum. 2. Under it, some parts, of gray and white nerve-matter, conveniently called the midbrain (thalami, corpora striata, tubercula quadrigemina, etc., of anatomiets). 3. The cerebellum. 4. The medulla oblongata.

Many well known facts show that the outer round and convoluted



SIDE-VIEW OF BRAIN, SHOWING FERRIER'S PSYCHOMOTOR CENTRES.

surface of the hemispheres of the cerebrum has the most to do with mind: that is, knowing, feeling, and will. Gall and Spurzheim, founders of the system of phrenology, thought that they could map out the brain-surface (even by examining it ontside of the skull) into a certain number of organs, each connected with one of the faculties of the mind. Their system has been refused acceptance by physiologists, for want of satisfactory evidence.

Something like it, in so far as it is an effort to show that certain powers of the mind belong to particular parts of the brain, has been going on amongst physiologists ever since Gall's time; that is, during the last fifty years.

By laying bare the brains of different kinds of animals, as monkeys, dogs, cats, and rabbits, experiments have been tried, especially with elec-

tricity; and the actions of the animals, when certain parts are touched and excited, have been noted.

For our present purpose, it will be enough just to mention these observations, referring the reader to larger works on physiology for their discussion. The subject is still comparatively a new one, and scientific men have not yet reached a final conclusion about it. One point only may be further noticed here. Of all these "locations" of functions in the cerebrum, the strongest case has been made out for that of the faculty of language.

In the third frontal convolution it is believed that the power of using words to express our thoughts and emotions resides, and almost, or quite, exclusively in the left hemisphere of the brain.

Aphasia is a singular and not common disorder, in which the patient cannot talk; not because of any ailment in his "vocal organs" (larynx), but from brain-trouble; or, if he speaks, he gets the wrong words, and talks nonsense. Along with this affection, quite often (though not always) there is palsy of the right arm and right leg (right hemiplegia). Now it has long been knowr that, because of the crossing of nervous fibres at the uppermost part of the spinal cord, the right arm and leg communicate with the left half of the brain; and vice versa. So, when patients having aphasia and hemiplegia of the right side together have died, and their brains have been examined, there has often (not always) been found disease at or near the third frontal convolution on the left side of the brain.

But, after all, this subject is surrounded with difficulties. Although, by electricity acting on the convolutions of the cerebral hemispheres, motions, that is, muscular actions, are excited, this cannot do away with the abundant evidence which has proved that the chief use of the cerebrum is to act as the instrument of mind; of knowing, thinking, feeling (emotions), and willing.

As a general thing, a large brain goes with large mental ability. There are, it is true, some very positive exceptions. The average weight of men's brains is about 3 pounds, say 50 ounces; those of women, 44 to 45 onness. Very few brains have been known to weigh over 60 ounces. As women are mostly considerably lighter in their whole body weight, their proportionate weight of brain is scarcely less than that of men. Proportion, in this matter, is very important. Comparing other animals, the proportion of brain to the whole body for the class of Mammals (to which man belongs) is 1 to 186; in Birds, 1 to 212; Reptiles, 1 to 1321; Fishes, 1 to 5668. In Man, it is about 1 to 40. Only two creatures present a larger relative proportion; a little bird, called the blue-headed tit, and the field-monse. With

small. Also, in them, the cerebrum, thinking brain, is not so large in proportion to the rest as it is in man.

The average size of the head, found by trying how much the skull, emptied of its brain-contents, will hold, is, with different races of men, from 80 to 90 cuble inches. The largest of 900 skulls measured by a distinguished German anatomist, R. Wagner, was that of a woman—115 cubic inches. Famous large heads were those of Oliver Cromwell; George Cuvier, the French naturalist; Volta, the Italian natural philosopher; and Daniel Webster. The largest skull ever measured, how-





INTERIOR OF THE BRAIN.

ever, is said to have been that of a not at all famous German baker, of Louisville, Kentucky—125 cubic inches! Likewise, the heaviest brain on record was that of an English bricklayer, who could neither read nor write. He was "not very sober, had a good memory, and was fond of politics." Perhaps, if he had been sober, and had kept out of politics, he might have been a great man. Turgénieff, the Russian novelist, had a very heavy brain; Gambetta, the French statesman, one not above the average. Raphael, Charles Lamb, Lord Byron, and Charles Dickens had heads rather smaller than usual.

The brain receives, in Man, a very large supply of blood; about one-

blood varies in amount, according to our activity of mind, in thought or emotion. When asleep, the least rapid flow occurs through the blood-vessels of the brain. This has been observed in the heads of young lufants, whose "soft spots" (anterior fontanelles) are large. On waking, the brain swells out the fontanelle somewhat; and still more, when the babe is excited and cries. To prevent a sudden increase of blood in the head from doing harm by too great pressure, a watery fluid moves in and out (under the shood membrane, which covers brain and spinal marrow), according to the pressure in the head. Also, the arteries (carotid and vertebral) which take blood to the brain are twisted spirally (cork-screw fashion), by which the change of pressure is made more gradual.

In sleep, the brain rests; best, when sleep continues for a number of hours unbroken, and without dreams. Only the brain, of all the organs of the body, needs and cau get this long continued repose. The medulla oblongata, spinal marrow, and ganglia keep up some of the actions connected with them (breathing, circulation of the blood, secretion) day and night. The heart beats, and the lungs breathe, all the time. Each of these organs, however, has its share of rest, in the short pauses between the heart-beats, and between breaths; and in these bits of repose their nervous centres share.

SENSORY GANGLIA.

If the reader will look closely at Fig. 66, he will see, at b, a rounded mass shown at the base of the brain, somewhat forward; and, just behind it, another, on which are the letters c and d. Of these, b is called corpus striatum (striped body), and d the thalamus (chamber). (Plural, including right and left sides together, corpora striata and thalami.)

Now the corpora striata, which are in front, appear to have to do with the giving out of motor impulses. The thalami are probably the receivers of impressions of sensation from all parts of the body. At h and i, in the same Figure, are two smaller bodies on each side; all four being together the tubercula quadrigemina of anatomists. To these, as well as to the thalami, go the optic nerves, which take from the eyes all impressions of sight. Not far from the same region of the brain, come the ends of the auditory nerves (of hearing), olfactory (of smell) and gustatory (of taste) nerves.

Thus all sorts of sensations centre in this region of the brain, which may be called the Sensorium. The impressions of sense are sent up (reported, so to speak) from the sensorium to the convolutions on the outside of the hemispheres. There they are used as the "raw material" of ideas and to arouse emotions. The will deals with sensations, ideas, and emotions, by its power of attention, choice, and direction. The will seems to act "everywhere," as boss or general superintendent, in the brain.

But it is remarkable that the aensory and motor gauglionic centres (the corpora striata being the latter) are placed very near to each other.



BASE OF THE BRAIK.

23. Offictory Nerve. 28. Optic Nerve. 35. Auditory Nerve . 2 and 36, 'n part, Suntatory Nerves.

Why is this? Our common way of doing things shows the reason for it.

When I begin to write this page, what do I do? I look at the paper, and then, guided by my sight, trace out the letters and words over the page. When you walk out of doors, do you keep your eyes shut? No. Try it (in a safe place) a little while, and observe the difference.

Blind persons can learn to sing or play well on an instrument, by ear. A "good ear" is necessary to every musician, as well as a good voice and a skilful touch. Those who are born deaf are mute, simply be-

cause, hearing no sounds, they cannot learn to speak. If they become deaf during childhood, they are upt to keep a childish tone of voice through life,

So, also, a painter or sculptor must have an eye for the beautiful, in color, form, and proportion of objects. All our actions are guided by perception of sensations. There is, or may be, in this, something automatic. What we are used to doing a great deal, comes to be so easy that we pay little or no attention to it. Walking on a smooth street or road is an example. Some persons are suid to be so proficient in piano music that they may fall asleep over an instrument in the middle of a piece, and yet go on and finish it. Soldiers, vefatigued, have been known to go "marching on," with regular steps, asleep! Somnambulists (sleep-walkers) go about with their eyes open. Their seeing brain and moving brain (sensorial ganglia) are awake, while their thinking brains (or a considerable part of them) are asleep; as is shown by their remembering nothing of what they did the next morning. This observation shows that, although not believing in phrenology, we must admit that different parts of the brain have different functions and powers. One part may be quiet, even sound asleep, while other parts are awake and active.

What nuckes it difficult and dangerous, to most people, to walk upon a narrow plank at a great height? On the same plank, laid in the middle of a broad floor, there is no difficulty at all. It is because the impressions made upon our sight, when we move on a single plank, are such as we are not accustomed to, and they do not guide us well. By training, Blondin learned to walk upon a tight-rope with a man on his back, and even with his eyes blindfolded, over Niagara Falls.

MUSCULAR SENSE.

This leads to the remark, that not sight only guides us in walking. Hearing and touch assist; and the blind make constant use of both. But Blondin must have depended chiefly, when on the tight-rope blind-folded, upon another sense; the muscular sense. By this we are made aware of the kind, direction, and amount of force used by any of our muscles. Put a book upon your hand, and guess what its weight may be; or put one on each hand, and say which is heavier. Such judgments are formed by aid of the muscular sense.

Skating furnishes the best example of the use of this sense. A skater needs his sight only to know that nothing is in his way on the ice. Touch

cannot guide him, because the soles of his boots or shoes, and the narrow, stiff irons of his skates are between his feet and the level ice, which is all the same, whichever way he turns.* A blind man might learn to skate perfectly well, by his muscular sense alone, if he could be made certain of a wide space, with nothing in the way.

CEREBELLUM.

This is a partly separate portion of brain; behind, and in Man and the higher Apes below, the cerebrum.



m, Medulla Oblongata. c, Pons Varolii. w, Hemispheres of Cerebellum. f, Middle notch. 8 to 7, Nerves.

Contrary to the opinion of the phrenologists, who took quite a different view, observation, reasoning, and experiment have made it probable that the cerebellum has to do with regulating voluntary motion. Animals whose movements are active and somewhat complicated have it largest; those of simple motions, smallest. The Bear, which can stand on its hind feet and hug with its fore-limbs, has a larger cerebellum in proportion than the Dog, which always behaves (unless taught "tricks") as a quadruped; and it is larger still in the Monkeys, which are wonderfully nimble climbers. Among Birds, it is largest in swift and varied fliers, as the swallow; smallest in clumsily flying species, such as the Pheasants, Partridges, and domestic Fowl.

^{*} Nearly the same thing is true of the bicycle-rider; but he makes more use of sight than the skater does.

MEDULLA OBLONGATA.

Already it has been explained that breathing and swallowing appear to depend for their regulation upon the medulla oblongata. Both of these are like those actions which the spinal marrow regulates, in being usually automatic, and in serving purposes connected with mere living, not thinking, which is done in the brain. But we need to have some control over breathing, for use of the voice, and to hold our breath under certain circumstances. Also, it is of great advantage for the will to have power to control the first part of the act of swallowing. So the medulla oblongata is placed as a link between the brain above and the spinal cord below.



MEDULLA OBLONGATA.

M, Corpus Striatum. K, Thalamus. C, D, Corpora Quadrigemina. X, Pons Varolii.

The pons (Pons Varolii) (X, Fig. 69) is a bridge across (under in the upright position of the body and brain) the medulla oblongata, from side to side of the cerebrum and cerebellum.

The special uses or functions of the pons have not been made certain. Our readers will have noticed, that much is yet to be learned in regard to the functions of a number of the parts of the body; and especially about the different portions of the brain. Nevertheless, what we do know is of interest and value; and Physiology is a constantly advancing science.

IDEAS, EMOTIONS, AND WILL.

Most persons suppose, with the phrenclogists, that our knowing and thinking powers are located in the front part of the brain, and the affectional and emotional feelings in the back of the head. But it appears to me more probable that, instead, the emotions are connected with the anterior, and the intellectual powers with the posterior, portions of the brain. Reasons for this belief are given in another work.* The will, or what we call self (ego of the philosophers), appears to have no special seat or organ; but to be consciously present wherever any of our faculties are in action. If any one treads on my toe, or mashes my finger, I seem to be there.

Even our minds are to some extent automatic. Our thoughts wander on while we are awake, with or without our consent. In dreams, they make still stranger excursions, which seem real because all other impressions are shut out. If we try, we can dwell on some one thing or thought, keeping it before us; and that is about all the power will

has over thought.

Emotion is still more spontaneous. Tears flow, not because we wish them to, but because something "touches our feelings." Passionate anger may be repressed, not by a direct effort of the will, but by thinking of, or looking at, something which will divert our minds from the object of wrath.

OUR SPECIAL SENSES.

These (besides the muscular sense) are Sight, Hearing, Smell, Taste, and Touch. The last, although special in the fact of differing from the others, is general, in so far as it is common to many different parts of the body.

SIGHT.

What is light? It is a wave-movement of the very thin, subtle matter (called ether) which fills space; extending as far at least as the remotest star, which is a long way beyond the sun. Let us try to illustrate the subject of wave-motions. Throw a pebble into a pond; the water breaks into waves around the place where it was struck, these circling,

^{*} Hartshorne's Anatomy and Physiology for Medical Students; Second Edition, p. 293.

SIGHT. 99

one beyond another, till they reach the shore. A church-bell is tolled. If you were to touch it while it is giving forth a long note of sound, your hand would feel the quivering vibration: and the air at the same time beats upon your ears with waves of sound. Air (as well as many other things) has sonorous vibrations. The subtle ether, so much lighter and thinner than air that it cannot be weighed at all, has luminous vibrations. Heat also is ether-wave-motion. A sort of gamut (as musicians call it) there is: water-waves, large and slow; air-waves, smaller and quicker, from the lowest up to the shrillest note of sound; ether-waves, the lowest being those of heat, and the higher waves those of light.

Of the waves of heat and light, also, there is a regular scale. Put a rod of iron in a hot furnace, and watch the part just outside of the fire. For a while, although getting hot, it continues dark; there are then only the lower heat-waves. Soon it may be seen to grow red; showing the high heat-waves, passing into the lower waves of light. Then, in rapid succession, it glows with orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, violet (these last too near each other to be readily discriminated), and at last, white heat!

Red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet. That is the order of the seven colored sets of waves, or rays. We see them so in the rainbow.

All these rays together make white light. By passing sunlight

through a glass prism, it is divided into the seven rays. This bending of rays so as to take new directions is called the refraction of light. Red rays are least refracted; violet rays most; the others come in order (as above given) between.



REFRACTION, THROUGH A PRISM.

The arrangement of divided rays brained by means of a prism is called a spectrum. A beautiful study (that of the spectroscope and its uses) is connected with it. But, beyond the violet end, there are yet shorter (higher) waves, which we do not see, but which have chemical effects; of the kind which light shows, so usefully, in taking photographs (light-pictures).

If you place a straight stick slantwise in a stream, or in a vessel of clear water, it will appear bent from the place where it enters the water. Or, put a quarter-dollar in the bottom of an empty cup, and move slowly back until you just don't see the coin over the edge. Then ask

some one to fill the cup with water. The coin will seem to rise, so that

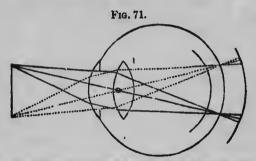
you see it plainly.

Both of these last are examples of refraction of light. If you let full a stone, attached to the end of a string, into the water in which you have placed a slanting stick, the string will theu be perpendicular to the surface of the water. As you see the stick by the rays of light coming from it to your eyes,—the rays coming through the water from the stick are shown to be bent away from the perpendicular string. Then we have a rule, or law, namely:

A ray of light, passing from a denser material (as water) into a rarer material (as air), is refracted from the perpendicula: A ray passing from a rarer into a denser medium, as from air into water, is

refracted towards the perpendicular.

Our eyes are optical instruments; more wonderful than any made by men. Rays of light passing through them are refracted, just as they



REFRACTION AND INVERSION OF RAYS OF LIGHT.

are through the lenses of telescopes or microscopes; so as to make im-

ages or pictures within the eyes.

Reflection of light is also important. Its rules or "laws" are like those of the reflection of other things. Throw a ball straight down on the floor and it bounds straight up again. Throw it slantwise, and it will rebound in a line slanting just as much the other way. Incidence is the long word for striking. The "line of incidence" is the direction in which a thing is made to strike. Then we have a law about this. The angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflection. This is true of ball-throwing, billiard-playing, of sound (in echoes), and in the reflection of light. You can observe it any time in a looking-glass.

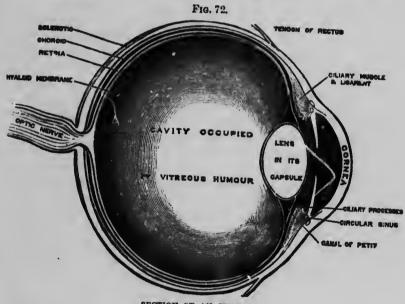
Schoolboys sometimes make this experiment with a bit of broken looking-glass, which they get into the sunlight, so as to throw a bright

ray into the teacher's or some schoolmate's eyes.

We see things by the light which they reflect. White things reflect

the whole light. Red things reflect only red rays, and keep (take up, absorb) the remaining rays; blue things reflect blue rays, and so ou; black things (if perfectly black), none. As black things keep or absorb all the rays or waves, those waves do not cease their motion; but they are slowed (so to speak) into heat-waves. Hence a black hat is a very much hotter thing to wear under a summer's sun than a white hat. White is the coolest of all, for the same reason. Red flannel, worn as an under garment, is no warmer than white flannel; but a red-flaunel shirt with nothing over it is warmer than white while the sun shines upon it.

Take all the red rays out of white suulight, and what is left?



SECTION OF AN EYEBALL.

Green. If you take all the green out you have red left. These colors are therefore called consplementary colors to each other. Blue and orange are likewise complementary colors; and so are yellow and purple.

It is well known that in dresses, earpets, etc., complementary colors always look best together; as red with green, yellow with purple, blue with orange. This we commonly call the contrast of colors.

We may reverse the separation of colors by the prism, simply by throwing them so as to pass in the opposite way through another prism. If in the same way, they would be parted still more widely. Or,

paint all the seven colors, like spokes on a wheel, upon a round piece of card-board, and make the wheel revolve rapidly. As the colors run together in our eyes, their combination makes the wheel look white (or

nearly so-not quite, because the colors are not perfect).

Transparent bodies let almost all the light go through them. Translucent ones allow a portion of the rays to pass through them, but not enough to see things by; opaque bodies let ne light through at all. A window-pane is transparent; ground-glass is transluceate; wood is opaque.

Light travels through space at the rate of about 190,000 miles in

a second,—very much faster than sound passes through the air.

One can get a good idea of the make-up of a human eye by carefully examining the eye of a sheep, which can be obtained from a mutton-butcher. The eye is almost a globe, at the eud of a stem, which is the optic nerve. In front, however, there is set in, like a round glass in a round frame, a slightly projecting part, the cornea—the window through which we look. It is quite transparent.

Examining the round frame or sash of this small window, we find it formed of a thin outer coat (conjunctiva), a thicker one (sclerotic), another containing blood-vessels, and black within (choroid), and a very delicate one innermost of all, connected with the branching of the

optic nerve (retina).

When a ray of light strikes upon the eye, it first passes through the cornea; then through the front chamber of the aqueous humor to the opening called the pupil, surrounded by the iris, which draws together and makes the pupil smaller when the light is bright, and opens wider when the light is weak and faint. (Cats, by the way, have a pupil, not round, but a sort of slit; this shuts up closely in the daytime, and opens wide at night, so that they can see wheu, to us, it is dark.)

A little way behind the pupil is the crystalline lens. Next to that comes the large chamber of the vitreous humor, and then the retina. On this, like the "sensitive-plate" in the photographer's box, the sight-picture is taken. This picture must be upside down, because the

rays cross each other at the pupil. (See Fig. 71.)

Yet we do not see things upside down. This is because we follow the rays, in our sight, to the place they come from. So, when rays are reflected from a looking-glass, giving us an image of an object, that object appears to be behind the mirror; following back the line of reflection, as far as the object itself is in front of it.

With two eyes, we see but one image. We explain this in two ways. First, the optic nerves join each other (as no other pairs of nerves

do); also, they have filaments which go across from the right eye to the left side of the brain (tubercula quadrigemina and thalamus), and from the left eye to the right side of the brain; besides those which pass from each eye to its own half of the centres at the base of the brain. Thus the two nerves.

right and left, combine in their report (so to speak) of the impressions made upon the two eyes.

Secondly, the eyes (which do not, in Man, really stand out in such different directions as they are made to in Fig. 73)* are directed towards the same object, so that straight lines drawn through the pupils of the two eyes perpendicularly to their corneas (making the visual axes of the eyes) will meet in the



THE OPTIC NERVES.

same point of the object. The two images formed on the two retinas will therefore correspond, and make one picture.

When any one squints (is cross-eyed) the axes of the two eyes do not meet on any object looked at, and the images do not correspond. A person so affected (with strabismus, as oculists call it) sees double; but he gets the habit of giving attention to one of the two images (or apparent objects) and neglecting the other. The same inconvenience results in another way, when the refraction of the two eyes is not the same; one eye being far-sighted and the other near-sighted. To this subject some attention will be given in a later part of this book. We can put our eyes out of correspondence for a time, by pushing one eye to one or the other side with a finger; or by "looking cross-eyed" on purpose. This last is not, however, a good thing to do often, lest it become habitual.

Looking at a far-off prospect, or at the blue sky (if not too dazzling), one's eyes feel a sense of repose. An effort, usually slight, is made in bringing our sight to bear upon anything near us, as in reading a book. We can cause the effort to become quite perceptible, by gradually moving a book nearer to our eyes, until it is too near.

Our sight then has to be adjusted for near objects.

This is done by changing the form of the crystalline lens. Before age has hardened it, the lens is somewhat clastic. When left without

^{*}That figure represents rather a dissected, separated preparation of the parts; not their exact appearance and position.

pressure, it is moderately convex. Being surrounded by the ciliary ligament (Fig. 74),* this pushes in its surface, making it flatter, that is, less convex in front. A muscle, not shown in either of our figures, called the ciliary muscle, when it acts, draws this ligament away; and thus allows the lens to bulge out more, or become more convex.† Let us remember, then, that rays going into a denser medium are bent towards the perpendicular. Passing through a pane of glass, their direction is little changed, because it is flat and thin; and the slight change that occurs is rectified, as the ray soon goes out from the dense glass to the rare atmosphery again. But, take a sheet of paper and bend it over into



THE CHOROID COAT, IRIS, AND PUPIL, ENLARGED.

an arch; you will see, then, that its perpendiculars must point inwards; and rays bent towards them would meet somewhere in a centre. This is what happens with a convex lens; and the centre is its focus. Then, the more convex the lens, the more the rays are bent. And, as the image is made, in sight, by all the rays from the object being focused

^{*} The lens is, in that figure, hidden behind the iris.

[†] This is the account of it given in the Text-books on Physiology. It is not, however, quite certainly the true explanation. It seems to me not impossible that, instead, the ciliary muscle acts by compressing the circular margin of the lens, so as take its central portion bulge forwards; that is become more convex.

upon one surface (or plane), the more convex the lens the sooner (nearer behind the lens) the rays from any object make their image.

Rays from distant objects are nearly parallel. Those from near things going to the eye must diverge; more or less according to their nearness. Now parallel rays are, so to speak, easily bent to a focus; diverging ones (spreading out from a centre) much less so. Therefore the more convex lens is wanted for near objects, to bring their rays to a focus on the retina. Suppose the eye to be too long. Then the image will fall in front of the retina; and the rays, crossing each other, will cause imperfect sight. This is near-sightedness. It may be corrected by using concave glasses, which spread the rays and throw the image farther back. A near-sighted person holds a book close to his nose (if he wears no glasses), because thus he makes the rays from it diverge a great deal, and pushes their focus back so as to reach the retina.

Too short an eyeball 'as the image to fall behind the retina. This (long-sightedness) is to be corrected by convex glasses, bringing the rays sooner to a focus. Of this, also, more hereafter.

We must not forget that, under the stimulus of more strongly reflected light, the iris contracts when we look at near objects. This shuts off the outermost rays, which diverge too much, for the size and shape of the eyeball, to make a clear picture (spherical aberration). Also, the crystalline lens is most dense at the centre; so as to refract most the rays which are nearly parallel, and least the outer rays.

In using imperfect glass lenses, sometimes white light is broken up (as in the prism) into colors. This is called **chromatic aberration**. It is prevented, in our eyes, as it is in good instruments by opticians, by the different transparent parts correcting each other's different refraction of the color rays making up white light.

Every eye has a blind spot. To prove this, make two dots on a piece of paper, about two inches apart. Then close the right eye and look at the right-hand spot with the left eye, holding the paper about eight

inches from the eyes. The *left-hand* spot will then disappear. This blind spot is where the optic nerve enters the eyeball. The centre of *most distinct* vision is a yellowish spot, about at the middle of the retina.

How do we know how far off is anything that we see? Only by using our knowledge, if we have such, of its size, and judging by experience of the effect of distance upon that size. Standing near a railroad track, when a train of cars is approaching, we can see it grow-

ing rapidly larger as it comes near to us. We can guess its distance at any moment, because we are familiar with the size of engines and cars. But the distance of a cloud overhead, or of the sun, moon, or stars, we can form no estimate of, from their appearance; as we have no definite notion of their size. So it is with all other objects.

Similarly, if we know the distance from us of a house, tree, or

mountain, we can estimate its size; otherwise, not.

In a fog, the dimness of things produces one the effects of distance; and, supposing objects seen to be far off, we in them to be larger than they are. On the contrary, in an uncommonly clear atmosphere, everything seems near and relatively small.

An image formed upon the retina remains " ere for a moment; not so strongly impressed as to interfere with another object, but so as sometimes to blend or combine the two images. On a white card, draw, on one side, the figure of a man, and on the other a horse: or on one side a

Fig. 75.



STEREOSCOPIC PICTURE.

bird and on the other side a cage. If you can then fix the card so as to revolve swiftly, you will see the man and horse, or the bird and cage, both in one picture. When a burning firebrand is whirled around in the air at night, it looks like a circle of continuous flame. The same fact about images explains the approach to whiteness of a wheel painted with the seven colors of the rainbow, and made to rotate rapidly.

A pretty experiment is this: fix your eyes intently for about half a minute upon a piece of bright red or clear green stuff (of any kind) laid upon a sheet of white paper. Then take the bit of colored stuff suddenly away, and you will see in its place a figure of the same size

and shape, but of the complementary color.

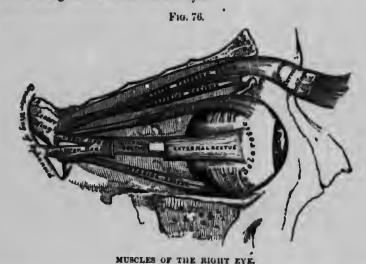
If the stuff be red, the spectrum following it will be green; if it be green, a red spectrum will appear; and so on. It would take too much space here to explain this and similar facts about color-spectra.

Stereoscopes are now familiar to most people.

signt. 107

They act by throwing two pictures, representing the same object, into one, by the refracting power of a couple of lenses, shaped and placed properly for the purpose. Some persons (not many) can so exaggerate the action of the muscular apparatus of their eyes, as to throw the two pictures into one without a stereoscope. The effect, in either case, is to make a picture which stands out solid, as it were. This is especially successful with views of things which are really solid; as statues, monuments, and buildings.

Adjustment of the eyes to a near object requires, besides the action of the ciliary muscle upon the lens, the convergence of the eyes; that is, turning both eyes enough inward to look right at the object. This is done by two of the short and straight muscles of the eyes; the internal straight muscles of the two eyes.



Other movements of the eyeballs also are effected by their muscles, which are six in all, for each eye: internal straight (rectus internas),

external straight (rectus externus), superior straight, inferior straight, superior oblique, and inferior oblique. The last two roll the eyes slightly. The superior oblique has its tendon to go through a pulley at the inner front edge of the orbit of the eye; which reverses the direction of its action.

A peculiarity of the straight muscles of the eyeball is that very often the external of one eye acts with the internal muscle of the other, and vice versa. For example, to look towards the right, we use the external straight muscle of the left eye.

In a cross-eyed person, one of the straight muscles (external or internal) of one or both eyes is too weak; and the opposing one gets the advantage, pulling the eye or eyes in its direction. Most common is "internal strabismus," in which the two internal recti muscles draw the eyes too much inwards. Surgeous sometimes remedy this, by dividing the stronger muscle, with a fine kuife, so that the weaker one is enabled to keep up its proper proportion of action.

TEARS.

These flow from the lachrymal gland, which lies in the upper and outer part of the orbit of each eye. Constantly there is a gentle flow of moisture over the eyeball; the slight excess of which runs along the gutter or channel between the gristly (cartilaginous) edges of the lids, to pass down from the inner corner of the eye into the nose by the lachrymal duct. Occasionally this duct becomes narrowed, and the tears overflow all the time. When very troublesome, relief may be given to this by stretching the duct, with a small silver tube.

- Weeping results from a large excess of secretion by the lachrymal



TEAR-GLAND AND DUCT.

gland, under strong emotion. The effect of emotion is to increase the flow of blood towards the front part of the brain; this finds relief from the escape of some of the watery part of the blood through the bloodvessels of the tear-gland in its secretion. Grief that is "too deep for tears" is the most apt to wear upon the health for want of that relief.

Our eyelashes, which curve two ways, serve somewhat the same sort of purpose as the "cow-catchers"

in front of locomotives, to keep things from getting into the eyes. The eyebrows turn perspiration upon the forehead away from the eyes, besides aiding in deadening the force of blows which may threaten

them. Winking is a generally automatic action (although controllable by the will) of the round (orbicular) nussele which closes the eye. It spreads the tear-moisture over the ball from time to time, and, when anything comes very near to the eye, we wink spontaneously to shut it out.

As the eyes, the windows of the head, are very much exposed in their situation, and are extremely sensitive and delicate, the sufficiency of these arrangements for their protection is shown by the rarity of serious injuries to them. Many a person gets "a black eye," but that is on the outside only. How seldom, comparatively, does any one have an eye "put out" by a blow?

HEARING.

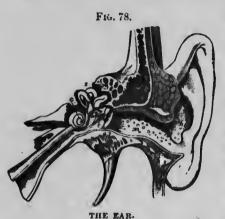
If a clock should be placed under an air-tight "receiver," or any kind of tight cover, and the air should then be all drawn out of this by means of an air-pump, we would probably hear it tick and strike, because the sound would be carried by the base upon which it stood. But if it, or a bell, be lung by a slender cord in a receiver emptied of air, no sound made by it will reach our ears; because there is no air to vibrate; and all ordinary sounds are brought as air-waves to our ears. Yet, as just said, or implied, solid bodies also may vibrate and give out or carry sounds. Put your ear down on a piano, or a musical box, while it is playing, and you will find the sound to be much louder than when listening apart from it.

Sound goes through liquids also. Its rate of movement through the air is a little over eleven hundred feet in a second; through water, about four thousand feet in the same time; through solids, still faster, but not the same in all. Dense bodies, such as iron and other metals, convey it faster than wood; and a loose, porous body, like sponge, with much less rapidity.

Light, as was said on a previous page, travels very much faster; about 190,000 miles in a second. Why does thunder often follow so long after the lightning flash? Because the clouds, whose electrical discharge we see and hear, are at a considerable distance; and the flash is seen with the speed of the progress of light-waves, while the thunder-peal reaches our ears by the slower sound-wave movement. If the clouds be right overhead, the lightning and thunder will come both at once. Watch the entting down of a tree a few hundred yards off; you will see the axe fall some moments before the sound of its blow is heard; and the same with the firing of a gun at a distance; you see the flash before you hear the report.

The highest notes of sound we can hear are made by 38,000 vibrations in a second; the lowest, by twenty-seven or twenty-eight vibrations (waves, impulses) in a second. Probably insects, and some other animals, may perceive (either by hearing or by very delicate touch) wave-movements yet more rapid.

We have already, under Anatomy, briefly described the outer.



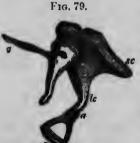
b, Part of the outer Ear. m, Passage called External Meatus. d, Drum-membrane. l, Interior of Drum, called Tympanum. e, Eustachian tube. s,

middle, and internal car. The outer is the cartilaginous. flexible portion; which, in the dog, horse, and some other animals, can be turned about in several directions. We have, instead, fixed ears (with undeveloped car-moving muscles). but so formed that sounds from all quarters are poured together into the meatus, as the passage is called. The hairs and wax in that entrance to the ear seem to be intended to keep out insects; which very seldom find their way in.

At the bottom of the meatus is the drum-membrane

(membrana tympani). Beyoud it is the drum or tympanum; hollow, but containing a chain of very small bones (magnified in Fig. 79), reaching from the membrana tympani at its outside to the membrane of the vestibule of the internal ear.

The handle of the hammer-bone (malleus, g in Fig. 79) is fastened



Semi-circular Canals, c. Cochlea,

LITTLE BONES OF THE EAR. 78).

to the membrana tympani; then comes the anvil (incus, sc, lc, same figure), the little round bone (orbiculare, a) and the stirrup (stapes, s) which is attached to the membrane of the vestibule of the inner ear. Three very small nunscles tighten or loosen these together.

The drum of the ear is air-tight only on its outside; it communicates with the back of the throat by a channel in the temporal bone called the Eustachian tube (c, Fig. 78). By this, air can enter it, to balance the air pressing or beating upon the outer

membrane of the drum through the meatus of the external ear. This

is important. When a powder-mill explodes, a house near it, with all its windows and doors shut, will have all of the windows shattered; one with several of them open, will at least suffer less damage. So, during battles, gunners firing off big cannon open their mouths at the time

of a discharge, so as to let plenty of air in by the Eustachian tube to the middle ear. If this tube is awillen or choked with phlegm from a cold, the hearing is for the time impaired

Three parts of the interna, ear (making together the labyrinth) are, the vestibule, semi-circular canals, and cochlea. At the vestibule ends the chain of little ear bones; the stirrup fitting by its foot into an oval window in the bony wall. Another round wiudow, covered by membrane, opens from the snail-shell-like cochlea into the tympauum or middle ear. In the vestibule are LABYRINTH OF THE INTERNAL some tiny gravel-stones (otoliths) whose use is doubtful. The vestibule, the cochlea, and the semi-circular canals are all filled lar Canals. c, Cochlea. a, Walt of with a liquid; and in this liquid are spread



n, Auditory Nerve. s, Semi-circuthe Cochlea. b, Spiral staircase.

out the fine ends of the branches of the nerve of hearing (anditory nerve).

The cochlea is most remarkable for its double spiral staircase.





THE COCHLEA.

Waves of sound, striking upon the outer drum-membrane, are carried probably by the chain of little bones to the vestibule, and thence to the cochlea. Each wave enters at the broad foot of the staircase, and, it may be supposed, rolls up to its top, and then down the other side, to cease at the round membrane-covered window of the cochlea, opening on

the middle ear or tympauum. Along the edge of the middle spiral of this staircase there are arranged some thousands of little rods or keys (rods of Corti, seen only by aid of a microscope,), which may respond to the different notes of sound, like the keys of a piano or organ.

The use of the semi-circular canals is not certainly known. The prevailing opinion is that they have to do with our balancing ourselves, especially in the erect posture. Animals in which they have been injured turn round and round, or over and over; and there is a disease of the labyrinth of the ear now and then met with (Menière's disease, so named from its first describer), in which the patient falls to the ground; generally inclining to one side more than the other.

We probably judge of the direction from which sounds come, partly by comparing the impressions made upon the two ears, and partly by the sense of touch, which is very delicate at the openings of the ears. Mice and bats, which are very quick of hearing, have a particularly large supply of nerve-endings in the lining of the external ear. Of the distance from which sounds reach us, we can only form an estimate from their londness and character, as learned by experience. A skilful ventriloquist, by imitating the muffling of sounds in a closed box, or their softening by distance, and at the same time favoring the delusion by his words and actions, can readily deceive us, unless we are guarded against it.

Dulness of hearing, of slight or moderate degrees, may result from irritation of the meatus of the ear, causing the formation of too much wax; or from "a cold" inducing a swelling of the drum-membrane, or of the lining of the Eustachian tube (like that which produces hoarseness in the windpipe). More serious deafness may come from disease (as scarlet fever or small-pox) partly destroying the drum-membrane, or filling the drum with matter (pus or mucus), or eating away more or less of the little bony chain in the tympanum. Total deafness comes only from paralysis (loss of sensibility) of the auditory nerve, or of that part of the base of the brain to which it goes.

We can tell whether, in any case, it is this last kind of loss of hearing or not (as it, too, may be of various degrees—in old people it is often gradual), by trying the person with a watch or music-box. If the deafness is only from any of the other causes above mentioned, a watch can be heard tick, or a music-box to play, when it is placed between or against the teeth. In total nerve-deafness this will not make it audible.

We have now given as much space as the plan of this work will allow to the study of the structure and functions of the Human Body.

As needs hardly to be said, however, the body is not all. Man is more than an animal. Not in his bodily organs, nor even in his superior brain, but in the gift of an immortal spirit, is the crown and glory of Humanity. This is brought to its normal destination only when the will, dominating over all the bodily and mental faculties, and freed from degrading imperfections, becomes assimilated, in its free choice, to the Divine Will.



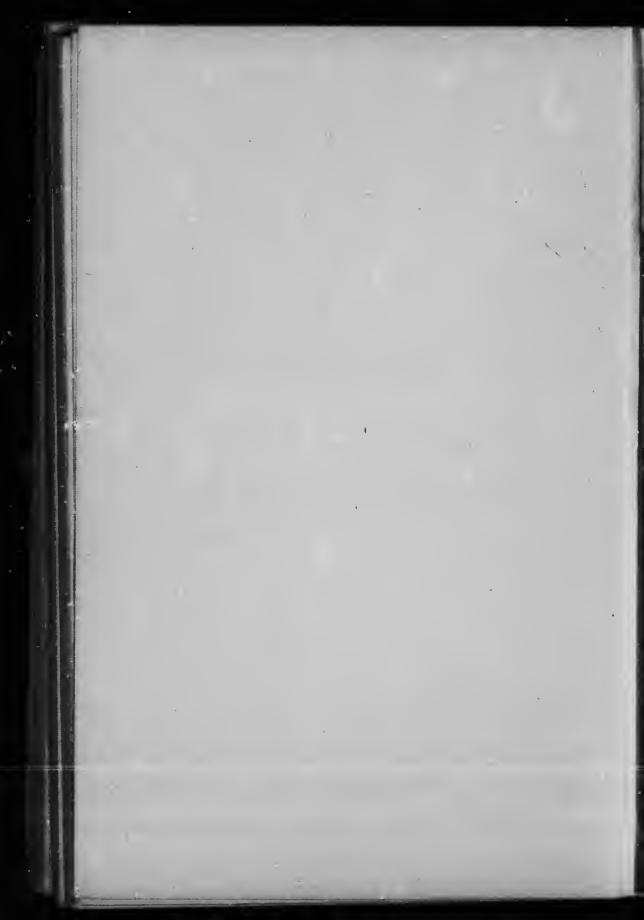
HYGIENE.

THE SCIENCE AND ART

OF

THE PRESERVATION OF HEALTH

115



HYGIENE.

UR present subject derives its name, in English, from the French word, Hygiène. This may be traced back to a word meaning healthy, in the Greek. Hygica, the ancient goddess of health, was the daughter (some say the wife) of Æsculapius, the god of Medicine.

From the earliest days, men must have observed, more or less exactly, the favorable or unfavorable influences of the circumstances under which they lived. As an art, or practical study, in its rude beginnings, Hygiene must have preceded Medicine, and even Surgery. The early temples of Æsculapius, before Hippocrates, were sanitaria rather than medical schools. Hygiea was named, with other deities, in the oath which every physician was required to take as one of the Asclepiadæ: "By Apollo the physician, by Æsculapins, by Hygiea, Panacea, and all

the gods and goddesses."

Hippocrates wrote the first hygienic treatise now extant-on Airs, Waters, and Places. He therein pointed out the effects of climates and localities, not only upon health, but also upon the characters of races of men; anticipating, at so early a date (400 B.C.), the conclusions arrived at in recent times by Montesquieu, Michelet, Guyot, and Buckle. Positive sanitary measures were probably first instituted by Acron of Crotona, of the school of Pythagoras, who is said to have dissipated the cause of a plague at Athens by means of fires burned in the streets. Empedocles afterwards found it possible to destroy or impede the action of malaria; in one instance by draining a swamp, and in another by building a high wall to protect an exposed town. Phidias provided a water-supply for Athens by means of a tunnel under Mount Athes, said to have been eighteen feet in diameter. Herodicus was so famous for his application of gymnastics to the improvement of health that Plato accused him of doing an ill service to the state by keeping alive people who ought to die, because, being valetudinarians, they cost more than they were worth to the community. The Spartans reversed this, in their custom of exposing young children to the elements, whereby

only those survived and grew up who were possessed of natural hardihood.

Aucient Rome showed an appreciation of sanitary art by extensive drainage of the base of the hills on which the city was built; by the immense sewer, Cloaca Maxima, of which a part is left, the oldest ruin in Europe, thirteen feet in diameter at the outlet; by the aqueducts; by suburban interments, whose number is still attested all along the Appian Way; and by the appointment of officers (cediles) whose duty it was to inspect and regulate the construction, with a view to salubrity and safety, of all private and public buildings. In Egypt, the great pyramid of Cheops has an arrangement showing an early recognition of the principles of ventilation, applied to its interior chambers. Embalming the bodies of the dead, not only of men but of animals, however it may have been associated with religious ideas, is so well adapted to the prevention of insulubrity in a populous land in a tropical climate as to make it appear likely that it sprang, in part at least, from the sanitary sagacity of the priesthood. Since a resemblance is traceable in many particulars between the Mosaic ceremonial law and the usages of the ancient Egyptians, it is likely that some measures for the preservation of health, prescribed in the Levitical code, corresponded with usages known to the Israelites while in the land of bondage. Moses, however, must have much extended the provisions required for the care of the health of his people. His regulations concerning food, ablutions, and other purifications, and segregation of persons having certain diseases, were precise and imperative.

All the most enlightened nations of antiquity held physical culture in high estimation. Socrates, the philosopher, was of powerful bodily frame. Plato also was a superior athlete, and so were Pericles and Alcibiades. It is not altogether improbable that the intellectual supremacy of the Greeks was in part owing to their sedulous care of the whole organization, brain and body together. In most of the cities of ancient Greece, public baths existed for the poor as well as the rich. Rome also had, at one period, hundreds of private and public baths; some of which, as those of Caracalla, were palatial in grandeur. Although at first designed for health, these afterwards degenerated into means for effeminate luxury; as did the gymnasia, at last, into scenes of gladiatorial combats of men and beasts.

In the School of Salernum, in Italy, the oldest medical school of Enrope, founded in the ninth century, instruction was given upon the prevention of diseases and the preservation of health. That institution gave forth, in the twelfth century, a very remarkable treatise, the Regimen Sanitatis Salernitanum, a poem on the maintenance of health.

in rhyming Latin verses. Many of the precepts in this "Code of Salernum" are sound and good; some of them have passed into almost proverbial modern use. The institution of quarantine, in the fourteenth century, in Italy, to exclude the plague, was an event in the history of sanitary progress. From Florence this method of restriction of intercourse with infected places spread, first to Venice and Sardinia, and afterwards throughout Europe.*

Jenner's introduction of vaccination, for the prevention of small-pox, is perhaps the greatest of all the triumphs of "preventive medicine," as sanitary science is sometimes, and in this case at least not unfitly, called. Vaccination dates from 1798. The other benefits conferred upon man tind through the advance of knowledge in regard to the causes of disease, and the conditions necessary for health, especially in large communities, have been obvious, great, and numerous.

In the time of the great medical author, Sydenham (1624-1687), the largest part of the mortality of London was produced by four diseases, -plague, small-pox, scurvy, and dysentery. Of these, the first has long ago disappeared from Great Britain and the continent of Europe; the second has been, by prevention, shorn of most of its destructive power; the third is now seldom known except in places remote from eivilized life; and the fourth is at least very much less mortal than formerly, especially in cities. Macanlay, in his History of England, estimated that the difference between London in the seventeenth, and the same city in the nineteenth, century is as great in regard to mortality as between that of the time of prevalence of epidemic cholera and that of ordinary years. In Constantinople, in 543 A.D., 10,000 people died daily during one season of plague alone; in 1665, 68,000 died of that disease in the city of London. In 1685, not a siekly year, the deaths in London were one in twenty of the inhabitants; now they average annually about one in forty. In France, in 1772, the annual proportion of deaths was one in twenty-five; in 1846, one in fortyfive. The mean duration of life in France, in 1806, was 281 years; now, 341 years. At Geneva, the mean probability of life in the six-

The first occasional prohibitions of maritime intercourse on account of the plague were made at Florence in 1348. Viscount Barnabo enacted the first peremptory regulations at Venice, 1374. The earliest legal code of quarantine was put in force at Venice, 1448; the first lazaretto was established in Sardinia, 1453. A Board of Health was organized in Venice, 1485. Bills of health for vessels were first made out in 1527; they became general at European ports about 1665. Regular quarantine was not enforced in England before 1710. William Penn, as early as 1700, Instituted a quarantine law at Philadelphia. The term "quarantine" is derived from the Italian quaranta, forty; this number of days of detention being apparently derived from the time of purification prescribed in certain cases under the ancient Levitical law.

teenth century was about twenty-one years; in the seventeenth century, twenty-five to twenty-six years; in the nineteenth, about forty years.

Life may be safely said to have been, on the average, in civilized countries, prolonged twenty-five per cent, during the last fifty years. While improvements in medical and surgical practice have, no doubt, had their share in effecting such a result, the greater part of this very important change may be ascribed to increased knowledge and appreciation of the laws of health. Yet much remains to be done before the ideal of perfect sanitation is attained. Yellow fever and cholera are still at times the deadly scourges of eities and of some other places; malarial fevers render a few localities almost uninhabitable; and the mortality of towns, especially amongst young children, continues to be far in excess of what it ought to be were the conditions of health properly maintained. The best hope of the sanitarian and philanthropist is to be derived from the increasing interest in all that belongs to health, now prevailing everywhere amongst educated men and women, both in Europe and in America. No subject has, of late years, advanced more rapidly in public interest, or in the actual development of valuable practical knowledge concerning it.

Hygiene has its foundations in *Physiology* and *Sanitary experience*. What may be expected to favor the health of the body is known by the study of the action of its different organs; and such expectations are confirmed or corrected by observation of what really happens with individuals and in communities under various circumstances.

Onr best way of considering Hygiene will be to follow very nearly a physiological order, taking up the different functions or operations going on in the body, and noticing what is good and what is bad for their proper performance, and thus for the maintenance of the health of the whole system. Certain subjects incidental to these will receive attention on our way.

HEALTHY BREATHING.

We have learned, in our Physlology, how, and for what end, breathing goes on, so long as life continues. Little thought is needed, therefore, for every one to see that for good breathing there must be sound lungs and alr-tubes, and strength in the muscles of the chest, as well as pure air.

Consumption of the lungs interferes with breathing, because one lung is, or both are, greatly altered by the disease affecting them. Pneumonia is attended by short breathing for the same kind of reason, although the state of the lung or lungs is different, being that of active inflammation. Croup has for its worst symptom obstruction to the breathing, whose seat is high up in the windpipe, in the larynx or tracken. (See Anatomy.)

Strength in the muscles used in breathing is of course necessary. It seldom gives out until everything else in the body, including the heart, is exhausted. But we find the limit to what these muscles can do, even in health, when, in running, we "get out of breath." And sometimes, no doubt, in a very feeble person, this may, under exertion, cause death. For example, I remember the case of a patient prostrated by typhoid fever, who, while for a few moments unwatched, rose and walked into another room. He there fell dead. There is need of great care with such patients, to save the little strength they have, until the attack of disease is over.

Our breathing nuscles can be strengthened by exercise. All active muscular movements of any part of the body, but especially brisk walking or running, quicken the action of the heart; and, as the blood then goes more rapidly through the lungs, it needs to be, and is, aired, accordingly, by quicker breathing.

At great heights, as in climbing mountains or going up in a balloon, the thinness of the air makes it harder to breathe. On lofty mountains, men and horses pant and are worn out with moderate exertion. Those, however, who live for years at such heights, become used to it, and their chests grow larger than those of lowlanders. This is said to be the case with the people of the highlands of Patagonia, in South America.

Using the voice a great deal (as in speaking or singing) in early life, promotes the growth of the lungs and the strength of the breathing muscles. Those who belong to consumptive families should, while young, be accustomed to active out-of-door habits; and for them, reading or speaking aloud or singing (vocal gymnastics) will be wholesome

exercise; that is, so long as they are well. When the lungs are actually diseased, active efforts of all kinds should be avoided.

Pure air, and plenty of it, is a constant necessity for health. The application of this truth belongs in many ways to our every-day life, especially, of course, within doors. Out of doors, in some places, the atmosphere is made unwholesome by what is called malaria, which is the cause of certain fevers; or by the infection or contagion of other diseases. These require to be considered hereafter by themselves. As several other important conditions of health are closely connected with the purity of the air, we may advantageously look at these together, making our next topic the house and its aurroundings.

FOOD AND DRINK.

One of the founders of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, Thomas Say, so begrudged the time taken in enting his meals, as to wish that he were made with a window in his stomach, so that he could put in a day's supply all at once, and be done with it. But if that were so with us, probably the busy naturalist and some others would occasionally forget all about it, and let the body ran down for want of food. We are more wisely created. Hunger and thirst remind us of our needs. Naturally, we desire food about three times every day; at least twice a day we must have it, or suffer in health and strength.

Why must we take food so often? Because change is the law of life. No particle in our bodies in old age is the same as when we were born; much of our substance has altered a little even since yesterday. It is not true that all of the body is renewed once in seven years. Our bones are new grown entirely only after long periods; the cuannel of the teeth, once lost, is never formed again; while the outer covering (epithelium) of the skin is being shed in scales, like tiny leaves, all the time, and our blood is undergoing hourly, momentary changes.

We are, as is said in Genesis, made of the dust of the ground. The elements of "mother earth" are the very same as those of our bodies. These elements climb through vegetable life into a condition higher than that of the mineral kingdom, and then animals transform them into their own substances, and after a time, having used them for the purposes of their organs, throw them out again.

This is the perpetual round or cycle of nature. What do plants live on? Chiefly water, carbonic acid, and ammonia. On what do animals live? Plants. Curnivora in eating each other do the same, only indirectly, secondarily. What are the results and products, the "smoke and ashes," of animal life? Ammonia, carbonic acid, and water. So every particle rises from the earth, as drops of water ascend in the fountain; after reaching its bighest state, it soon begins to descend, and falls again "to the earth as it was,"—dust unto dust.

Every animal, then, must have food; but how various their diet! Our domestic animals instinctively show this. The ox browses and chews the cud; the dog and cat tear and bolt raw flesh; the hog is content with either kind of food. Wild animals likewise differ: the birds and beasts of prey tear their victims with teeth and claws, while deer, antelopes, and camels consume only vegetable food. Some eat the grass and herbs at their feet; the tall giraffe breaks off leaves and

twigs of trees. Ducks and geese find nourishing things in mud and water; king-fishers, pelicans, and cormorants seize and devour fish. The big, ugly hippopotamus feeds on fish by day, and at night steals ashore to consume herbage on the river banks. Some birds eat worms or flies; others grains or fruits; many both. The humming-bird lives on honey and insects, his long tongue being usable either as a sucking tube or as a pair or nippers. Bees take for food both houey and the pollen of flowers.

Certain animals, mostly small, live in or on the bodies of others; parasites. Human beings are so invaded by round worms, tape-worms, trichine, and others. But the smallest creatures do not escape such attacks. Silk-worms and flies are beset by tiny, destructive enemies. Prof. Leidy, with his microscope, has shown that parasites themselves suffer from parasites; thus making almost true the doggerel:

"Great fleas have little fleas, and these have fleas to bite 'em; And these again have lesser fleas, and so ad infinitum."

Many animals, large and small, are wood-eaters: elephants, beavers, some larvæ of beetles, the teredo (enemy of the dikes in Holland), and white ants, for examples. In tropical climates, white ants (termites) attack houses in such numbers as to eat out all the interior of posts and beams, leaving them ready to fall with slight shocks. Even camphor scarcely protects our garments and carpets from clothes- and carpetmoths. In the sea are stone-borers (Pholades and Modiolæ), which, with their shells, can wear away solid columns. The famous temple of Serapis at Pozzuoli, in Southern Italy, bears witness to this in its pillars half submerged on the margin of the sea. One insect-grub (Sirex giganteus) has been known to gnaw leaden bullets in soldiers' cartridges; another (Cetonia) to pierce the leaden coverings of houseroofs. Blood-suckers are the mosquito and the vampire-bat; of the latter, extravagant stories are told: it does not often suck human blood. Sap-suckers upon plants and trees are the aphides (ant-cows); the birds of that common name (sap-suckers) pierce branches only in pursuit of worms or grubs.

Literally, it is true that one animal's meat may be another's poison. On the Jamestown weed of this country (Datura stramonium), whose berries sometimes poison children, goats can browse unharmed. There is no drug most deadly to men that does not furnish food for some creature: lunar caustic, oil of vitriol (once thought to destroy every organic substance), opium, strychnia; even the venom of the rattle-snake! These last poisons are fed upon at least by animalculæ, which take the leavings everywhere of the greater animal world. Infusorial

animalcules at innumerable in many waters, and they, and equally minute fungoid vegetable forms, abound often in moist air.

This great variety of food is essential to the balance of nature. Without it, no eheck would exist upon the overproportion of a few kinds of beings; the sea would be filled with fishes, the forests, denser than Brazil, would become crowded with animals, and the air clouded with



LIVING THINGS IN RIVER WATER.

Magnified about 200 diameters.—(Parkes.)

birds and insects, in a very few years of ordinary multiplication. But the struggle for existence keeps down this excess, and the *flora* and *fauna* of a warm country may support together thousands of species. Oak trees alone feed 200 kinds of caterpillars; nettles, 50 different sorts of insects; pine trees, 400 species. In Sweden, one kind of yellow

fly devoured in a single year 100,000 tons of barley; another fly in France, 3,000,000 of olives. Insects (among them the *phylloxera* of the grape-vines) are computed to destroy in France 100,000,000 of dollars' worth every year. In our Western country, the Rocky Mountain grasshoppers, during some years, do nearly or quite as much harm.

But this immense need of food for animals, so much greater than that of plants (even of the largest trees), needs to be farther explained. It is not only because we waste, as fire does in burning, and the tree in growing and shedding its leaves, but also because we work and go, that we must have so much nutriment, and must have it often. We are, so to speak, living locomotives. Action, as well as growth and wasting or decay, must be supplied. And this action is of two sorts—within and without us. Every heart-beat uses energy; digestion is a kind of work; so is secretion, and, of course, respiration. Foot-tons are the measure in which we estimate the daily work done; for example, in the circulation of the blood by the heart and blood-vessels. What fuel must be necessary for all this,—besides all that our muscles do in labor or exercise of every kind!

A young bird has been known to eat once and a half its own weight of food in a day; a robin, 800 flies in an hour. A pair of swallows will carry 200 or 300 worms and caterpillars daily to their young ones in the nest. What becomes of all this? Not all is appropriated in growth, for their increase in weight will not account for it. A good deal must be consumed as *fuel*, for getting up energy; very much as coal or wood is burned, under an engine-boiler, to get up steam.

When the fuel has been all used up, more must be provided, or the animal dies. A mole, kept without food for twelve hours, will be starved to death. A cat (once to my knowledge) may starve in a week; a wild-cat, in twenty days; a dog, in thirty-six days. An eagle will survive without food for five weeks. The boa constrictor of South America, after swallowing an enormous meal, perhaps an animal as large as himself, lies still, digesting it for a month or more. A fat hog has lived 160 days without food. The scorpion can fast three months, the spider a year, the sacred Egyptian beetle (scarabæus) for three years!

Man cannot compete with these slow livers in long abstinence. On the average, nine or ten days without food will end a human life. After the wreck of the steamship Arctic, a man floated nine days in the water and was picked up alive. Benjamin Lay, the eccentric "hermit of Germantown," Philadelphia, fasted three weeks and then became delirious, and was fed by his friends, saving his life. Dr. Tanner's forty days' self-starvation and survival, in 1880, made him famous. Miss "Lizzie" Bradley died at White Cloud, Kansas, in 1884, of starvation,

after a fast of fifty-three days. She had made a vow "never to eat or speak again," and kept it. Shipwrecked persons have not only hunger, but often thirst, as well as cold and fear or expectation of death, to aid in depressing vitality. This was the case with Lieutenant Greely's party, whose sad story became so familiar in the year 1884. Their scanty rations, under long suffering from terrible cold, made it not incredible that some of them might have eaten the flesh of their companious who died the soonest. Yet a reliable author, Dr. Robert Willis, tells of the master of a water-legged ship who survived twenty-eight days without any solid food, having also no drink except rain-water gathered in the palm of his hand as it trickled down the mast. Captain Hopken, of the brig Shelehof, in 1871, was taken alive from the wreck of his vessel, October 19, having been there since its disablement, July 3, and the greater part of that time without food. He had, before the wreck, weighed 235 pounds; when taken off, 120 pounds. All on board but himself had died some time before he was found and rescued.

Questions about the hygiene of food are these: how should we eat, how often, how much, and what? That is to say, we inquire into the manner of taking food, the frequency of meals, their quantity, and their nature or quality.

As to the manner of eating, the precepts are simple, but not without importance. We should eat slowly, cheerfully, and, if possible, in good company; and we ought to rest awhile, in mind and body, before and after meals. Slowly, in order to chew well what is taken; dividing all meat and other solids up, so that the chemical action of the digestive fluids may be complete, and mixing the saliva with everything, especially with the starchy food.

Hurrying our meals promotes dyspepsia (very common in America from this cause), and, probably, early decay of the teeth. Some business men snatch half an hour or less from their mid-day work to bolt something, or else content themselves with General Scott's "hasty plate of soup." This is very bad. Merchants, as well as day-laborers, should have an hour at least free for a noon meal. "After dinner, sit awhile; after breakfast, read awhile; after supper, walk a mile." This sensible maxim refers to the need of the completest rest after the heaviest meal. Even reading, unless it be only a newspaper, is not beneficial immediately after dinner. The habit some college men have of taking a book for study to the table is, hygienically, a vicious one. After a rather light meal, as breakfast, reading, at least, may come soon; and supper, which ought to be the lightest, may be followed by a moderate walk.

What is the reason for this rest at and before and after meals? Simply that digestion requires energy; it is internal work; and there is only a limited supply of energy available for work at one time in the body. It is somewhat like the fixed number of "horse-powers" furnished by an engine in a building, to be distributed for different operations; or the water-supply of houses according to our system in Philadelphia. When the steam or water is being used in one story or room, there is less or none obtainable in other parts of the building at the same time. All who ride or drive horses know, likewise, that it will not do to drive an animal hard immediately after full feeding. The same principle applies with them as with ourselves.

Stress of mind, auxiety, or disturbance of feeling, will often interfere with digestion.

"Read o'er this, and this; and then To dinner, with what appetite you can."

Hence cheerfulness and sociability beloug, so to speak, with the dinner-table furniture. Mirth is better, at dinner-time, than metaphysics; "laughter, holding both his sides," more wholesome there than all the wisdom of the Egyptians. Mallock was wrong, in his "New Republie," in making learned men and women discuss difficult problems of life at the table. It was like giving them stones for bread; they must have goue away dyspeptics, and so have thought life hardly worth living.

To the question, how often we should eat, there is no absolute or universal answer. At least twice a day, it may be said with entire safety. Many people, in France, take (besides a cup of coffee on rising) but two meals—breakfast and dinner. Most English people are accustomed to four repasts—breakfast, lunch, dinner, and supper. I have tried both ways while travelling, and found no difference in comfort, health, or strength; the more meals, the less is naturally taken at each. But I believe three meals, the most common habit the world over, to be the most natural, and best on the whole.

Custom has much influence here. English people, in Edward the Fourth's time (fifteenth century), ate dinner at about ten o'clock in the morning. Iu Queen Elizabeth's day (sixteenth century) the honr was between eleven and twelve o'clock. Cromwell brought it down to one o'clock. Charles II. imported French usages into England; among them, lateness of hours. Addison dined at two; and Pope, the poet, complained of being invited out to a four o'clock dinner. Another century made it common, as now, for it to be later still. Germans have

the dinner-hour mostly between one and four o'clock. In this country there is every variety of hours, with an increasing tendency towards lateness, at least in the cities.

People say that it is reasonable to put off the chief meal of the day until the work of the day is done. That is so, if the dinner is to be "the event" of the day—a two hours' feast, after which no oue is good for much. This was common in the old days, such as Burns wrote of, when

"Who first beneath the table falls, He shall be king among us three."

When great statesmen and nuthors (not to say preachers) were, as to their wine, one-bottle or two-bottle men, an hour near bed-time was undoubtedly the best for dinner. But all this is changing; and gluttony, as well as inebriety, has almost ceased to be a virtue. In the uext generation both will probably be called vices.

If we ask, then, what are the best hours for most people, nature and experience furnish a reply. A meal is digested in from three to four or five hours, therefore the interval between meals ought not to be less than that time. Few can comfortably take at once enough food to last well over six or seven hours, at least when they are doing work, bodily or mental. Hence we can name the limits: not less than four nor more than seven hours between meals. Best of all, I believe, are the old rural ways: breakfast, an hour, more or less, after rising—say between $6\frac{1}{2}$ and 8 o'clock; dinner within an hour or so of noon—12 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ o'clock; supper, early in the evening—6 to 7 o'clock.

How does it happen that Euglish people often take a very solid (though not very bulky) supper, as a regular thing, just before going to bed? Because, dining late in the afternoon, and no tea following, the time elapsing before they retire allows the meal and its effects to disappear, especially if they sit up late. Then they are ready for some food, which goes on to be digested during sleep. Late and heavy suppers, of indigestible superfluities, taken not for hunger but for gorging self-indulgence, are very apt to disagree. Nightmare, "biliousness," sick-headache, and dyspepsia naturally attend upon them.

We are thus brought to recognize a principle in the hygiene of diet, uamely, that hunger is the signal for the taking of food; and it may be minded with advantage, as a rule. Some people almost never feel hungry, even when long fasting. They, however, feel empty and weak (more or less) when their "blood-fuel" runs low; and such sensations mean with them what hunger means with others.

Ought we to eat anything, then, between meals? If the time is very long, yes; if not, generally, no. But, if hungry or exhausted, eat,

between meals, a little. A crumb or a drop in time will do better than nine left late. Feeble persons, especially, ought to regard this as a rule, never to go very long without food. I have known attacks of sick headache, neuralgia, and even convulsions, to be brought on by the delay of meals; and, when threatening, to be prevented by the timely administration of food.

One who has to sit up at night with a sick person, or on any other duty, should have some extra food to take during the night. A little may do; but that little will make much difference in the fatigue of long watching.

About the diet of the sick, more will be said later in this book. Just now, we may remark that it is a subject much better understood now than formerly,—even half a century ago. Once "low diet" was very low, and was kept up long through illness. Now we know that disease weakens the body. There is a time at the beginning of a sickness when a person, before strong, may abstain from food with advantage; but feeble persons cannot bear even this. We waste during illness; and although appetite is absent, and the stomach cannot digest ordinary solid meals, yet the body must be supplied. This is done by giving small quantities of strong liquid food often. Milk and beef-tea are thus advised; during some cases of typhoid fever, for example, every hour or two a tablespoonful or two at a time, day and night.

We have now seen the reasons for our need of "daily bread." How much food is required every day? A grown person, on the average, during health, will consume two pounds and a half of solids,—of which at least two-thirds may be vegetable food,—and about two and a half pints of water, including tea, coffee, or other beverages.

A good supply will be three-quarters of a pound of meat (counting the lean only), a pound and a half of bread or other vegetable material, and a quarter of a pound of butter or other fat.

Children have need of quite as much in proportion to their size as working adults. Their growth requires new substance, and their active play takes the place of work in consuming "fuel-food."

An infant, six months old, will take comfortably from two and a half to three and a half pints of milk in twenty-four hours. Solid food should not be given to babies until they have some teeth with which to chew it.

Apart from starvation, it is interesting to know the least amount any one can live on. An Italian gentleman, Louis Cornaro, when about eighty years old, set himself to eat only twelve ounces of solid food, and

wash it down with fourteen ounces of light wine, every day. He lived to be a hundred years old. Most probably his constitution was remarkable, and he lived a quiet old gentlemanly life, with nothing to wear him out. Under the pressure of necessity, Captain Parry, the traveller, with his men, lived for some time on rations of twenty ounces each of solid daily food. Nobody is likely to live long on less than this, or, at all events, on less than Cornaro's minimum.

Maximum amounts we read of in the Arctic regions. Big fires, furs, and much food are needed there to keep out the cold. Warmth of the body is sustained by increase, especially, of fatty food. Seal's, walrus', bear's fat, the Eskimos consume freely. One of them is said to have eaten twenty pounds of fat meat in a day! An Eskimo boy is told of who devoured in one day ten pounds of meat and fat, besides a pound of tallow candles thrown in for variety. Under the disease called bulimia, with a morbid appetite, yet greater quantities have been taken; but instances of this are rare.

Must we weigh or measure our food to get its right amount? No. Our appetite is, by nature, proportioned to our needs. When hunger is satisfied, it is time to stop eating. Not that we should eat as much as we can with enjoyment or comfort. Stop while you could still take more, but feel that you have had enough.

We should never feel our stomachs, when in health; one ought not to know, except by studying anatomy, that he has a stomach. But while, like other organs inside of the body, the sound stomach has no sense of touch, no feeling, it soon becomes sensitive when not well treated. When worried by having more put into it than it is prepared for, it suffers, and, so to speak, complains. If there is a decided internal feeling after a meal, it shows that something is wrong. Either we have caten too much, or too fast, or have been worried at it, or were dyspeptic at the time. Dyspepsia is habitual indigestion. Errors of diet are its most common causes.

We cannot, to-day, anticipate to-morrow's dinner; nor, even, eat at breakfast (without injury) enough to last the whole day. It is worth while to take much pains to avoid dyspepsia; for it is almost a kind of "horrors." Children very seldom eat too much of simple, wholesome food. When they are pampered with goodies, as sugar-plums, candies, and cakes, they often do hurt themselves by large excess.

What shall we eat? Nature here furnishes our common answer; science simply interprets and explains nature. There are certain clear facts about all articles of food. First, they must contain some of the

elements of the body. These elements are Carbon, Hydrogen, Oxygen, Nitrogen, Sulphur, Phosphorus, Iron, Calcium (the metal of lime), Potassium, Sodium, Chlorine, Fluorine, Silicon; occasionally, Manganese, Magnesium, and one or two others. In our Physiology, we have seen that the most important of these are Carbon, Hydrogen, Oxygen, and Nitrogen; but a certain amount of Sulphur, Phosphorus, Iron, and Calcium is indispensable; and the body needs also, from time to time, a supply, not large, of all the rest. Carbon, Hydrogen, and Oxygen are in all the tissues, Nitrogen in all except fat, Sulphur is in the bile, Phosphorus in brain and bones, Calcium in bones and teeth, Iron in the blood-corpuscles, Potassium and Sodium in the blood and other animal fluids, Fluorine in tooth-enamel and brain-substance, Silicon in the hair. Here is quite a wide range; and most of our usual articles of food contain several of these elements together.

Secondly, our food must be (except water and salt) organic, not mineral; that is, of vegetable or animal origin. Plants live on mineral food (as has been before said); animals, on plants or on each other. Lime is always obtainable from bones; but pure lime will not answer as food for us. Birds can peck a little of it, as it helps to make their shells. Infants sometimes profit by having limewater put with their milk; but that is rather medicine than food. We do not want to put lime in substance upon our tables. It is furnished combined with other things, in various articles of food, each giving a little; meat, bread, milk, vegetables, fruit; all organic.

Plants, under the sunlight, have a marvellous power (which we have not) of working up mineral matters from the soil and air into the organic state; animals take this ready-made "life-stuff," and modify it as their own organs and uses require. Literally, then, as well as figuratively, "all flesh is grass."

There would seem to be an exception to this, in the strange food of the dirt-caters. Such people exist among the Indiaus of California and South America, and in Finland and other parts of Northern Europe. "Mountain meal" is a name given to earth, of which cart-loads are used by Lapps and Finns in times of scarcity. Ottomakas in South America are said by travellers to live sometimes for months upon earthfood. They then become thin, weak, and pot-bellied. There is a fascination in this habit, a morbid eraving, which grows, like the taste for opium, tobacco, or alcohol.

But the explanation of the undoubted fact that earth can take, in part, the place of food, is, that it contains some organic matter. Retzius, of Sweden, proved this, with the microscope, in "mountain meal." All mould has in it remains of dead animals and plants, not yet quite

mineralized; and, also, some living germs, at least, of plants and animals of low type. These are the food part of earth; and very poor food it is, at the best.

Thirdly, what we eat must be capable of being crushed or broken up; mechanically divided and reduced. Anthracite coal is nearly pure carbon; and carbon is an ingredient in all our food: but coal will not do in our diet, even though of "chestnut" size.

Fourthly, it must be soluble in some of the digestive fluids. Because it is not so, charcoal, although pure carbon, is sometimes a good medicine, but never an article of food. Other examples might be easily brought, if needful.

Fifthly, it must, of course, be not poisonous. We have no occasion to dwell on this point. Along with poisons may be named parasites; such as trichine (spiral thread-worms), tape-worms, and others. We avoid these, by eating only well-cooked meat and by drinking only pure water.

Lastly, food must be not offensive to taste or smell. Some exception must be admitted to this in times of shipwreck or famine. Men will eat anything rather than starve to death. Dreadful (and sometimes true) stories are told of those who, after shipwreck, have drawn lots to determine which of a boat's crew should be made food for the rest; and in besieged cities equally horrible things have happened. These are exceptions to all rules.

CARE OF THE SKIN.

More than one use belongs to the "tegument" which covers the whole of our bodies. Some animals have a natural wrapping which is only protective: as the shell of the oyster, snail, nautilus, or tortoise; or the armor-plates of the armadillo; or the bony mail of the sturgeon. Almost as little endowed with feeling is the hide of the hippopotamus, rhinoceros, or elephant; and the fur of the seal, beaver, ermine, sable, and other animals, appears to be of use chiefly in kcoping out the cold. Birds' feathers are spread out on their wings for flight; while their colors, we need not doubt, may be designed specially for the purpose of beauty.

Man's skin is, first, protective, I elicate as it is, its removal from any part shows, by the suffering produced, the importance of this service.

Secondly, it is sensitive. By touch, we learn much of the things around us, not only by our hauds, but all over the body. Thus we are warned of danger when close at hand, and by experience come to avoid things which are injurious.

Thirdly, the skin secretes and excretes. These words do not mean exactly the same thing. Secretion in physiology is the separation of any material from the blood by a gland or "folliele." The latter (folliele) is a very small folding of a membrane, into which a little mucus or other fluid oozes by secretion. A gland is a collection of "cells," which take from the blood a material peculiar in each case: the salivary glands in the mouth secrete saliva; the liver, bile; the kirlneys, urine; etc. The skin has two sorts of glands.

One kind, most numerous (on some parts of the body over 2000 to a square inch) are the sweat-glands, secreting persuration. The others are hair-grease glands, called "sebaceous;" they are most abundant near the hairs (see Anatomy). The latter keep the hair and skin supple and smooth. The perspiration prevents the skin from growing dry and harsh; but also, by evaporation, it cools the body when exposed to high heat; and lastly, it is excretory. That is, waste matter of the bloo' is thrown off by it, including some carbonic-acid gas and certain salts, which (although less concentrated) are not unlike thos resent in the excretion of the kidneys.

Because of the sensitiveness of the skin, an extensive injury to it, such as a large burn or scald, causes a great shock to the nervous system. Thus a bad burn may kill. But, buildes this, the excretory action of

the skin is so important, that if it is suppressed over a large part of the body at once, the blood becomes poisoned by the waste (effete) matter retained, and this endangers life, or at least health.

Frogs breathe out more carbonic acid by their skins than we do; enough, it is said, to keep them alive for some time when air is not allowed to enter their lungs. Moreover, if they are closely covered all over with something which air cannot penetrate, they will die, suffocated (in a sense); their lungs not airing their blood fast enough.

A gum-elastic suit, fitted tight to the whole of a man's body, and kept there all day, would probably cause his death by suppression of perspiration. India-rubber is altogether unsuitable for use as a covering next to the skin, and even when farther off, as in rubber boots or shoes, it should be worn only while needed to keep out water, and then removed.

The subject of most interest connected with the Hygiene of the Skin is Bathing.

BATHING.

Almost all ancient nations made ablutions a part of their religion. Cleansing the body with water is a natural symbol of purification of the soul. For this reason, and because of the refreshment it gives in hot climates, as well as for eleanliness, bathing was common among the early Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans. "Divers washings" made a part of the Mosaic ritual of the Israelites; and they were continued to some extent by the Mohammedans. In ancient Rome there were at one time over 600 public baths. Some at these were very extensive; as those of Caracalla, whose ruins yet exist. In the Middle Ages, bathing was largely practical in Europe as a preventive of leprosy. Michelet asserts, however, that for centuries Europeans neglected bathing altogether.

Water-baths affect the body chiefly according to their temperature. They may be divided as follows:

Cold					32°-70°	Fahr.
Cool	•		ì		70°-85°	44
Tepid	•	•			85°-90°	"
Warm					900-960	66
Hot.					96°100°	46

Besides these, there are baths of

Vapor	•		•	•	100°-120°.
Hot air		•	•		130°-250°.

Of the cold or cool bath, the direct effect is sedative or depressing to the system. If one remains long in the water, this is its whole influence. But if soon out of it, in a tolerably warm place, a reaction occurs, in which a glow of warmth is felt. On a careful trial with a thermometer, I found, in one case, that there was a real rise of temperature of at least one degree, at the surface of the body.

Ordinarily it is this reaction after the cold bath that does good. Therefore one should not stay in it long at a time; the colder the water, the shorter the time of immersion. Some persons, moreover, have little or no reaction, and for these the cold bath is not suitable. The shower-bath answers for some who cannot derive benefit from the plunge-bath; the shock promotes reaction. Infants should not be bathed in cold water. At first, for them, it should be 90° at least.

By degrees, in the summer time, it may be lowered, watching the effects, to 85°, or, with some, 80° or 75°.

Tepid baths are always safe for adults and youth at least. When long continued, tepid water relaxes and softens the skin, producing the appearance seen on washerwomen's fingers.

Warm baths are decidedly relaxing. They are not beneficial to persons in health, but are often of valuable service in the treatment of disease.

Hot baths excite the circulation of the blood, quickening the pulse and flushing the countenance. This is not good for any one in health. In certain states of the system, depressed in vitality, or suffering with painful joints, etc., hot bathing sometimes does much good.

Vapor baths are of use only in some states of disease. It is pos-Fig. 169. sible for a steam-bath to be so hot as to be

dangerous to life; the use of such a remedy requires judgment, skill, and cure.

Hot-air buths, sometimes called Rus-



A SIMPLE SHOWER-BATH.



HIP BATH.

sian baths, must be always taken with dry air, so as to allow of free perspiration and evaporation from the body. This so mitigates the effect of heat that many people can bear an air-bath above 200° without inconvenience. Still, for persons in health, 130° to 150° will always be safer and better. Its special benefit is the 'horong's change of surface attending it, removing more of the epidermic "scales" (starfskin) than a water-bath will, unless at a temperature too high to be borne.

The Turkish bath includes immersion successively in water-baths of different temperatures, besides a good deal of rubbing. This also must very effectually cleanse and renew the surface of the skin. Those who have tried it consider it very enjoyable and refreshing.

One should never take a bath immediately after a meal; not for less than an hour (better two or three hours) after dinner. Neither should a cold or cool bath be taken when exhausted, or when the pulse is much

hurried by violent exercise. Best times for bathing are before dinner and before going to bed at night. A shower-bath may be very well taken before breakfast.

Sea bathing differs from fresh water bathing (besides its temperature, not the same at different places), in the density of salt water, making more pressure upon the exterior of the body; the stimulating action of the salt upon the skin, and the absorption of more or less saline matter, which acts upon the bowels and kidneys of some persons.

Because of the pressure being greater, it is easier to float in sea than in fresh water. But that pressure tends to force the blood towards the head; hence the importance of the rule, always to wet the head upon entering the surf, and repeatedly afterwards, so as to keep it cool and

prevent fulness of blood in the head.

By the stimulation of the skin in sea water, it is made less chilling than fresh water at the same temperature. Still, experience (especially as observed by physicians stationed at Boulogne and other watering places) proves that a short time in the surf is much the best for health. Fifteen minutes will be long enough for the greatest advantage to people generally.

I have known a few persons to stay in the water at Atlantic City or Cape May for an hour at a time without apparent injury. Others, after half an hour, come out with blue lips and fingers; some with headache and languor; now and then one will suffer with diarrhoea. There is no doubt that fifteen or twenty minutes at a time in the surf on our shores will be long enough to do good to any one.

Not every one is benefited by sea-bathing. Very feeble, delicate persons, and those predisposed to apoplexy, should not risk it. For

these, salt-water sponging may often be quite useful.

SUMMER SURF TEMPERATURES.*

Cape May		•			70°-80°	Fahr.
Florida Coast		•		•	87°-88°	"
Charleston, S.	C.	•	•		86°-87°	66
Norfolk, Va.	•	•	•	•	81°-82°	"
Nantucket, R.	I.	•	•	•	75°-76°	66
Portland, Me.	•		•		60°-61°	"
English Coast		•	•	•	68°-72°	"
Normandy.		•	•		69°-70°	66
Baltic Sea .			•		65°-66°	"
Mediterranean	(Trie	ste)	•		85°-86°	"

The average temperature of the Atlantic, out at sea, is about 56° Fahr.; of the Gulf Stream, 65°.

Daily bathing in fresh or salt water, at such a temperature as is followed by a good reaction and a feeling of refreshment, may be commended for all. But those who have not opportunity for it in the winter-time may keep their skins in a pretty good state by frequent ablutions without whole bathing. A particularly good habit is to wash the neck, breast, and shoulders (as well as face and hands) with cold water every morning upon rising. When this is done with a moderately rough rag or towel, it is sure to produce a brisk reaction at once; one is warmed by it. Sensitiveness to cold is thus lessened, and one is thus made a great deal less liable to take cold under ordinary exposure. At a time of sickness, however, warm or tepid water should generally be used for ablutions.

Some persons are annoyed by a strong odor from the armpits, which in a few cases is perceived by others near them. This is owing to an excessive amount of exerction by the glands of the skin in those regions. To prevent or remedy it, the bowels should be kept regularly and well open; the general state of the skin needs to be made healthy by frequent bathing, as well as by change of clothing, especially the undergarments; and the armpits should be well washed, morning and night, with soap and water. An agreeably scented soap will have in this case the best effect.

THE HAIR.

Hair is more like a vegetable growth than anything else belonging to the body. There is reason to believe that it and the nails may continue to grow for a few days after death.

Each hair has a root, which is planted in the skin, with one or two sebaceous (grease) glands close by it to maintain its suppleness. When left to grow naturally, the hair will acquire (as the eyelashes do, for example) a certain length. Cutting it promotes a longer growth, which, however, still has its limits. Many women have hair reaching to their waists or hips; a few, almost or quite to their feet.

Were we all living in a warm climate (of which Man was, no doubt, originally a native), and otherwise in a state of unsophisticated nature, we should have no need of cutting the liair in either sex. But, with clothing, warmed houses, hats, caps, etc., men's and women's heads have often a poor chance of raising a licalthy crop. Like an overgrown grass-plot, the hair may become too thick, unhealthy, and threatened with dying out at the roots. As mowing is good for the grass, so then is shearing, more or less close and often, for the hair.

After severe illness, it is quite a common thing for the hair to fall out. Then it should be ent very short, or, still better, shaved from the scalp once or twice.

Should the head be washed, like other parts of the body? I believe this to be wholesome for the hair as well as for the system generally. Water alone does not easily remove the natural grease from the head. Soap should not be applied to the scalp, at least under ordinary circumstances.

Is it well to use hair-grease? Certainly not, unless the natural supply of unctuous material is deficient; and then in very small amount, and not often. If much is applied, it thickens, crusts, grows rancid, and irritates the scalp, to a great disadvantage.

A hair is a growing tube, filled with nonrishing fluid. When old age comes on, the quantity of this fluid and its quality decline; heuce the hair either grows pale and white, or withers, dies, and is not renewed. Some heads grow bald, others gray or silvery-white. An observing physician told me that all the very old people he had known have retained their hair on the top of the head, though white, to the last of their lives. This has generally, though not quite always, been the case with those whom I have known to approach or pass their ninetieth year.

If, then, anything interferes with the healthy nutrition of the scalp,

even in early life, it may suffer a premature "old age of the hair," while the rest of the body is still young, or at least not senescent. This may result from the debility caused by illness, or, as has been suggested, from irritation of the skin of the head. Heavy hats, nasty "chignons," once too fashionable, and living in hot rooms, are among the causes which may spoil the crop on the outside of the head, whatever may happen within it. Also, excessive care, or, perhaps, hard study, may bring on baldness or whiteness of the hair; by affecting the circulation of the hlood, which is intimately connected within and without the skull. Instances (though few) are authentically recorded, in which fright, or sudden grief, has been followed by the whitening of the hair in a single night, or at least within a few days.

What ought to be done for early baldness? I believe in daily washing the head quickly with cold water. Adding a little whisky and salt to the water, and following the washing with a moderate brushing, producing a glow, without the least soreness (irritation), is also likely to stimulate the circulation favorably. Many hair washes are patented. The materials mostly contained in them are annuous, cantharides, quinine, and castor-oil. These may do good, or, by excessive irritation, harm. If one wishes to try a stimulant in such a case, one of these will be as safe as any:

Take of Aromatic Spirit of Ammonia, Spirit of Rosemary, and Glycerin, each a fluidounce (two tablespoonfuls); Tincture of Cantharides (Spanish-fly), three fluidrachms (three teaspoonfuls); Rose-Water, enough to make eight fluidounces (half a pint). Mix, and use as a wash, daily.

Or, as an unguent:

Take of Balsani of Tolu, two drachms (by weight); Oil of Rosemary, twenty minims (twenty-five drops will do); Tincture of Cantharides, two fluidrachms (two teaspoonfuls); Castor-Oil, four fluidrachms (four teaspoonfuls); Lard, an onnce and a half (by weight). Mix, and rub nightly over the scalp.

Hair-dyes are easily obtainable which will make white black at will; but they are dangerous. It is next to impossible to dye the hair without wetting the scalp a good deal with the dye-stuff; and the effective agent in hair-dyes is lead. By its poisonous action, absorbed in this way, it is believed that some lives (among them that of Mademoiselle Mars, a famous actress) have been lost, and many persons have been seriously injured. The King of Sweden, some years ago, suffered a severe illness, ascribed by his physicians to the use of a "hair-restorer"; which, on examination, was found to contain a large amount of oxide

of lead. I subjoin Professor Chandler's account of his analysis of some popular preparations.*

HAIR RESTORES	s.	Gn	ring (of Lead in	1 fl. 06
Clark's Distilled Restorative .				0.11	
Chevalier's Life for the Hair .	•	•		1.02	
Circassian Hair Rejuvenator .		•	•	2.71	
Ayer's Hair Vigor	•	•	•	2.89	
Prof. Wood's Hair Restorer .	•	•	•	3.08	7.
O'Brien's Hair Restorer, America	•	•	•	3.28	1 /1
Gray's Celebrated Hair Restorative	•	•	•	3.39	
Phalon's Vitalia	•	•	•	4.69	
Ring's Vegetable Ambrosia .	•	•	•	5.00	
Mrs. S. A. Allen's World's Hair R	estore		•	5.57	
L. Knittel Indian Hair Tonique	•	•	•	6.29	
Hall's Vegetable Sicilian Hair Ren	ewer		•	7.13	
Dr. Tibbett's Physiological Hair R	egene	rator	•	7.44	4
Martha Washington Hair Restorat	ive	•	•	9.80	
Singer's Hair Restorative	•	•	•	16.39	

Lotions for complexion—no injurious metals found except "Perry's Moth and Freckle Lotion;" that had in one fluidounce Mercury in solution, 2.67 gr.; Zinc, 0.99; and the sediment a little mercury, lead, and bismuth.

Of Enamels some are innocent of poisonous metals, but

Eugénie's Favorite has in one fl. oz	108.94 g	r. lead.
	146.28	"
Phalon's Snow-white Oriental Cream has in one fl. oz.	190.99	"

As the Beard is as much a natural growth as the hair, it is remarkable that it should be common anywhere to remove it. In remote antiquity, the Egyptians shaved off their heards only as an act of mourning; at which time also the Jews sometimes tore their beards. One of the Levitical precepts is, "Thou shalt not mar the corners of thy heard." Alexander the Great, and, after him, the Romans, made their soldiers and gladiators go beardless, so as not to afford their adversaries a good hold in personal combat. Scipio Africanus, the Roman general, shaved every day. But Pliny says that all Romans, not in the ranks, were expected to wear their heards at full length after the age of

^{*} New York Metropolitan Board of Health Report, 1869, pp. 565, 566, 567.

forty-nine years. Emperors of Rome were shaved until Adrian, who wore his beard to hide blemishes upon his face. His successors followed the same fashion until Constantine, who changed it again.

In more modern times, bearded faces were usual until a Papal nuncio at the Court of France originated the style of smoothness. Louis XIII. of France and Philip V. of Spain, being naturally almost beardless, confirmed this tendency; but, besides the shorn and tonsured monks, European men have mostly preferred nature's ornament and protection to remain upon their faces. Cromwell's "roundheads," in the days of the Commonwealth in England, made a strong contrast in this respect to the dashing "cavaliers" of the royalist party.

George Fox's "Friends," in the same century, although some of them wore their hair long, shaved their faces. Among persons of refinement, in England and the United States, fifty years ago, the moustache was hardly ever worn. Clergymen never, and even lawyers or "gentlemen" seldom, then thought of it. Gradually the custom spread from France and Germany to America, and more slowly to England. Now, ministers of the gospel often are "bearded like the pard"; and, in the United States, nine men out of ten wear the moustache, whether the cheeks and chin be smooth or not.

What reason is there for shaving? None at all, except ideas of appearance. In cold climates the beard is useful to protect the throat from cold. Even the moustache, if thick, may warm the air a little before it enters the nostrils. The time required for the use of the razor every day, from nose to throat, and ear to ear, appears to be entirely wasted; unless one can do as a learned friend of mine did, acquire a language by glancing from his mirror to a book, all the time while shaving himself.

THE TEETH.

While travelling in a Nile-boat, many years ago, I was struck with the whiteness of the teeth of the native crew, who were Egyptians, Nubians, and Arabs. Yet it is not likely there was a tooth-brush among them. Was it race, climate, or food that gave them such an advantage? On the other hand, I once saw a child, in Philadelphia, but three years old, every one of whose first teeth was already decayed. This, of course, was due to a constitutional defect. But most people in this country, and, I believe, in Europe also, lose some of their teeth by decay before they are forty, and not a few part with several before they are twenty years old, and have scarcely any left by middle age.

The causes of this early decay have been much discussed. The following have been suggested:

1. Deficiency of lime in our food, which is needed to make firm tooth-bone and enamel. This is not quite impossible, although onr vegetables and meats both contain considerable lime. Probably the soil of a country affects animal growth somewhat by the quantity of lime in the water drunk, as well as in the food raised upon it. Cattle are said to be larger boned when pastured in a limestone region than when brought up where the water is all sofi; that is, containing no excess of lime salts. The tallest men in this country are the Kentuckians, and their State has a great deal of calcareous matter in its soil. Still, it does not seem probable that there is so little lime in our food and water anywhere as much to affect our teeth, especially as rickets and other bone-diseases are less common in America than in Europe.

2. Race. Very likely there is something in the constitutional tendencies of races of meu, which makes them liable to different defects and diseases. Possibly this has much to do with the difference mentioned in regard to the teeth. Negroes, brought up in this country, generally have good teeth, and keep them longer than white people, while using essentially the same water and food.

3. Excess of acid in our food has been thought by some to have an influence. But sour things are not very much eaten among us, and the vegetable acids, as vinegar and the fruit acids, also the animal lactic acid of sour milk, have but little power to dissolve the mineral matter of tooth-enamel, the hardest substance in the body. More than in any other way, acidity may act upon the teeth, when there is indigestion; some of the starch and sugar of the food undergoing the acetous fermentation, and the acid resulting finding its way to the mouth and remain-

ing there for a time. This is connected with the last cause to be mentioned, namely,

4. Eating too fast, without sufficient chewing of the food. Notoriously this is an American habit. Most people in this country are too much in a hurry about everything, and especially in eating. General Winfield Scott's "hasty plate of soup" was famously characteristic; but soup can be safely swallowed without chewing, while meat cannot. We are not furnished, like the dog and the boa constrictor, with stomachs capable of disposing of flesh in solid masses. Hence this practice makes many persons dyspeptic, and troubles them with acid eructations into the mouth.

More directly, however, imperfect chewing acts by leaving fibres of meat and vegetable substances between the teeth. There they undergo partial decay, and become nests, so to speak, for parasites, microscopically small, which make their home upon the surface and in the cracks between the teeth. Thus, by degrees, a crust is formed, which is known as the tartar. Of these parasitic growths the most abundant and important has received the name "leptothrix buccalis." Some dentists have thought "tartar" to be protective to the teeth, postponing their decay. Possibly it may so act to some extent; but much better for the duration of the enamel is a smooth surface, affording no lodgment for anything.

How, then, are we to preserve our teeth for the longest time? First, by taking care of our general health; secondly, by always chewing our food thoroughly before swallowing it; and thirdly, by cleaning the teeth effectually and often.

A rather hard brush is the best; not wide, as it need not rub the gums. It should be used at least once daily, upon rising in the morning. An excellent practice is to clean the teeth after each meal; to get rid (besides the use of the tooth-pick) of particles which may have lodged in the crevices between them.

Are tooth-powders necessary? Certainly not for children, or for any persons whose teeth are still perfectly sound and smooth. When roughness or tartar has begun to appear, a good tooth-powder may assist thorough cleansing. Instead, however, pure castile soap may answer the same purpose; touching a piece of it with the moistened brush just before using it.

A tooth-powder must not be coarse and rough, or it may wear away the enamel. A good combination is of very fine charcoal powder, castile soap, myrrh, and Peruvian bark.

Myrrh is one of the best of all preservatives of the teeth. A very convenient and useful way of employing it is to add about twenty or

thirty drops of tincture of myrrh to a quarter of a tumblerful of water, and use this mixture in cleaning the teeth and in rinsing the mouth afterwards.

When decay has begun, and tenderness is felt in an imperfect tooth, pure tincture of myrrh, applied directly to the offending part, will very often relieve the soreness and ward off trouble. It is, however, not strong enough to cure severe pain in a tooth; its value is as a preventive.

Disagreeable breath, except in those who eat onions, use tobacco, or drink strong liquor, is nearly always caused by bud teeth. A skilful dentist will make the best of these; by cleaning and filling those which are worth preserving, and removing the rest, making way for artificial substitutes. But, meanwhile, nothing is more immediately effectual in sweetening the breath than a strong mouth-wash of tincture of myrrh and water, used as just mentioned. On rising, before going into company, and before retiring to bed, the use of such a wash will mitigate the worst of breath-odors, and will remove all unpleasantness in most cases. Not many persons, after childhood, have the natural breath perfectly sweet, especially on first waking from sleep.

Toothache may be of three kinds. Least common is

1. Pure neuralgia. Face-ache, tic doulonreux, aud hemicrania are names given to this when, as is mostly the case, it extends all over one

side of the face, or face and head.

2. More frequent is inflammation of the jaw. This may come from a "cold," when all the teeth are sound. But much most generally it starts in and about an imperfect tooth. A severe attack is attended by a great deal of pain, heat, and swelling of the side of the face affected. A large "gum-boil" is very apt to form; and when this breaks of itself or is opened, the discharge of matter is followed by relief. In rare instances the gathering opens outside on the cheek, sometimes leaving an ugly scar. The longest continued attacks are those in which matter collects at the roots of one or more of the teeth (seldom more than one); entire ease not being obtained until pulling the tooth lets the matter out.

3. Much most common is the aching of a decayed tooth with an exposed and irritated pulp. For this, creasote, carefully applied, is a seldom-failing remedy. Take a knitting-or darning-needle, wrap one end with a little bit of cotton, and dip this in a small bottle of pure creasote. Then, with a looking-glass (if the sufferer has to be the perator also) for guidance, push the moistened cotton right into the look of the aching tooth. It will give no pain, but will relieve the parasson as the creasote touches the exposed end of the nerve. A red-hot

iron wire will act in the same way; I remember seeing my father (who was a physician) cauterize his own hollow teeth with this. But, as creasote burns like a caustic when it touches the gums or lips, this should be avoided as far as possible; and a glass of cold water should be near to rinse the mouth with, if some should flow from the cotton and burn the neighboring parts.

Other local remedies for toothache which is caused by irritation of a hollow tooth, are laudanum, tobacco-smoke, pure whisky, chloroform, oil of peppermint, and oil of cloves. But none of these is so prompt and so certain in its action as creasote.

Some years ago, dentists discouraged the use of this remedy for toothache, upon the supposition that, by killing the nerve of the tooth, it would hasten its farther decay and destruction. I am sure this is not the case. In my own mouth I retained for fifteen or twenty years four teeth which had been thoroughly cauterized with creasote, to relieve pain, when they first began to give trouble from decay. I believe dentists have now given up the apprehension of any such injury from its use, and some employ it freely to prepare teeth for plugging, by removing their sensitiveness, through its cauterizing power. It seems to me cruel to plug a tooth without thus destroying the sensibility of the exposed end of the nerve, and the caustic action extends no farther.

EXCRETION: THE BOWELS.

Here we have much room for care of the health. Man's large intestine (see Anatomy) has no office except the removal of two sorts of waste: 1. Incompletely digested materials of food; 2. Effete matter excreted by the glands of the intestine from the blood. This matter is the most putrescent (undergoing the most offensive kind of decomposition) of all that escapes from the blood.

Since such matters must be removed, whether we are active or inactive, and whatever the amount of food, we see why sick persons must still have their bowels opened, even when they are lying still in bed, and take little or no nourishment. Indeed, as decomposition goes on in the blood during sickness more rapidly than during health, it is more important, during acute illness at least, for the sick person to be so relieved daily than it is for those who are in health.

One daily emptying of the lower bowel is natural and most suitable for ninety-nine in a hundred people. Exceptions are met with. Accounts are recorded of some extraordinary ones; as of the Dutch General Grose, who lived for thirty years without an evacuation. A student of the University of Pennsylvania told me in 1874 of a blacksmith whom he knew to have lived to be seventy-four years old, who for forty years had a movement of the bowels out once in nine days; yet with ordinary health otherwise. When at sea, I have passed seven days without the least disposition toward a movement, and a relative of mine has, also at sea, been eleven days without it.

On the other hand, a not inconsiderable minority of persons have the bowels moved twice daily while in perfect health. Once should be regarded as the standard. It is a good thing to have a habit of such movement at the same time every day. Most people can best arrange for this right after breakfast; some just before retiring to rest at night. When there is sluggishness of the lower bowel, gentle pressure, alternately on the two sides of the abdomen, may assist in getting relief.

Several causes promote constipation of the bowels. First, neglect in responding promptly to the call of nature. The rectum (lowest and last part of the large intestine) is not constructed to retain anything, but only to transmit and throw out what descends from the colon into it. If it is compelled to detain anything, it contracts upon it, rendering it less easy of subsequent removal; and at the same time the coats or walls of the rectum (through its mucous membrane) will absorb into the blood much of the watery material present. Thus the blood

becomes more or less poisoned; and the disposition of the bowel to empty itself is gradually lessened, establishing a habit of constitution.

Secondly, without neglect, there may be sometimes a want of power in the muscular coat of the bowels; their "peristaltle" action is slow and incomplete.

Thirdly, often connected with this, and bringing it on, there is an insufficient supply of nervous energy to the intestinal canal. Studious persons, professional and much pressed business men, are most likely to use their nerve-force so exhaustively in their daily pursuits, that too little is left for bodily organic functions. Sedentary people also, as bookkeepers, clerks, and tailors, may suffer in a similar way, because of the want of stirring up of their bodily energies by active exercise. As a rule, out-of-door activity promotes the regular movement of the bowels.

Fourthly, under some circumstances the secretory action of the glands of the large intestine is not sufficient. In fever (except typhoid fever) this is quite generally the case; it is so in the first stage of most discases (as measles, scarlet fever, small-pox, etc.), which begin with depression, followed by fever. Many dyspeptics and others, however, in their ordinary condition, without fever, have an over-dry state of the mucous membrane of the bowels, inducing constipation.

It is not a trifling matter to be irregular in this excretory function. Although many persons get on tolerably with a costive habit, there are possibilities, we may say dangers, attending it, not to be overlooked.

One of these is irritation of the bowels, which may be, by some aggravating cause, urged on to a serious inflammation. Another is the creation of swellings called piles, or hemorrhoids, near the outlet of the bowel (within or without it), which are often painful, sometimes bleeding, and generally troublesome.

Worse is the forcing, by straining at stool, of a hernia or rupture. This is an escape of a knuckle of intestine or membrane (peritoneum; see Anatomy) out under the skin at the groin, or, especially in women, at the navel; making a soft swelling, sometimes difficult to get back into its place. If this becomes greatly swollen, it is caught and held at the place it escaped through. Then its circulation is cut off; it becomes a strangulated rupture or hernia. Mortification follows, unless this is soon relieved; and the sufferer more often dies than recovers from this.

More uncommonly, neglected constipation may cause such a collection of hardening material in the intestine as at last to obstruct it altogether, and not even purgative medicine will remove it. This is one form of obstruction of the bowels. It is one of the most dangerous of all the accidents (if so to be called) to which the body is liable.

Also, when the large intestine is worried with what it ought to be rid of, the stomach, liver, and head may sympathize with it; and we may have nauses, "biliousness," and headsche, as well as a general sense of indisposition and languor. Dyspoptics usually suffer thus; and they are very spt to make their friends and neighbors sympathize with their affliction.

Lastly, as has been mid, want of action of the bowels allows the blood to be more or less tainted or poisoned by the retention in it of waste putrement material. This signin acts unfavorably upon the brain and other organs; the whole system being at a disadvantage for want

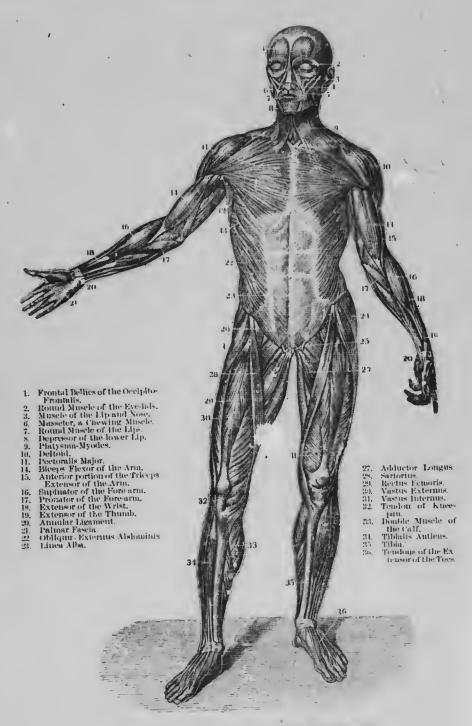
of fresh, pure blood.

How are we to secure regularity of the bowels? Establish the habit as early as possible in life. Now, if it can be at all avoided, wait five minutes, after becoming aware of the occasion, before relieving the lower bowel. If inclined to be costive, besides active convoice according to one's strength, eat every day some fresh fruit. If that which is fresh cannot be had, steed fruit (especially stewed prunes) may answer the purpose. Bran bread, also, is laxative with many persons.

Should these means not be sufficient, medicine may be required. Without advice of a physician, the drug most safe and suitable to venture upon for costiveness is rhubarb. Dyspeptics often purchase this (root) in lump, and cut off a nightly portion as an offhand-made pill. Simple rhubarb pills of the apothecary shop will, of course, do very well. Trial will soon show how large an amount is needed; and in this, as with other use of drugs, the smallest sufficient done is always the best.

Glaten suppositories (to be slipped into the lower bowel) made by the Health Food Co., Arch street above 10th street, Philadelphia, have been found by a number of persons very convenient and effective to relieve constipation. (On constipation in young children, see page 195.)





ANTERIOR VIEW OF THE MUSCLES OF THE BODY.

MUSCULAR EXERCISE.

How are people made strong?

First, by natural constitution. We differ originally in the capacity of our muscular system, as we do in height, weight, and length of limb. But most persons never reach the strength they might attain.

Secondly, by the best possible care of the general health. Unless there is a good sum of power in the body as a whole, of course the muscular system falls short in energy.

Thirdly, by exercise. This must be rightly proportioned, however, or it will not increase strength. Overwork causes not a gain of strength, but weakness.

Some people misunderstand this very much in regard to the sick and those who are delicate. "Take exercise and get strong," they say. But perhaps they have not strength enough for any active exercise; hardly enough to sit up all day. Those who have ordinary strength can increase it only by using their muscles within the mark of what they could do possibly. There is an old saying that "a horse that has run his best will never run very well again."

Dr. Winship, not long ago the strongest man in America, lifting over 2200 pounds at once, told of himself that, when a young man, he had only average strength. Something occurring to make him wish himself stronger, he set to work to cultivate his muscular powers. He found the best way for it to be to exercise often, but not long at a time. Seldom did he prolong his practice with weights, bars, lifting, etc., for more than half an hour at once; and in that time several different things would be done. On this plan he doubled his strength in a few months, and trebled it in a year or two; and his opinion was that any healthy person, by frequent short exercises, especially in the open air, can double or treble his or her strength in the same way.

The conditions necessary for keeping the muscles in good order are those required for the healthy nutrition of every organ of the body; namely:

- 1. Good, rich blood;
- 2. Distribution of blood, and of nerve-force, without obstruction, to each part;
 - 3. Exercise of the organs, according to their ability;
 - 4. Sufficient intervals of repose.

Everybody knows that we must have sleep for several hours in each twenty-four, or we wear out. Besides sleep, however, which affects the brain only, there must be rest from action in all the muscles. Our hearts

beat on, day and night; they rest only between beats. Our breathing muscles heave the chest and lower the diaphragm, sixteen to eighteen times in every minute; but while we are breathing out, they rest. Nothing that labors can do without shorter or longer periods of repose.

Even very short times of rest help. After a muscle contracts, more blood flows towards it. This gives it new "fuel" for energy, and more



THE HEALTH-LIFT.

"stimulation," too. Try the principle for your-self, in this way. Take a pair of (either light or heavy) dumb-bells, and raise them above your head as many times as you can, without being much fatigued by it. Then rest for two or three minutes, and try it again. Almost certainly, you can lift them two or three times more than before. Rest again. Probably then you can raise the weights several times more than the first or second time.

The health-lift is made to act usefully on the same principle.

Finding, by trial, how many pounds one may lift with comparative ease, that weight is raised once. Then, after a rest of about three minutes, nearly always from twenty to fifty pounds more may be lifted, without any greater apparent effort. Again a rest; and another addition can usually be made. Of course there is a limit to this, commonly found, after the third or fourth trial, each time. By this means good exercise for a number of muscles can be obtained in a short time; although the general effect on the system is much less beneficial than that of longer continued active out-of-door exercise.

In rowing, it has seemed to me that this idea of short rests for accumulation of power may be, and has been (perhaps without thinking about it) carried out. Some years ago, I noted, on ac-

count of its bearing on the physiology of exercise, the rate of pulling in the boats in the great prize contests, at home and abroad. It appeared not improbable that the Harvard erew lost, in its admirably contested race against the Oxford University crew in England, about fifteen years since, by too quick a stroke. The Harvard men pulled 42 strokes a minute, the Oxford men 40. In 1870, the Cambridge crew (England) beat the Ox ... men, the first time for several years, on 38 strokes to

the minute. On our side of the oceau, in 1874, the Columbia College crew won against the other college boats at Saratoga, on 34 to 35 strokes per minute; "a quick hard pull and rather slow recovery." The Oxford men beat the Cambridge crew in 1875, on 35 and 36 strokes to the minute; and in 1876 Cambridge again beat Oxford, both averaging 37 strokes; Oxford varying from 35 to 40, in "spurts."* (As to the relation of these great contests to health, I will have a few words to say presently.)

About modes of exercise next. Walking is excellent; uusurpassed in benefit to the system if one can afford time to get enough of it; a pleasant country, moderate weather, and good company being almost essential to its advantages. Beginners must not walk too fast or too far. Stop at the end of the first hour, and sit down for five minutes Rest ten minutes at the end of the second, and every successive hour, if you go on long; and never, while unaccustomed to pedestrianism, go more than three miles in one hour. What Weston, Rowell, O'Leary, and Fitzgerald can do is, for the beginner, about as impossible as it would be for one of them to leap over a barn.

Riding on horseback is an admirable exercise; but it leaves neglected a number of useful muscles, which are brought into action in walking. Farmers in some places ride on horseback almost always, if they have to go a mile or more; and, in consequence, they become poor walkers. They often almost wear out in an hour's stroll over hard pavements in town. Bicycling much resembles riding in effect.

Driving in a carriage (unless with a hard-mouthed horse or over a bouncing rough road) is a *gentle*, indeed what may be called **passive**, exercise. It is good for "airing," a change of mental impressions, and enjoyment; but it does very little toward muscular cultivation.

Nearly the same may be said of sailing in smooth water. Those who manage a sail-boat in a good breeze and on rough water may have an exercising time, and so, perhaps, may their passengers—whether they stomach it well or not.

^{*} In the race of 1883, Harvard won with 35, \$4 and 37 strokes, and Yale lost with 42, 41 and 43 to the minute. On Lake George, the same year, the Princeton College crew led at first with 40 strokes, but at the end came out third in the race; Cornell beat all, with at first 34, and afterwards a spart of 38 strokes to the minute. In the single scull race on Lake Calumet, in Michigan, July 4, 1883, young Teemer won easily with an even stroke of 32 to the minute.

A partial exception occurred in June, 1884, in the victory of Yale over Harvard with 39 strokes, Harvard rowing the same till near the end, when its rate was 35. A more decided instance was, on the same day, the Columbia College Freshmen beating the Harvard freshmen, the former with 42 to 40, and the latter 39 to 36, strokes per minute. On the whole, it is evident that the kind of stroke has a great influence, as well as the strength and endurance of those who handle the oars.

Rowing is a capital exercise. More muscles are used in it than in walking or riding on horseback; hands, arms, back, legs, and feet are all strengthened by it. Enough has been said of it already, a few pages back.

Skating is as wholesome in itself as any exercise can be. Always in a cold, bracing atmosphere (except roller skating, of course, which may be anywhere), even in a "rink," with freedom and variety of movement of the body and limbs, yet without violence, it is excellent for both sexes. Not many years ago it was very popular in our Northern eities. An alarm got about that skating is not good for girls and This is untrue, except so far as belongs to imprudence. Skating in pleasant company is, to those who are skilful in it, delightful enough to tempt some to keep it up too long, and get over-tired. This, of course, is beneficial to nobody, and may do considerable harru to those who are delicate. Again, there are times when the feminine system requires avoidance of all active and fatiguing exercise, especially on the feet; and, lastly, sitting down on the ice to cool off, after being very much warmed up, is an extremely easy way to catch cold. All these mistakes can and ought to be avoided; and then, I repeat, there is no more health-promoting exercise than skating.

Of swimming, as an exercise, apart from the good obtained from bathing, we cannot speak so favorably. The pressure of the water, and its temperature if cool or cold, force the blood more or less from the surface of the body to the head. Swimming rapidly is, also, a violent exercise. But every boy and girl should learn to swim as early in life as possible, so as to lessen the danger when "overboard" unexpectedly anywhere.

Out-of-door games, as tennis, cricket, base-ball, are all, in moderation, not only enjoyable, but wholesome in their effect upon the bodily condition. Exhilaration of mind makes all exercise more beneficial. It is astonishing what an amount of work people will do under the name of play. A Chinese mandarin, on seeing a number of English gentlemen engaged actively in a game of base-ball or cricket, said, "In my country we always pay people for taking so much trouble to amuse us." No treadmill, however, would ever build up muscle like the cricket ground.

Yet such thiugs may be overdone. Cricketers sometimes bring on excessive action of the heart; the most famous one in England, Lilly-white, died a few years ago, under fifty years of age. The strain comes, not in ordinary playing, but in the public matches, in which ambition and excitement lead some players to go beyond their strength. So it is in boat-racing. During one of the American contests, Renforth, a splendid oarsman, fainted in his boat, and died a few hours afterwards.

In England, Dr. Morgan, himself once captain of a student crew, wrote a book, called "University Oars," in which he collected answers to inquiries sent to all the Oxford and Cambridge rowing men in forty years, about their health, and the effect upon it of their rowing matches. Of 294 men who had all pulled in more than one race, seventeen, about one in fifteen of them all, reported themselves injured thereby; 162 considered that they were uninjured, and 115 benefited, by their experience with the oars. This proportion of injury, one in fifteen, is quite large enough to strengthen the expectation reasonably founded on the nature of the case, that while athletic exercises are, in moderation, useful to health, the strain of prize athletic contests is much more likely to do harm than good. I believe that it would be wise for college authorities to forbid all intercollegiate contests during term-time-

Tennis is a moderately active game, well suited for both sexes, and pretty safe from doing harm to anybody. Croquet is gentler still; quite innocent of bringing on heart-disease, unless in the sentimental

Hunting, except for needed food, is a burbarous sport. When one does not break his neck, however, he may probably gain strength through its activity. Excursions, for the study of natural science, as geology, mineralogy, botany, ornithology, entomology, or general natural history, become very delightful to those who take them with real intent to see something or get something. The exhibaration of a purpose makes such excursions much more bracing to the health than mere "constitutional" walks can be. Those whose pursuits are mainly sedentary, do well to find some object to take them out often to the woods and fields. erton, in his book on the "Intellectual Life," shows how a good degree of bodily activity is compatible with the best kind of intellectual labor. Sir Walter Scott, though lame, rode much on horseback; and he and the poet Wordsworth were both great walkers. Goethe, the German poet, delighted in riding, walking, swimming, and skating. Izaak Walton's fishing-rod is famous; and so, in our time, has been Tyndall's alpenstock; as well as Charles Kingsley's rambles by the seaside, and in the forests of the tropics. Gladstone, after a hard week or two in Parliament, has often recreated himself by cutting down trees at Hawarden; there are probably few better woodsnien than he in England.

Gymnastics, without the pleasant excitement of games, sports, or excursions, nevertheless rapidly increase and develop strength, if rightly managed. The ancient Greeks were very fond of athletic exercises, which they enjoyed thoroughly in their Pythian, Nemean, and Olympic games. The word "gymnastics" comes from the Greek gumnos, naked, on account of their often stripping themselves for the strifes of the arena.

Hence calisthenics (from kalos, beautiful, and sthenos, strong) is the better word to use for lighter exercises.

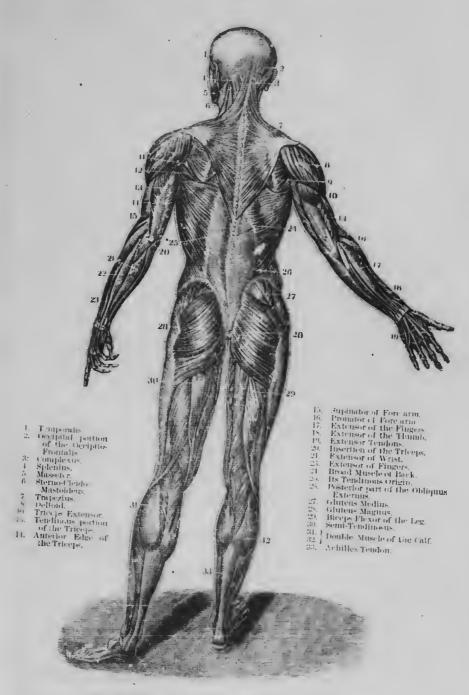
Modern gymnastics are said to have arisen first in Germany, with Guthsmuths of Schnepfenthal (1784) and Pestalozzi. Ling, a poet and scholar, started an institution for physical training, under aid of the government, in Sweden, about 1813; and Captain Rothstein opened one in 1848, in Bavaria. Austria, Denmark, and France, a number of years ago, made gymnastic exercises a regular part of their systems of military education.

Ling, the Swede, is also eredited with having introduced the lighter gymnastics, or calisthenics. In our country, this system was first developed and made popular by Dr. Dio Lewis. It consists of regularly varied successive movements, with light wooden dumb-bells, rods, rings, etc.; no one effort requiring much use of strength. The order of exercises is often planned, like a piece of music or dancing, in detail. It may be timed by an instrument, and performed by a company together, so as to introduce the social element. In this way, some twenty years or so ago, it became quite the fashion in this country, promising almost, for a while, to rival or supersede the dance. It undoubtedly promotes case and grace, by the variety of movements, causing symmetrical development of all the muscles of the body. It is very well adapted to girls, and may, with great advantage, be made a part of the daily regime of schools.

Without looking back to Samson, Hercules, or even Thomas Topham (who could pull against a team of horses), we may notice a few of the more recent feats of strength, as maxima.

Parkes, in his work on Hygiene, mentions a workman in a copper-rolling mill, whose day's labor sometimes amounted to 723 foot-tons; that is, raising 723 tons one foot, or a ton 723 feet, in the course of the day. 400 foot-tons would be a hard day's work for most men; 300 foot-tons a fair average performance. In India, eight palanquin-bearers carried a weight of 200 pounds twenty-five miles in a day, equal to 600 foot-tons for each man. Many palanquin-bearers will run with a weight up an ascent ten miles a day, equal to raising 500 tons one foot. In walking without a weight, on a level, a man may be estimated to raise $\frac{1}{2^{10}}$ of his weight to a height equal to the distance walked. In ascending, he lifts his whole weight to the height of the ascent. A walk of ten miles on a level is about equal to raising 200 foot-tons.

Walking 1000 miles in 1000 hours, at first thought, may seem easy enough. But it is far otherwise, because of the short time obtainable for intervals of rest. It has, however, often been done. More remarkable are the performances of Weston, Rowell, and two or three others,



POSTERIOR VIEW OF THE MUSCLES OF THE BODY.



within a few years—going more than 100 miles within twenty-four hours, and even over 600 miles in six days.* This is an unnatural strain, of course; it is not likely that either of them will live long.

Marching, with a soldier's accourrements, is much more fatiguing than ordinary walking. Twelve miles a day are counted by authorities as enough for an average for troops. But, even in the hot climate of India, in 1809, three British regiments marched sixty-two miles in twenty-six hours, each man carrying from fifty to sixty pounds' weight. They lost only seventeen stragglers. A regiment of the same army (the Fifty-second foot), in 1857, marched forty-two miles in twenty hours, partly in the sun; and the next morning marched ten miles farther, then engaging the enemy in battle. Two English companies, in India, once manded 195 miles in uine days—over twenty-one miles a day.

Captain Webb's swimming exploits have been very notable, especially his crossing the British Channel, from Dover to Calais, in about twenty-one hours. The distance cannot have been less, and probably was more, than twenty miles, as he made it. His fatal attempt to swim through the whirlpool below Niagara Falls, showed that he lacked in judgment as much as he excelled in strength.

Turkish porters are famous for their lifting and carrying powers. One of them has been often known to carry 600 to 800 pounds at a time—of course, not very far at once.

Mention has already been made of the great strength of Dr. Winship, of Boston. By a simple apparatus which gave him opportunity to use all his muscular ability at ouce, he succeeded in lifting about a ton—2240 pounds. I saw him put up a 180-pound dumb-bell, far above his head, with no more apparent difficulty than most men would have in raising one weighing thirty pounds. Yet his figure was not comparatively large; his weight, I should suppose, about 180 pounds.

Such feats surprise us in men. But how far they are transcended by some lower animals! A canary bird in its cage, without use of its wings, will leap to its perch with case, twice or more its own height. A flea will leap more than two hundred times its own length; and the obscure tumble-bug will roll a load exceeding many times its own weight.

Very strong meu are sometimes said to be stupid. There can be no necessity for this. But muscular development promotes a quiet state of the nervous system; and there may be such a thing as a disproportionate cultivation of the muscles, somewhat robbing the brain and other parts

^{*}Fitzgerald, in New York, May, 1884, waiked (or ran) 610 miles in six days; Rowell, in the same contest, 602 miles in the same time. It is instructive that Rowell will drink nothing but water during his pedestrian feats, being sure that alcoholic potations would impair his endurance of fatigue.

of their full share of vigor. Balance, symmetry, is what is wanted for ideal health; "mens sana in corpore sano;"—a sound mind in a sound body;—with no excess or deficiency anywhere. A very important advantage of active daily exercise (always best in the open air) from early life, is, that it so promotes the circulation of the blood, quickens the breathing, favors the escape of perspiration and of other secretions, as to do much towards the maintenance of the general health. Indeed, it is very difficult to keep good health without exercise. Sedentary employments are, as a rule, the least healthful. Those whose business does not take them out of doors, should go out on purpose, day or evening, for as long a time every day as they can get for it. As a last resort, if nothing else can be done, the use of dumbbells will prevent actual stagnation of blood in the muscular system.

As to work, certain kinds are more favorable than others to health. Worst, are those in which a stooping position is required. Best of all, when variety of muscular action is in place, without any one effort being severe, or the whole labor prolonged too much. Women cannot, as a rule, do nearly so much as men; and children should never be put to severe task-work. Laws limiting this are necessary, and exist now in several civilized countries. They are, however, not sufficiently enforced, even in the United States.

Sewing-machine work has been charged with being injurious to the health. I believe this to be a mistake. Some observation and inquiry among those who use the sewing-machine have given me the conviction that sewing with it is less tiresome, hour by hour, than sewing by hand; and a great deal less so than running up and down stairs, or even standing all day; as shop-girls nearly all formerly had to, and some still (very wrongly) are compelled to do. Tom Hood's "Song of the Shirt" was, and could have been only, written before the sewing-machine were invented.

HYGIENE OF THE SENSES: EYESIGHT.

Already, while referring to education in connection with mental and general health, the care of the eyes in their use for study has been considered. Of course, the same principles apply to their employment otherwise; as in the close looking necessary for printing with small type, watchmaking, etc. Plenty of light on the work, without glare on the eyes, will be needed for every sort of work. Correction, by proper glasses, of defects of sight is also very important. Some persons have suffered for years with headache, sickness of stomach, and general distress, produced by using their defective eyes (sometimes obliging them to give up the business in which they were engaged), whom a suitable pair of glasses has afterwards enabled to get on without any trouble. A young relative of my own, at ten years of age, could not read a letter without holding the page so as almost to touch the end of her nose. She could, in consequence, do almost nothing at school. But with glasses made, after examination, to suit her eyes, she was put for life upon the level of other persons. Such a change is almost like conferring a new sense.

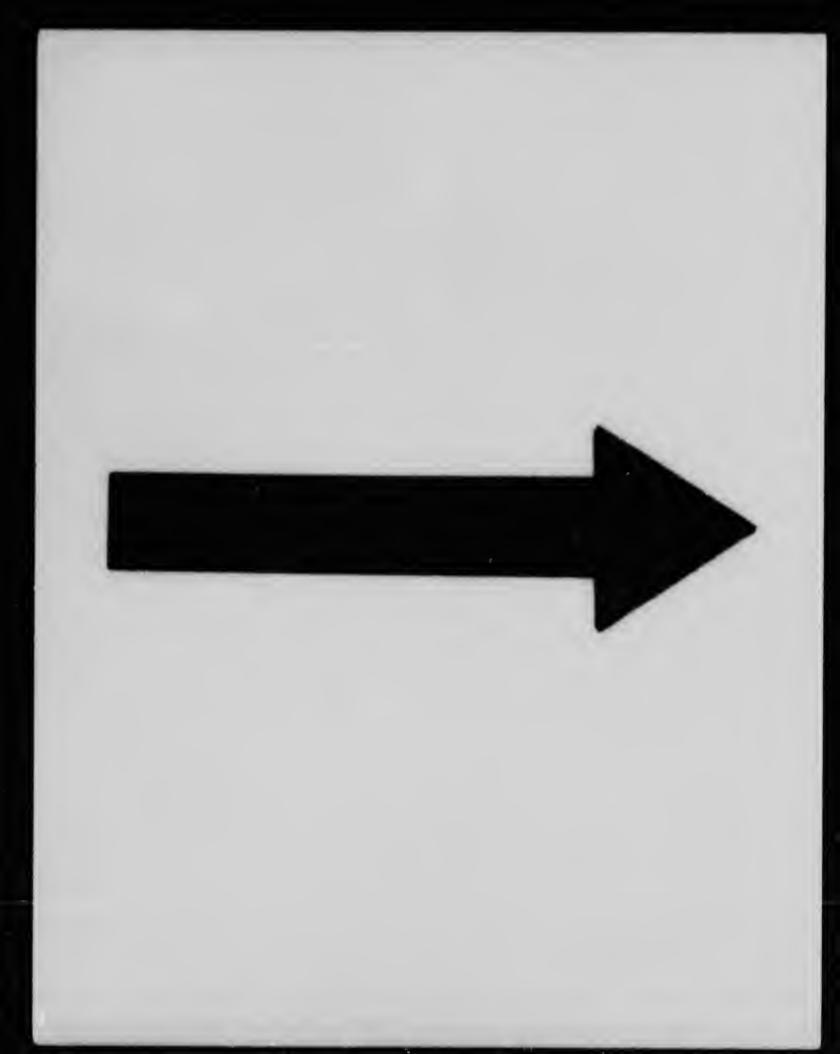
Only skilful oculists can deal successfully with serious cases of defective vision. But the general facts on the subject can be understood by all. Blindness may be due to either of several causes: original imperfection of the eyes (born blind); paralysis of the optic nerve (amarrosis*); opacity of the crystalline lens (cataract); cloudiness of the cornea, or of the vitreous humor; disorganization of the retina. (See Physiology.)

Errors of sight, however, far short of blindness, cause much inconvenience. One of these is nearsightedness (myopia). Here the eyeball is too long (or the lens too convex), so that the rays of light from an object come to their focus in front of, not upon, the retina; unless, that is, the object is brought very near to the eye, so that the divergence of the rays coming from it pushes back their focus, and thus the image formed by them, upon the retina.

Some people are born with nearsightedness; others acquire it. Very often it is slight in childhood, and increases afterwards. If moderate in degree, it is partly corrected by the opposite change which comes on with the approach of old age.

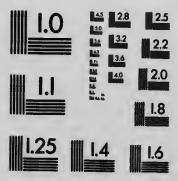
All persons have a different range of vision at different times of life.

^{*} This was Milton's blindness. "So thick a drop serene hath quenched these orbs." An old name for the affection was gutta screau.



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Our eyes are (as explained under Physiology) at rest when we look at a far-off prospect, or at the sky. Accommodation is necessary for looking at near objects. This has its limits. At ten years of age, a child with good eyes can "accommodate" its sight so as to see a thing clearly which is brought to within three inches of its eyes. This is its near point. At twenty years of age, this point is about four inches; at forty, seven inches; at fifty, usually twelve inches; at sixty, two feet. With healthy eyes the far point is in remotest space, where we see the sun, moon, and stars; although the clearness of vision for distant objects must, of course, depend upon their size and the amount of light coming from them.

But with nearsighted people the far point is, properly speaking, not far off at all. Some of them cannot recognize their own mothers at the distance of ten or twelve feet; many (without glasses) cannot tell a horse from a cow at twenty feet distance. Their range of vision, then, is very narrow. For things brought close to their eyes, their sight may be very good, indeed.

Another defect is longsightedness (hyperopia, or hypermetropia). Here the lens is too flat, or the eyeball is too short; the rays diverging from near objects, and even, in some cases, those from distant ones (parallel rays) make their image, so to speak, beyond the retina. In other words, the image on the retina is a confused one; because the rays are not brought to a focus upon it.

Old people have their "near point" pushed farther off (presbyopia), as above said. The lens in the eye becomes gradually harder, and will not yield to the muscle of "accommodation;" it remains at last permanently flat. Moreover, the adjusting nuscle itself loses strength. This change begins in most persons between forty and forty-five years of age. There are exceptions, however; a few, even without ever having been nearsighted, can do without glasses to an advanced age. Even with these, more light is needed for old eyes to see well by; the retina, optic nerve, and eye-brain grow less sensitive to the stimulus of light. Hence there may be need of glasses to magnify objects in a poor light, when there is no loss of accommodating power.

Longsightedness (hyperopia, or hypermetropia) is met with not infrequently in young persons. Those having it can see well things at a distance, but, without glasses, not those brought close to them; the very opposite of nearsightedness.

Another far from uncommon error of sight is astigmatism. This is a kind of uneven or distorted vision. It results from the eyeball having its curves unlike; being somewhat spoon-shaped instead of spherical in form. This "spooniness" may be either horizontal or vertical;

and accordingly, lines, forms, and spaces are changed somewhat in one or the other direction. Many persons have slightly astignatic vision. It is important only when considerable in degree. The *test* for it is easy enough.



If, in looking at the large N and Z of the above series of letters, the lines of both look equally heavy and dark, there is no astigmatism, either vertical or horizontal. If this is so also with P and B, there is none in any direction. At least one in three or four persons, however, will see somewhat heavier lines either in the N or in the P. To show that this is not owing to a real difference in the letters, let the book be turned half-way round; the lighter ones will then become dark, and vice versa.

In order to examine the acuteness of sight, as well as to ascertain the presence or absence of nearsightedness or farsightedness, types may be used, prepared for the purpose. Jäger's types range from 1 to 20; the extremes being these:

Rom

Good eyes can read the smallest letters (Brilliant, etc.) within a range of from seven or eight inches to three feet. The R O M can be seen distinctly by them at from forty to sixty feet distance. Nearsighted and longsighted persons show, in looking at them, their opposite defects. Another, more conveniently available set of types, are those of Snellen, of which the following are examples:



One having perfect sight should be able to discern A in the above series at eighty feet distance; Z at forty feet; N at twenty feet, and L at eight feet.

Strabismus, squinting, or cross-sight, is due to a want of proper balance between the muscles which draw the two eyeballs outward (from each other) and those which make them converge (towards each other). Those having this defect, although they must always see two images for every object, learn by practice to give attention only to one object; and thus suffer but little inconvenience from the double visiou. Squinting may be increased, indeed probably may be brought on in a child, by the habit of drawing the eyes often together to look at a very near object; as a hat-string dangling before the eyes. Children should, for this reason, not be allowed to squint on purpose, as they do sometimes for amusement. When strabismus is very bad, it may be cured by a surgical operation; the over-strong muscle being divided with a very delicate knife. As a symptom of disease, in those whose eyes, when well, were straight, squinting points to trouble affecting the brain. It is then usually of serious importance.

Correction of nearsightedness is obtained by the use of concave glasses, which spread the rays from distant objects farther apart, so that they will form a distinct image by focusing upon the retina. The concavity must be greater or less according to the degree of error in each case; which can be ascertained by careful trial. Those whose sight is only moderately shortened require glasses chiefly for reading and writing, or other close work. They see much more of the world, however, and to better advantage, if they use two pairs of glasses; the stronger pair for distant objects, and the weaker pair for reading or fine work.

Longsightedness is corrected by convex glasses, which bring the rays sooner to a focus, so as to make a clear image on the too short eye, or make up what is wanting with a flat lens in accommodation for near objects. Old people wear convex glasses, to read or write with. They

do not need them to look at things far off, unless dimiless of vision comes also with age. The old person looks over his glasses in conversation. or puts them away for the moment, replacing them to read. Some, who have been moderately nearsighted in early life, find their "near point" put back, when they grow old, so that they need convex glasses for reading, and yet their "far point" is close enough to require the use of concave glasses for distant vision. Dr. Benjamin Franklin contrived to meet this double difficulty by having the upper half of each glass concave, for far-off objects, and the lower half convex, for those which are near. A minister, so affected and assisted, can look at his congregation through his upper half-glasses, and read the Bible or his sermon

It is, of course, wrong for any one to use too strong glasses; they tend to make the eyes worse. But it is also a great mistake to put off using them when the eyes are strained for want of their assistance. Get those which make sight entirely comfortable, if you need them, and use them whenever they are required.

One eye may differ from the other in its manner of sight. This is often the case with those who do not discover it until it is proved by a careful examination. Such should always be considered in the adjustment of glasses to correct vision.

Astigmatism is corrected by means of cylindrical glasses. By these, the "spooniness," as I have called it, is sufficiently reversed to make equal clearness of vision in both directions. Sometimes a combination of near- or far-sightedness with astigmatism makes suitable the putting together of double lenses; one face concave or convex, and the other a

Color-blindness has, of latter years, attracted a good deal of attention. Lives have been lost, on ships and railroad trains, by pilots or engineers mistaking a signal of one color for another. Red and green are the colors most apt not to be distinguishable by those having this defect. About one m · twenty-five is more or less color-blind; of women, not one in a madred.

Examinations are now made of railroad employés and others, to determine whether or not they see colors correctly. Merely naming the colors will not be enough, as that may be a matter entirely of education. The best method is, getting those examined to match, exactly, colored worsteds, of various hues, selected and arranged for the purpose.

Really bad color-blindness does not seem capable of any sort of correction. Slight degrees of it, however, can often be improved upon by early and constant training in the use and discrimination of colors. It

is by this practice, chiefly, that we can explain the rarity of colorblindness in women.

Weakness of sight (asthenopia) is often quite troublesome, without any error of refraction. Those who have it cannot read or write long without weariness and pain in the eye. After an attack of measles this is not uncommon. It needs a great call of care not to increase it or make it permanent. Having had personal experience of this difficulty from my boyhood, I have learned by necessity the advantage of frequent short rests for wearied eyes. Often, I close them for half a minute or a minute several times in an hour. Thus the pain and sense of fatigue are relieved, and work can be continued; without such precaution, absolute inability to use the eyes may follow, as was the case with me once for a whole year at a time.

Irritability of the eyes (which are naturally sensitive to the touch) is easily increased by slight causes. There is some wisdom in the odd old saying, "Never touch your eye unless with your elbow."

HEARING.

Less exposed, as our ears are (that is, the *inner* ear, the real apparatus of hearing) than our eyes, to injury, they are nevertheless often subject to disease, especially in early life, as well as to impairment of sensibility in old age. *Diseases* of the ear do not eall for special consideration in this place. (See Special Diseases, in Domestic Medicine.)

Deafness, or what, in less degree, we call hardness of hearing, may proceed from either of several causes: accumulation of wax in the ear; thickening of the drum membrane; obstruction of the Eustachian tube (connecting the middle ear with the throat); collection of matter in the middle ear; perforation in the drum membrane; destruction of the ossicles (little bones in the middle ear); loss of sensibility in the nerve of hearing, or in the "ear brain" (central termination of the nerve in the brain).

There is naturally always a small amount of wax in the ears; as it is disagreeable and adhesive, it seems to keep insects out. Irritation of the ear produces an increased secretion of waxy matter, which sometimes fills up the whole passage. With great gentleness, this may be taken out. A quill ear-pick may be very carefully used; but the inside of the ear is almost as delicate as the eye, and inflammation may be induced by even a slight degree of violence. What remains in the deeper passage may be softened by pouring in warm water, almond oil, or glycerin. Instead of a syringe, pouring in from a teaspoon will do, the head being turned well to one side. Best of all is the little rubber-headed tube, which cannot risk doing harm, as a syringe can, by the force of its jet against the drum membrane.

With a cold in the head, sometimes, that membrane will thicken, just as the cords in the windpipe do when one is hoarse. Or, under the same cansation, the small passage called the Eustachian tube, from the middle ear to the upper part of the throat, may be blocked up. Generally, either of these effects of a cold will pass away in a few weeks. There is, at all events, no advantageous domestic treatment for them. And the same is true of the citer canses of deafness named; which (except nerve-paralysis) follow, in a certain number of cases, scarlet fever or small-pox.

Gunners, on mon-of-war, in time of action, may have their hearing impaired by the tremendous concussion of air from their cannou. Boiler-makers suffer likewise from the long continuance near them of loud hammering. Both of these, but especially the former, gain by opening their mouths at the time of explosion or other cause of loud

sound, so that the air can freely enter the Eustachian tubes, and balance that which strikes upon the tympanic membranes through the outer ears.

One precept of some authors who have written upon the care of the ears I must positively dissent from; that is, never to let cold water enter the ears. I am sure that cold or cool water is, for healthy people, the natural thing with which to wash every part of the body. From abundant observation and experience I can assert that washing the ears daily with cold water "strengthens" them, that is, gives tone to the surface, and renders them less sensitive and irritable; less liable to be affected by cold, and less apt to suffer with accumulation of wax. I believe this to be true of sea- as well as of fresh-water. One does not need to stop his ears while bathing in the surf at the shore, unless they are already in a diseased condition; although it is well to avoid the dashing of heavy breakers against the ears.

SEXUAL HYGIENE.

Of the organie structures of animals and human beings, some, but not all, portions are essential in their action to life itself. This is the case with the lungs, because we must breathe; with the heart, since the blood must be made to move around in its course; and so with the stomach to appropriate food, the kidneys and bowels to excrete waste material, etc. But other organs, as even the brain, are not indispensable to life. A bird may have its brain sliced away, and yet live for a considerable time if it be fed and looked after.

It is especially true of all that belongs to the reproductive system, that its activity is not necessary to the individual life. Its purpose is the continuance of the species; apart from that, it may remain virtually inert. Thus the mammary glands in women, while they are unmarried, may be quite inactive through a long lifetime. Should marriage and parentage occur, their service is called out by a spontaneous netural process (most admirable in design and effect) for the nourishment of offspring. It is true that a periodical formation, accumulation, and discharge occurs in and from the female system (oraries and uterus) regularly, while in health. But this is provisional only, and not a part of sexual activity, properly so called.

Being then not necessary to the individual, is reproductive activity favorable or unfavorable to health? We answer, it is only favorable under normal conditions. Let us here state some leading principles on this subject, and comment on them afterwards.

- 1. Action of the reproductive system is (as just stated) not needful for the life or health of the individual.
- 2. No harm results from the absence of reproduction, or of activity of its apparatus, through life.
 - 3. Such activity is healthy and safe only in marriage.
- 4. The married state appears from experience to be, as a rule, more favorable to health of mind and body than that of celibacy.
- 5. Abnormal sexuality is injurious in proportion to a, prematurity; b, deviation from naturalness; c, frequency and amount of excess.
- 6. Such errors or excesses may produce great injury to health; not re rely causing epilepsy, disease of the heart, insanity, or general nervous
 - 7. Chastity of life requires purity of thought and feeling.

Nothing is more clear in regard to design in nature than that sexual relations are rovidentially adapted to increase happiness upon the earth. They exemplify the highest kind of natural polarity. By this we mean

the attraction of opposites, which at the same time have more of likeness than of unlikeness in their nature. Thus the North pole of one magnet attracts the South pole of another; both are magnetic, but oppositely so. Anything electrified by rubbing glass attracts whatever is excited by rubbing with scaling-wax; one is called a manifestation of positive, and the other of negative, electricity. We call by the name of chemical affinity, that attraction by which, for example, phosphorus unites with oxygen, bursting into flame as they combine rapidly. Likewise, even iron filings dropped into a jur of pure oxygen will catch fire, in a sort of "passionate" union.

All through living nature we find sex to be present and dominant, Sometimes, in plants and certain of the lower tribes of animals, male and female are both upon the same organism. But in the higher ranks of plants generally, and in all the higher orders of animals, fertilization is effected by two—lividuals. Darwin makes great account of "sexual selection" in the animal kingdom; believing that the choice, by those of one sex, of such of the other as have superior qualities, tends to perpetuate these, and so to clevate the species.

Lore is the word by which we express the attraction of one person for another. While the highest kind of love, that which is Divine, is not sexual, that which is next below this in grade finds its completest type in marriage. Here (when well assorted) is seen the union of all that attract: through the "congeniality" of race-likeness, with the sex-oppositeness which accords with the great law of polar affinities in nature.

Yet, like many other of the best gifts in man's possession, this endowment of sexuality has been very often so perverted as to become the source of much evil; of many disasters. Both history and fable teem with such results. It was by a woman that was shorn the strength of Samson the strong, and by women was overcome the wisdom of Solomon the wise. A woman bred the great Homeric war of the siege of Troy, and many a royal and state trouble since. Every man finds himself called upon to watch against dangers connected with his passions in the world; and if he leaves the world, as many an anchorite has done, he may find that thus he has only no wowd, not avoided, the field of conflict; which, from Origen and Jerome to Abelard and since, is unavoidable. Every one, her in, must learn to be his own master. Society, in this, by its code of opinions, aids women more than men; and so far, men lose, on the whole, some advantage, both in the realm of hygiene and in that of morals.

When sexuality is abused, no function is capable of greater injury to health. Reproduction is, of all the *organic* functions (see **Physiology**), the highest; being almost the *creation* of a new being. This requires

elaborate preparation. In those insects for example, which have these stages of life, those of the larva, pupa, and imago, the duration of the last is the shortest; but in that alone can they reproduce; that is the relamination of their existence.

This no error of life is so destructive (except, perhaps, that kind of poisoning called intemperance) as sexual interorality and excess. On this, further remarks must be here unde.

Prematurity increases the injury of sexual includence very much. A main is not fully fitted for marriage before the age of twenty-one, or better, twenty-five; a woman, not usually before twenty years at least. Marriages very often, of course, occur much earlier. In Eastern countries, girls are commonly married at fifteen, fourteen, thirteen years; sometimes younger still; but the result of this is, deterioration of families and of races under it.

Sexuality, again, is safe or the reverse according to its naturalness. With a true and complete union as in marriage, combining permanent and elevating affection with passion of desire, it is normal; although here also indulgence is capable of excess. But as sexuality or sensuality deviates from nature into a mere passionless self-gratification, it becomes, in the same degree, more deleterious in its effects. Rainous injury to health may thus follow; involving the heart, brain, and nervous system generally, often with great general debility. Cases illustrating this are seen in most hospitals, classhouses, and hospitals for the insane. Moreover, the special diseases attendant upon irregular sexual life (of which syphilis is the worst) constitute a form of penalty terrible enough, when krown, to deter any one having a spark of prudence, from risking their dangers. Under a single exposure, a healthy constitution may become involved for life; and not only that, but his expring, too, may be tainted, even fatally, from their birth.

There is no hygienic justification for what is called in England "the great social evil." To extend governmental protection to this in the form of license is a wrong not only against morality, but against sound principles of public health. Experience (attested, for example, by M. Lecour, who was for a long time chief of the "Burean des Mœurs" of Paris) proves that it does not prevent, nor even lessen, the amount of disease which it professes to antagonize. "Contagious Diseases Acts" were passed a number of years ago in England; but very wisely, in 1883, they were practically annulled. "The remedy for the great social evil and its consequences must be moral and educational; not that of force, espionage, or law. Early marriages, "avored by social customs, and especially by young married people being allowed to live moderately in style and expense, so as not to have to wait half a life-

time before their union, may do much for social morality, health, and happiness.

We have already said that individual life and health do not need reproductive activity; and yet that the narried state is, as a rule, the most favorable to health. How is this seeming contradiction reconciled?

In the first place, all know that, through the infirmity of human nature, sexuality is not nearly always confined to the state of marriage; and then its irregularity does harm in various ways. Moreover, the affectional relations of marriage, with the common aims, cares, and ties of family life, are mentally and morally, indeed in every way, wholesome for men and women.

Children are like "arrows in the quiver" of a married pair. Let no married person wish, much less endeavor, to be without them. Mischief of most serious kinds has thus been wrought, under wrong and mistaken ideas, in many households, especially in this country. No right-minded person should dare thus to tamper with the ordinance of nature to "increase and multiply." On the other hand, a man may tyrannize over a wife so far as to make her the victim of incessant child-bearing, beyond what her strength and health can endure. This is inhuman altogether. The true ideal of marriage is that each should be a considerate "helpmeet" to the other.

About the real salubrity of the married condition, many facts might be cited. Amongst others, Dr. Bertillon, of France, collected statistics, which showed that, in various European countries, "a bachelor of twenty-five is not a better life than a married man of forty-five. Among widowers of from twenty-five to thirty the rate of mortality is as great as among married men of from fifty-five to sixty." In France. the rate of mortality among married men between twenty and twentyfive years of age is ten per thousand; among bachelors of that agr sixteen per thousand; and among widowers, nineteen per thousand, Dr. Stark, of Edinburgh, has proved that in Scotland, during nine years, the death-rate of single men between twenty-five and thirty years of age was double that of married men of the same age. Between . fifteen and thirty years, married women have a greater death-rate, on the average, than single women; after that age, a longer expectation of life. In a perfectly well-regulated state of society this difference would almost certainly not be so great; but the facts are interesting and instructive.

^{*} In the year 1865, then were 200,000 married couples in New York State without children.

It ought always to be remembered that the true relations between the sexes have quite other and higher importance than that which is merely organic. This may be seen in contemplating the ties of brotherhood and sisterhood, and those between father and daughter, mother and son; and also those of mutual trust and benevolence, brough out by the circumstances of war or other calamities—of which in our age, Florence Nightingale has been the typical representative.

"O woman, in our hours of ease
Uncertain, roy, and hard to piease;
When pain and anguish wring the brow,
A ministering angel thou!"

One of the highest tests of civilization among individual and nations is the respect shown towards women, and the right valuation of a true and pure wonninhood.

Upon these views we should be far from discouraging the frequent social and friendly intermingling of the so. The more constantly they mingle, of course with proper guards and influences, from early life, the less will be the tendency to morbid sexuality; much of which springs from a combination of imperfect principle with injudicious constraint. That which is forbidden is apt, in our human nature, to be most eraved as well as most misapprehended. If, then, boys and girls, young men and women, were allowed to mingle frequently as playmates, schoolmates, companions, and friends, while some of the sentimentality, romance, and exaggeration, which so often overcloud the relations of the sexes, would be dispelled, a more safe and substantially useful, and altogether a happier, sense of fellowship would be established.

For such reasons, coeducation may be expected to be more favorable to the physical, mental, and moral health of both sexes, than the monastery and nunnery-like method of isolation during school and college days, which has until latterly so much prevailed. Within the last twenty-five or thirty years, so many institutions, from kindergartens up to universities, have tried the experiment, with uniform success, that it may now be confidently said that coeducation will be the method of education in the next century, if not in the next generation. It nusexes nobody; it tends to make men more manly and women more womanly. Those who, on theory, object to it (no one does so who has seen it fairly tried), forget the great difference between the case of Paul and Virginia, alone together on an island, and that of a dozen, a score, or a hundred Pauls and Virginias, in the school-room, lecture-room, or even on the cricket-ground, or in a debating society, together. As to

morbid sexuality, the case is somewhat like that of certain electrical arrangements. How can you get up the most extreme electrical excitement? By putting, as in the Leyden jar, two coats of metal, on opposite sides of a thin separating glass, and then charging them. A great shock comes when they are suddenly brought into communication. But if the same charge of electricity were put into a row of metal plates, already in communication with each other, it would be harmlessly diffused.

Here comes in, however, an important qualifying thought. social principle, natural and wholesome as it is, may be abused. Under the above allusion to Paul and Virginia, some of this kind of danger may be recalled. Readers of that beautiful romance may remember how the sweet girl's heart grew troubled in its fondness, just before Paul was sent away. Sexual excitement, aroused and heightened by too familiar contact, becomes perilous. If, under unrestrained impulse, with opportunity, it be yielded to, one or two lives may be socially and morally ruined. . If, on the contrary, it be encouraged without satisfaction, it is always more or less, sometimes very decidedly, injurious to health. Hence the waltz and the German, witnessing the ballet, and all other provocatives of strong sexual feeling in the unmarried, ought to be condemned, on hygienic grounds, over and above what moralists have to say about them. So, also, long engagements, sometimes encouraged for economical reasons, are far from beneficial. When once betrothed, it is better for marriage to follow as soon as prindence and circumstances will at all allow.

We may venture also the suggestion, that our idea of "American liberty" has gone now pretty far, in regard to some social usages. Nobody will ever want to get back, in Europe or in this country, to the customs of the Hindoo zenana or the Moslem haren, where women, young and old, are kept in slavish seclusion from men. But there was something real in the experience which long ago suggested, in the care of young people, the value of the "duenna" and the "chaperon." Pairing, or "arking," at our summer resorts and elsewhere, has been well satirized by humorous writers, such as Pobert Grant.* It is not altogether impossible that less amusing occurrences may, sometime, show that, even in America, liberty may be safer, and thus happier, under prudent limitations.

^{*} Author of the "Little Tin Gods on Wheels," etc.

HYGIENE OF GIRLHOOD.

About fifteen years of age (earlier in tropical countries) is the period of transition from childhood to adolescence, commonly called puberty. A great change is then effected, not suddenly, but by a development, in which the apparatus is perfected through which maternity is made possible. So regular, according to the natural law of organic economy, is its subsequent periodicity, that its interruption or disturbance may seriously affect the health.

As Dr. Mary Putnam-Jacobi has shown in a very able treatise, the crisis in the system belonging to the monthly process begins a day or two or more before the flow, which is really its last event. Girls require more special care than grown women, in respect to the full establishment of regularity. The crisis onght to occur once in four weeks, to the age of forty-nine or sometimes later; interrupted, in the married, only during the months of pregnancy, and for a few months after its completion.

Opinions and statements have differed, even amongst those who might be supposed to know, as to the amount of disability connected, in healthy girls and women, with the monthly crisis. On the general principles of Physiology, we should not expect any disability at all to belong to it. Several physicians of repute, however, assert that even healthy women are, it such times, altogether invalided; unfit for bodily or mentel exertion. Dr. D. H. Storer, of Boston, has mentioned this as a reason against women undertaking to practise medicine; because, for about one week in every four, they have to be patients themselves. The late learned Dr. Clarke, of Boston, published a book on "Sex in Education" (which did, in my judgment, a great deal of harm), in which he asserted that the whole business of the education of girls and women must be conducted in view of this one-quarter-invalid life of the But these gentlemen have, as practitioners of medicine, seen most familiarly, the invalid side of the subject. Many women, and some girls, are not healthy; and, in them, this periodical function is often prominently disturbed. This does not, however, determine the law of health concerning womanhood.

Several able answers to Dr. Clarke's book have been written and published. It will suffice for our present purpose to quote the words of Dr. Elizabeth Garret Anderson, of London; one of the first medical women of England. She says: * "It is, we are convinced, a great exag-

^{*} Contemporary Review, May, 1874. Anna C. Brackett, amongst others, has expressed the same judgment, in her book on "Education of American Girls."

geration to imply that women of average health are periodically incapacitated from serious work by the facts of their organization."

Accepting this as the truth, confirmed by my own opportunities of observation, I must add, that the examples of those whose health is below the average are not few in number. Some women, and more girls between fourteen and eighteen years of age, are decidedly invalided every month; and a much greater number require great caution in self-management at such times. Indeed, all women need to be particularly careful of themselves just before and during the menstrual crisis.

The things to be especially avoided then are, 1. Exposure to cold and wet; 2. Fatigue, especially long standing or exercise upon the feet, or on horseback; 3. Mental strain, or much mental excitement. By the first of these causes, the flow may be arrested, and subsequent irregularity brought on; or pain and illness may result at the time. By the second, the occurrence of excessive hemorrhage may be endangered; or congestion (overfulness of bl. d) of the uterus may take place instead, often having secondary consequences of various kinds. The third cause, mental strain or excitement, in some constitutious, puts off or interrupts the normal flow, or gives rise to painful attacks (dysmenorrhæa), from the nervous connection and sympathy between the brain and the ovary and uterus.

On the whole, it is probable that sedentary and luxurious, rather than active and laborious, habits, are the most likely to promote irregularities and uterine sufferings in women. These do not so often appear, for example, amongst domestic servants as amongst their mistresses; the kitchen and the laundry try the system less than the parlor and the ball-room. A young lady who, rather than miss an occasion of enjoyment, will, at a time when she should be quiet, dance nearly all night, may be expected, next time, to have to lie still, whether she will or uo. Almost the worst of all, however, is the morbid life of which the most active exercise is the occasional drive in a carriage; the sofa and the novel characterizing the hours mostly spent within doors. Along with uterine troubles, giving large occupation to professional specialists (gynæcologis: 1), these are nearly sure to be affected with neurasthenia; a term brought into use by au American physician to apply to the myriad-formed nervous debility, which some foreigners have latterly called "the American disease."

PREGNANCY: GESTATION.

By this (derived from a Latin word meaning to carry) is meant the period during which offspring is undergoing development in the uterus. Its first signs are, the non-appearance of menstruation at the usual time, and the "morning-siekness," which is sufficiently described by that term. In the fourth month, perhaps at its beginning, comes quickening; i.e. the felt movement of the animated being within the maternal frame. About 270 to 280 days are occupied by the whole process of healthy gestation; the last-named period is probably nearest to the average of its duration.

Much care is needful at this time, especially in delicate women, and most of all when it occurs for the *first time*, lest miscarriage be brought on; this being an occasion not only of disappointment, but of danger. Bodily fatigues or shocks, and mental disturbances, are the most likely causes of such a result.

It is quite important for a woman in this condition to have the bowels regular. Active purgative medicines should not be used, nor any, except when necessary. When constipation occurs, simple rhubarb pills will generally do; or, if not, a teaspoonful dose of flowers of sulphur, in syrup, or (especially if the kidneys do not act well, as shown by a free flow of water) with a teaspoonful of cream of tartar, mixed together in molasses or fruit-syrup. Such a dose at night, once, twice, or thrice a week, will generally be enough. If not so, medical advice had better be obtained. The full-blooded state called plethora sometimes occurs during pregnancy, and more important still is the interference of the pressure of the enlarging uterus with the circulation of blood, affecting the kidneys, and sometimes endangering convulsions. These are very serious.

Mental tranquillity is very desirable during gestation, for the sake of both mother and offspring. Among the conflicting accounts and probabilities, it is rather difficult to decide whether marks really occur on children, in consequence of their mothers having seen striking or startling things. While such are more likely to be coincidences only, we cannot say that such effects of strong mental impression are entirely impossible. And it is certain that a fright or strong agitation of mind during pregnancy may produce abortion; or, without that, may so impair the nourishing power of the parent that the child may have its development interfered with, and, if not a mouster, or stillborn, it may be at the best but a weakling. Therefore much pains should be taken to promote the serenity of mind, as well as health and comfort of the body

of the mother, during this period. Hard labor is very unsuitable for pregnant women. Almost as bad is leaving the bed and going to work too soon after delivery. Many working women are thus injured, and the lives of their children shortened, by their mothers not being able to furnish them with sufficient nourishment in early infancy. The example of the generous French manufacturer, M. Dolfus, was an excellent one. He paid every married woman in his service, when brought to bed, six weeks' wages, without requiring any work for it.

MOTHER AND INFANT.

Parisian women have long had, whether they deserve it or not, the undesirable reputation of putting off the care and nutrition of their infants upon hired nurses, to a larger extent than is done anywhere out of France. It is said that ladies of wealth and fashion often send their babies away from home, in charge of such nurses. This kind of "babyfarming" is very unproductive of healthy life. The natural law of maternity includes the nursing of every child by its own mother. Unless her supply of breast-milk fails, or her deficient general health and strength unfit her for it, this should be regarded as a sacred duty, as well as a source of happiness. Next best, when this is impracticable, is the service, near the mother, of a healthy wet-nurse. Last, is the resort to the "bottle," feeding by hand, of which more will be said in another place in this book. Under such customs as that above mentioned, the natural increase of population in France is reported to be less annually than in any other civilized country in the world.

Our own country has increased wonderfully in population, which has, several times, doubled itself in twenty-five years. Immigration from Europe has had a large share in this. Apart from that, it is by no means certain that our numbers would now increase very fast. Dr. N. Allen, of Lowell, Mass., has shown by statistics that the number of children born of foreigners resident in Massachusetts is decidedly greater than in native American families. It is not easy to make sure of the explanation of such facts; but they seem to show that something is wrong with our people. Climate may have to do with it; but we may fear that our life is, also, too artificial; too far from healthy nature; with not enough escape from money-getting on the part of meu, and from social ambition and house-slavery, or society-servitude, with women. At all events, let us look around carefully, and try to discover the cause of this apparently growing anomaly; and correct it, if

possible.

HYGIENE OF INFANCY.

So much has been said already in this book concerning Food, Clothing, Bathing, etc., which applies to the care of infants as well as to that of the health of adults, that much less needs to be here presented than would be required in a treatise entirely devoted to the subject of Infancy and Childhood. Some things, however, must be briefly repeated, with additions.

Two critical times, at least, belong to babyhood: those of birth and of teething. In our great American cities, as New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, Chicago, and St. Louis, multitudes of children have added a third; which may be repeated for them two, three, or four times before (if they survive) they pass into the comparative security of childhood. This is midsummer weather in town. We must say something especially about each of these dangers of infant life.

BIRTH.

A child is born into the world! It cries vigorously; very well. The doctor has tied the "cord" by which, till this moment, it had, during its months of gestation, been connected vitally with the mother. Through that both nourishment and air (without breathing) had passed into its system from hers, affording material and stimulus for its growth and development. Now, it must have a separate (though still dependent) existence. Nothing in the world is so utterly helpless as it!

Exhausted with her labor, the mother must be allowed to rest awhile. Another (a nurse or friend) takes the babe to another room, sufficiently warm. She rabs it all over carefully with fresh lard or oil (some doctors now prefer vaseline or cosmoline; I do not). Carefully, all over; for the material on the surface of the body must be all removed. The mouth and eyes, and inside of the ears, should be well cleansed with a soft sponge, or soft rag or towel, dipped into warm water. Then, after the greasing, white castile soap and warm water must be used to wash it thoroughly (gently, of course). Some babies, after this, will be as red almost as a brick. A few will have a fine red rash, called in the nursery the "red gum." Still fewer may be yellow for a few days: the "yellow gum." Neither of these is usually of consequence. Occasionally the yellowness may grow into a real "jaundice of the newly born."

The cord, at the navel, will come off itself within six or eight or

nine days. At first, the best thing to do is to cut a piece of old linen or muslin about two and a half inches square; nip out in its centre with scissors a hole large enough for the cord, and after smearing the rag well with simple cerate, cold cream (from the apothecary's), or benzoated zinc ointment, pass the cord through it, and double it over twice. Then a light, soft flannel band may be wrapped over this around the babe's abdomen, not tightly; just tight enough to stay in its place. Every day, when the child is bathed, put a fresh greased rag upon the cord. If there comes to be any odor to it, sponge it (with a sponge kept clean just for that) with lime-water instead of common water. Should any soreners or rawness remain after the cord drops off (as it should, after some days, without being pulled), a soft doubled rag or compress, thickly spread with benzoated zinc ointment or simple cerate, should be kept upon it until it is quite healed.

After two, three, or four hours of rest, the child may be put to the mother's breast. Before that, or later if the mother's condition cause delay, the babe needs no food or drink, and is better without it.

The first milk, called "colostrum," is unlike what comes later, but will help to move the infant's bowels; which is well. It is good for the moller (under usual circumstances) to have the child soon at the breast.

Now we will suppose the first crisis to have passed. Babyhood has begun. How must it be cared for? Any mother of a second child can tell, as experience is better than any other teacher. But with the first baby, at least, much is yet to be learned.

NOURISHMENT.

Every mother should, if she can, nourish her own child, from her own breast. "It is as much her d dy to suckle it as to bear it." This is nature's law, as well as the law of love.

At first, for a few weeks, every two hours will not be too often for the child to be suckled, even at night. But the night intervals should be gradually lengthened; so that by the third or fourth month three hours may intervene each time during the night, and two hours all day. Then, also by degrees, the between times should grow longer in the daytime. A child six months old may often be trained to take the breast every three hours through the day and evening, and not at all between ten or eleven at night and five, six, or seven o'clock in the morning.

Regularity is a great thing; to be aimed at and made a habit from birth. Never let a mother keep a babe, well or sick, dangling at her breast all the time, day or night; especially not at night, and most of all if it is sick. Then its digestion is sure to be weak, and its stomach needs intervals of rest. It may need more "coddling," carrying, and soothing, than when well; and, if feverish, it may be thirsty, and should have cold water, not milk, between times. This should then be given it, from a bottle or a teaspoon, instead of an excess of milk.

Both breasts should be used, in turn, as nearly alike as can be. Otherwise the danger of "gathered breast" is much increased. Without early care as to this, a babe may "take a set" against one breast, and so give trouble. After nursing, the nipple should be carefully dried with a soft towel. In warm weather, it is a good plan to sponge it first with water in which a little soda (bicarbouate) has been dissolved. If there is the least chafing, benzouted zine ointment, or cold cream, may be applied; to be gently but thoroughly wiped off before nursing again.

A mother's care of herself is of the greatest consequence to her child. If she be much agitated in mind, or tired out with company, or have her digestion interfered with by unwholesome food, or disturbed by powerful medicines, her milk will affect her babe. Convulsions and death of an infant have resulted from a nursing mother being greatly excited by anger or alarm. Here for example, is a case. A woman saw her husband in danger from a quarrel with a soldier, who drew a sword upon him, which she snatched away. Soon afterwards she gave the breast to her infant, eleven months old, and before in good health. The child took it for a while, then quitted it with agitation, and died in a few minutes.

Should a nursing woman take ale, beer, wine, or spirits to "make more milk" for her? No, no, no! No healthy woman needs anything of the kind; if she takes much of anything alcoholic, it poisons her milk for the child. Plenty of milk, and all other simple, nourishing, digestible food, after she has left her chamber, she should take. If these do not keep up her strength, she may have to wean, or partly wean, her infant. But let her take no alcoholic drink whatever, unless ordered by a competent physician. Alcohol is to be regarded as medicine; not food; especially for nursing mothers.

Some mothers, unfortunately, cannot furnish nourishment for their offspring. Either they have no milk, or very little, so little that a child cannot live on it; or they are in such feeble health that it will risk their lives to afford it; or indisposition may make their milk unfit, unsafe for nourishment. What then?

Certainly, some other healthy mother's breast will be the next best

thing? Can this be had? Far from always. A good wet-nurse may often be extremely hard to get. And one who is not good is worse than none. She must be sufficiently young, yet must have had some experience; twenty-five is about a good age. She must be healthy, cleanly, kind, yood-tempered, not stupid, and faithful. If all these qualities can be found, for love or money, in one person, by all means have a wetnurse.

If not, we must resort to the bottle. First, however, ascertain whether the mother has not some good milk, even though not enough. If she has half enough (as is the case with quite a number) let her give the babe the benefit of this, if it lasts, until the child has passed through the most of its teething, or at least has weathered its first summer. Let her nurse it two or three times in the day and evening, and give it (or have given to it) the bottle for the rest of the time.

Indeed, it is a good roan, under all circumstances, for a child six months old to learn to use bottle-food, so as to make the change more easy later, especially if illness or some other cause should oblige the

mother to wean it suddenly.

WEANING.

This never should be sudden, if it can be helped. How soon should it come?

American Indian squaws are said to suckle their papooses through their second year; some Asiatic mothers, even till near the end of the third year. Why not? Another gestation may interfere with it; making the supply of milk less in amount, and less wholesome. Some have thought that the return of the monthly period stands in the way; but of this there is not sufficient evidence.

On the whole, if a mother can nurse her infant a full year, it will be well; if eighteen months, still better. When she has, up to two years, half enough for it, let it get what it can from her, and eke out the rest with outside nourishment. Never let a child be weaned in summer if it can be helpful.

BOTTLE-FEEDING.

We speak of this at once, because the bottle is vastly better than the spoon. It imitates nature better; it allows the food to go more slowly into the stomach; and it gives the infant desirable exercise in taking it.

If, then, the child cannot have the breast of its mother, or of a suitable substitute, get for it a glass bottle, holding about half a piut, with

a rubber nipple, but without a tube. Two bottles, or at least two nipples, will be well to have, for alternate use and thorough cleansing of both. For a lube less than a month old, half a bottle ut once will do for a meal. In a few months, it will readily take nearly or quite a whole one, several times n day. A child six months old can, and ought to, appropriate three vints of milk or more in twenty-four hours. Remember, a child has to grow as well as to live. Of course, we ought not to "stuff" it. When too much has been swallowed, it will often (and had better) be thrown up. If it be milk, this is then usually curdled. Untaught persons are frightened at this; but the fact is that milk is always curdled at the beginning of digestion. The natural acid of the stomach acts thus upon it.

After each time of use, the bottle ought to be scalded (that is, washed out with hot water); in summer time, or where the child is delicate, an added precaution is to add soda to the water with which it is eleansed.

MILK.

What shall "bottle food" be? Milk, of course, as the great staple article. Nobody has invented, or is likely to invent, anything half so good, as a rule. Even when some other foods are given, they are in most cases best added to or prepared with milk.

Much has been said on our previous pages (under Food and Drink) about the qualities of milk; how to tell good milk from poor milk, etc. Let us, then, here only emphasize a few matters.

Cow's milk is almost the only kind used in this country; here and there, goat's milk may be had. Cow's milk is stronger in "solid" contents than woman's milk, but the latter is sweeter.* Common.ly, then, during the first months, a little pure water is added (half, or less, of the amount of milk), and a little white sugar. As the child grows older,

^{*} Professor A. R. Leeds (1884) gives as the result of eighty analyses of human milk, the following average composition for it:

Albuminoids (casein Fatty matter (cream)		albr	men)					. 2 parts.
Sugar of milk Ash (mineral salts) Water		•	•	•	•	•	•	. 4 "
	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	. 7 "
			•	•	•	•	•	. 0.20
	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 86.80

Cow's milk contains more than twice as much of the (nitrogenous) albuminoids, and considerably less sugar. Woman's milk is rather more dense than cow's milk, having a specific gravity of 1031, water being 1000, and cow's milk 1029 to 1030.

182 MILK.

less water is needed, and within the year, often, none at all. A great mistake was formerly made, in mixing two pints of water with every pint of milk; the poor things sometimes, no doubt, starved under such a regimen.

But, sometimes, the thicker and harder cards made in the stomach with ...w's milk may be difficult for the babe to digest. It becomes collegy and fretful, or it refuses the bottle. Then we must add rather more water, and something else to help to diffuse the clots, thus keeping

them from forming solid masses.

Starchy (farinaceous) materials will do this pretty well. Such alone will not nourish a child fully, as explained in our Physiology; arrow-root, farina, and other starches contain no nitrogen, and some of this element is indispensable for the growth of muscles, bones, and Lrains. Moreover, during the first three or four months very little saliva or panereatic juice is formed, and, without these, starch is not digested. But the mechanical qualities of starch fit it for mixing up the casein and albumen of milk in the fluids of the stomach, and so promoting its digestion.

Simple articles, especially barley, rice, and oatmeal, are commonly available for this purpose. Either of them does best when ground (or beaten in a mortar) to a fine powder for use. Barley-water answers well when the bowels are about right (that is, from two to four moderate, natural passages daily); rice, when there is diarrhora; oatmeal, when

the child is "bound," or not ree enough in the bowels.

For barley-water, a teaspoonful of barley-meal for a two or three months' old infant, two teaspoonfuls for one over six months, may be mixed with a tablespoonful or two of cold water, and then put into a pint of water. Bring this to the boiling-point, and boil it down to half a pint. (With an ordinary fire, this may require half an hour or more.) Strain it through a fine sieve or a clean linen cloth, and stir it in with a pint of milk, adding a little salt, and an even teaspoonful of granulated white sugar. Put what is not used at once, in a cold place (on ice, if it be summer time, or in the spring-house in the country) to keep for the next feeding-time. Never give milk twenty-four hours old to a young child, under any circumstances.

Rice and oatmeal may be prepared in the same way, and used according to the state of the child's bowels, when milk alone does not appear to digest well. Should neither of these simple additions meet the difficulty, you may safely try some of the "infants' foods." Mellin's, Horlick's, Nestle's, and Imperial Granum are, I think, the best. These "foods" are not, like arrow-root, sago, and tapioca, merely storches. They contain some also of the nitrogenous materials. Imperial Granum, for in-

Similar in nature are nutring and papoma, and cerealing. Dr. J. F. Meigs' food is particularly designed for infants with weak bowels. For making it, take a piece of gelatin two inches square; soak it awhile in a little cold water, put it into a pint of water and boil it down to half a pint. While it is boiling, add to it half a pint o lik and a table-tpoonful of cream, with a little white sugar; then it is ready for use. It would be hard to prove one of these foods, as a rule, to be much better than another. Some suit one child, some another; and all of them are valuable as occasional additions to, or variations from, never as total substitutes for milk. Condensed milk may be used when you cannot get reliable fresh milk; only then. It needs no additional sugar. One or two tenspoonfuls of it will be enough for a bottle, at least for a young infant.

It is not necessary, indeed it is hardly desirable, to ask a dairyman to furnish only the milk from one cow. You must know the cow very well to be sure that its milk is the best. A good dairyman is the best dependence of all; and there is no harm in mixing the milk of several cows, all equally fresh. What ought not to be done is to mix two days' milks together. Thorough scouring of the pans, and keeping milk in a pure atmosphere (as well as a coal one), are of extreme importance.

When milk is served only once a day in hot weather, it had better be brought at once to the boiling point,—to make it keep better,—and then set in the coolest and cleanest part of the house; best of all, put on icc.

A young infant, under a year old had better take all its food warm; unless in the torrid heat of our midsummer. With the thermometer from 95° to 98°, one does not, young or old, want mything warm, inside or out.

If there be a sour smell on the breath, or sourness of the eurds thrown up, or colicky pain after feeding, or beginning looseness of the bowels, lime-water should be added to the bottle-food. A tablespoonful to the bottle will not be too much. It is always harmless, if the bowels are not constipated; and it often does a great deal of good. When very tough curds are formed after taking cow's milk, a pinch of soda (bicarbonate) will help to dissolve them still more effectually than limewater or the starch foods. But soda must be used in small doses, and occasionally only. Lime-water may be, if called for, an every-day remedy for sourness of stomach, especially with a disposition towards diarrhea.

For thirst, between feeding-times, in summer weather, the best plau is to give cold water moderately, and supply from time to time a soft clean rag containing pounded ice for the child to suck. When the child has fever, however, it may often need to drink a good deal

CLOTHING.

Referring again to what has been already said in another part of this volume about clothing for persons of all ages, we may now shortly

repeat some main things in regard to babies.

Let their clothing, from birth, be warm enough and loose enough for comfort. No tight bands should ever be put on them. Some parents, in over-anxiety about cold, put on three times as much as is needed, and then shut all their chamber and nursery windows a loors, with big, hot fires; wondering, then, that their babies are free, and often seem to catch cold almost every time they are taken out!

Babies re tactual cold less safely than older persons; but just enough elothing is anways better than too much for them. And they do not need to have the cooms they live in any warmer than we do—say 68° to 70° Fahr, usually. They are also more hurt by close, foul air than

grown people are.

When they are old enough to wear short clothes, a common mistake has been of an opposite kind: to leave their arms and legs bare; they are so pretty thus! But many an attack of croup and of inflammation of the lungs, sometimes fatal, has followed such exposure in a chilly atmosphere. Children should have no less protection of their limbs from cold than men and women. Even though, when healthy and active, they do not seem to feel it; it is not safe.

Very important is the changing of clothes with infants. When their thighs are wet, and all next to them is soiled, they should be changed at onc; always. Neglect of this may cause chafing of the skin, very disturbing to the child, and sometimes shad as a burn. A soft sponge is, when the skin is tender, better than a rag or towel; but a sponge must be well oleansed every time, with soap and hot water, to be used again. Dusting with a little "pat" filled with fine starch or arrow-root

powder is very soothing and protective.

When the skin has become sore about the thighs, the child will show it by a sharp cry on wetting itself. Redness elso, as well as tenderness te the touch, will be found on examining it. Then tallow, cold cream (of the apothecary), or oxide of zinc ointment, should be applied gently every night and morning (or oftener if need be) after changing it. The worst cases, such as come only from considerable neglect, manneed to be treated like burns, with soft rags, wet with lime-water and sweet oil (equal parts, mixed), and covered with oiled silk.

Babies, as well as adults, should have the head kept cool, and the

feet warm. Out of doors, a cap is all right—thick or light according to the season; but there is no need of any cap being worn in the house. They are better without it.

A frequent trouble is with the bed-covers at night. First, never forget that covering maken no warmth of itself. It only keeps (by non-conduction) what warmth the body has of its own. So, if a baby is put cold into a cold bed, especially if it be sick, it may scarcely get warm all night. In that case the bed-clothing should be warmed first; by passing a hot flat-iron under and over it; or, for an ill baby, keeping a warm brick or bottle or tin of hot water in the bed while needed.

Restless children will often fling and kick the bod-covers all off at night; and this exposes them to taking cold. Watching them all night is hard service. Much better will be the canton-flannel night-gown, scan up tight (like mittens) at the ends of the hands and feet. If they do throw everything else off, this will keep them still pretty warm.

Must infants always wear flanuel in the daytime? Delicate ones certainly should, in our climate; thick (though soft) flanuel in winter, and light flanuel in summer time. When an infant shows itself, at two or three years of age, to be hardy, its summer flanuel may be left off safely. Silk, 'a merino, will do for all but weakly children.

BATHING.

A new-born child should be bathed only in warm water, in a warm room. From 95° to 90° should be the temperature of its bath; the thermometer had better be used, as the touch is so uncertain.* As it gets older, at least if it seems "hearty," the water may be allowed gradually to go down to 85°; or, in warm weather, even 80°. The best test of its not being too cool is, the infant being rosy and merry after the bath. A child should like its bath, if it is rightly managed; never startling it with a sudden plunge, but accustoming it to it by degrees. A mother had better bathe her own baby, if she is well and strong enough to do so.

One error especially to be avoided is, letting a child, once wet all over, sit half in and half out of the water; being thus chilled by evaporation from the uncovered part of the body. A little patient of mine, just

^{*}Some intelligence, also, is here wanted. Once, when my baby was to be bathed, its mother sent the nurse with the thermometer to see whether the room was warm enough. She came back in about five minutes, saying that at first it was too cold, but after she had put the thermometer to the fire awhile, it got quite warm!

getting well after scarlet fever, lost his life through this kind of im-

prudence on the part of a nurse.

During our hottest weather, when the thermometer ranges between 95° and 100°, even a young infant may profit by a cool bath, say at 75° or 70°; but ther it must be a short-time bath also. The cooler, the shorter the time of immersion.

Much soap does not need to be used in bathing infants. If the child be bathed daily, it needs (after its first thorough cleansing) only an occasional employment, unless about the thighs, of a little of the best castile soap. Salt may be added to the bath if the child is weakly, for its tonic effect. In sickness, warm or hot baths may be of great service; but our account of the use of such belongs in another place.

EXERCISE.

After the first few months, a babe should be allowed and encouraged to sprawl; first on a wide bed, being watched that it does not fall off; afterwards on a carpeted floor, or a rug. This will spread its chest, and bring most of its muscles into play. Thus it will gain strength, and get ready, in due time (don't hurry it) to stand up and walk. Crawling comes first, according to the true nature of bodily development.

AIRING.

Very soon every baby ought to begin to be taken out in fine weather. In summer, no matter how soon; in winter, it requires care about keeping it warm, of course. But quite young infants may be, with proper out-of-door clothing, accustomed to being taken out into the sunshine and air every fine day.

A nursery ought to be always a sunny and well-aired room. As already said, infants suffer more harm from bad air than grown people do. Scarlet fever, measles, whooping-cough, diphtheria, and all other diseases are commonly worst, killing the most children, in tenement-houses (like those of New York and Boston); and, elsewhere, in crowded alleys, where people live too close together and do not have fresh, pure air to breathe.

SLEEP.

For the first month or two, an infant naturally sleeps more than half its time. All through the first year, many babies sleep from twelve to sixteen hours in the twenty-fonr. It is a grand thing for all concerned when the little one can be trained early to sleep most of the night. Habit may be formed, in such matters, very soon. On this something was said when we were considering the feeding of babies.

Lay the child down to sleep, from the start; do not get it used to being carried about to go to sleep in somebody's arms. Put it to sleep in its erib alone, as a rule. Hard to believe as it seems, some weary slumbrous mothers have overlain their babies; that is, rolled upon them while asleep and suffocated them. Morcover, the vapors from another human body make the bed less wholesome for the child. Yet, with a wide bed, convenience may sometimes afford reason for a child being laid beside, but not too near, its mother or nurse.

Never rock a child in a cradle. This has, happily, quite gone out of fashion. If it has any effect, it is by causing a kind of dizziness (like seasiekness) which cannot be good for the child.

Let the baby soon get used to going to sleep in the dark. Otherwise, when it gets older, it will be afraid to do so, with a fear often very hard to overcome.

Put no curtains about a bed, for child or grown person. Bed-curtains were an absurdity of an almost inexcusable kind. It is hard to get enough pure air into a sleeping chamber; let alone inside of a closely curtained bed. If we slept out of doors, as men do in camps, we ought to cover our bodies warmly; and bald people, their heads; but even then, our faces ought to be out, anywhere at least short of the neighborhood of the North or South Pole.

Most babies, when they do sleep well early in the night, wake very early in the morning, and then want food. Before noon they are apt to be ready to take a nap of two or three hours. Some will also want an afternoon nap of an hour or two. Let them sleep all they will; sleep and grow fat. Never wake a young child (or indeed an older one) suddenly; it jars their brains. When their sleep is out they will wake up of themselves.

DISCHARGES.

Every mother ought to know that it is natural for infants to have two, three, or four passages from the bowels every twenty-four hours, when perfectly well. In the first month or two the discharge is more or less fluid; afterwards it becomes more nearly solid, but always softer than later in life; of a brown color when nothing is the matter. A sick child may have the stools slate-colored, yellow, green, black, enry, slimy, or bloody; all of which changes are important, and will be noticed in the medical part of our work hereafter. (See page 508.)

Water is passed from the kidneys of an infant several times during each twenty-four hours. If that is not the case, something is wrong, and requires attention. Warming the water of its bath more than usual is a suitable measure at such a time; and giving sweet sp. of nitre, 3 or 4 drops at once, in a teaspoonful or more of water.

TEETHING.

Mothers and nurses ought to know what to look for in their babies' mouths, as the months follow each other in their first two years.

Only twenty teeth, be it remembered, come in the first set, or "milk teeth." Thirty-two follow these, and take their place, in the second set.

About the end of the sixth month (from the fifth to the eighth), it is common for the two lower middle front teeth to appear through the gnm; and not long after, even sometimes before these, the two upper middle front ones. These are called cutting or incisor teeth. So are the next to come out—alongside of the first—the lateral incisors (side cutting teeth), below and above; which appear between the eighth and the tenth months. Before the nfant is a year old, then, it usually has at least its eight front teeth out: four below and four above.

Next, we might expect those nearest these to appear; but they do not. Instead come the *first jaw* or **molar** teeth: two below and two above; between the *twelfth* and the *fourteenth* months.

Then follow, between the fourteenth and twentieth months, the stomach and eye teeth, as people call them; the four canine teeth, two below and two above; pointed teeth.

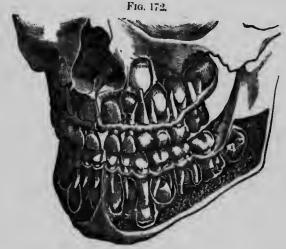
After these, and last of the first set, come the second jaw or molar teeth: two below and two above; between the eighteenth and the thirty-sixth months. In each jaw, in all, there are then four incisors,

two canines, and four molar teeth; doubling these, we get the twenty of the whole set. The following diagram shows this, with the order of their succession:

5	3	4	2	1 I	1	2	4	3	5
M	M	C	1	I	I	1	C	M	M
M	M	C	1	T	T	Т	C	3.0	30
5	3	4	2	1	1	2	4	3	5

I stands for Incisor; C for Canine; M for Molar.

This order is the *general* mode of succession; but variations from it are far from rare. Often the upper teeth, front and all, come before



DEVELOPMENT OF TEETH.

the lower ones. The time for each group of teeth is frequently later, and sometimes earlier, than that above mentioned. Last week, for example, I was told of a baby which has four front teeth out at five months; and I once had under my care an Irish child which was born with two upper teeth. Historians tell the same thing of Julius Cæsar.

As the time comes near (about the sixth or seventh year) for the second dentition, the new set, whose germs were in the jaws at birth, grow steadily larger in the gums. The milk-teeth are not forced out; but, under the wonderful natural adaptation of parts, their fangs are gradually absorbed, and thus they loosen and drop out, or are easily taken out, and make way for the second set of permanent teeth. (How often not very permanent in our country, all the dentists know.)

These are thirty-two in number (see Anatomy). The first to come through the gums are the first molar or jaw teeth. Next, at about seven years of age, the middle incisors; then the lateral incisors, at or near the end of the eighth year. After these, the first premolars (bicuspids) or lesser jaw teeth; and in the ninth year, the second premolars. Between eleven and twelve years, the permanent canines, two above and two below. From twelve to thirteen or four-teen years, the second molars; and from seventeen to twenty-one years, the last molars, or wisdom teeth. These last are often imperfect from the start.

Occasionally, even the second teething is attended by soreness and irritability of the mouth, nervousness, etc. But very often it would pass almost unnoticed, except for the "bother" of getting rid of the loosening first teeth, as the others come. The really trying teething time is with the first set of teeth; from the sixth month to about the

end of the second year of infancy.

Dentition is a process of growth. A great deal of blood is needed in the tissues of the jaws for this purpose. Moreover, for the teeth to "come out," the gums must give way, by absorption. Should this be slow, a tension of the gum may occur; and, through the nerves, the whole system may be brought into sympathetic excitement. As the nervous apparatus is much more irritable, more easily disturbed, in babyhood than in adult life—we often have, from this cause, worrying; fretfulness; sometimes fits, or convulsions. A child which was "always good" before, now may cry a great deal, losing its reputation for goodness altogether.

A word here about babies' crying. A healthy child, not teething, if well taken care of, will very seldom cry. Some mothers and nurses will not admit this; but from a good deal of observation I insist upon it. Mark, I say a healthy child, well taken care of. If a child's wants, namely, food, warmth, sleep, and timely changing, are duly attended to, why should it cry? But if it becomes very hungry, and is not nourished, or is cold, or too warm, or is left with garments soiled and wet, of course it cries. And, the habit once formed, cry it will, though the whole household and neighborhood regard it as a "crying evil."

Several sorts of crying may be observed, which it is desirable to understand. First there is the cry of surprise, on the child being first ushered into the world. That is all right and natural.

[&]quot;On mother's knees, a naked, new-born child,
Thou only wept, while all around thee smiled.
So live, that, sinking in thy last long sleep,
Thou then may'st smile, while all around thee was p."

Next, comes the calling cry, of hunger, thirst, or other want. Sharper and shriller, sometimes a violent scream, is the cry of pain; as of colic or earache; or of fright, as when a babe rolls ont of its bed or crib upon the floor. Much like the cry of simple want, but habitually harsher in manner, is that of demand or command, of a child already spoiled; finding that whatever it cries for it will get. An aggravation only of this, is the (sometimes fairly impish) roar and succession of screams, of temper and passion. Disease has various cries; according to its churacter. Sometimes it is only a faint moan, attending nearly every breath. Other times it is hoarse, as in cronp; along with a short, barking cough. Or it may be the wild scream of inflammation of the brain. Of these, which are symptoms of diseases, more in another place.

Teething is not a disease, a morbid process, at all. But it is an important change, which for the time renders the child more than before or after liable to disorders, under any disturbing causes; and the process of penetration of the gums by the young teeth may sometimes itself be imperfectly accomplished. The most common and least alarming effect of the "sympathetic irritation" of teething is diarrheea. This seems often to give a safe rent and relief to the disturbance of the system. Three or four, or even five moderately free passages from the bowels daily, at such times, are not objectionable; are much better than coustipation. Convulsions are frightful to behold, and attended by danger. Of these we will speak in the medical part of this work.

Here, however, it may be suitable to refer briefly to lancing the gums. Once, this practice was universal; every babe had its gums cut almost every time that a new tooth was about to appear, whether it gave much trouble or not. From this (as with bleeding from the arm, and some other old methods of practice) there has come to be a reaction, and some physicians never lance infants' gums at all. Having been brought up and beginning practice under the old régime, I have seen enough to convince me fully that extremes are not right here, more than elsewhere. Healthy babies may often pass through their teething without needing to have their gums lanced. But some may be, by this sin ple and harmless means, kept from having convulsions, which, if brought on, may threaten their lives. I call lancing the gums harmless, because it should be and always may be so. Use a clean, sharp lancet, and divide the gum with a straight, firm cut; in the direction of the edge if it be an incisor, and across the crown if a molar tooth; and then there will never be any "scars" or other trouble. Perhaps ouce or twice in a century, in America or Europe, a child may be found which is naturally a "bleeder," so that the smallest cut will hardly be a 3,

^{*} Hamophilia of medical language.

If so, such a tendency must be a family trait, already well known and to be remembered.

My belief is that it is well to lance the gums whenever they are much swollen, red, painful, and worrying, to the child, making it nervous and hard to get to sleep; or when, even though not swollen, the tooth is evidently not far within the gum, which seems tense, and a source of irritation, calling for relief. Many a child, once helped by this measure, will ask for it, with looks if it has no words (as I have seen) to have it repeated.

A lesser, but not unimportant means of relief for worriment of the mouth during teething, is the use of rubber rings, bits of ivory, etc., smooth and firm, but too large to swallow, for the child to bite upon. When there is much heat of the mouth, a soft rag filled with pounded ice will, in summer time, do the most good.

At no time is it more needful than during dentition, to be very careful about the *food* which the child takes. Indigestion is a very common exciting cause of convulsions.

SUMMER DANGERS.

In our American cities, hot weather kills more young children than any other cause. Look at the weekly record of deaths in New York or Philadelphia, and you will find that every degree of noon temperature above 95° costs scores if not hundreds of little lives. In those cities, about one-half of the deaths of children in the first year of life, and nearly one-third of those in the second year, take place in June, July, and August.

High heat, crowding, filth, and unsuitable food, conspire against children in the summer homes of the city poor. But the rich may suffer also, from excessive heat, town air, and improper diet, for their children; and these causes produce many cases of summer complaint, or "cholera infantum."

Whoever, of our city families, can take their infants out into the country, during their first, second, and third summers, for the months of June, July, August, and September, ought to do it. With those who cannot, the next best thing is to take or send them out on frequent excursions, on land or water, and to have them often in the open parks or equares; for as much pure, cool air as they can get. It is the best preventive, and often the best curative, of summer complaint.

For those who are obliged to live in the crowded parts of towns or

villages, the rules given by the Obstetrical Society of Philadelphia "for the management of infants during the hot season" have proved serviceable. I will quote them here, in addition to what has been already said on our previous pages on the same subjects.

Rule 1 .- Bathe the child once a day in tepid water. If it is feeble, sponge it all over once it day with tepid water, or with tepid water and vinegar. The health of a child depends much upon its cleanliness.

Rule 2.—Avoid all tight bandaging. Make the clothing light and cool, and so loose that the child may have free play for its limbs. At night undress it, sponge it, and put on a slip. In the morning remove the slip and dress the child in clean clothes. If this cannot be afforded, thoroughly air the day-clothing by hanging it up during the night. Use clean diapers, and change them often. Never dry a soiled one in the nursery or in the sitting-room, and never use one for a second time without first washing it.

Rule 3.—The child should sleep by itself in a cot or eradle. should be put to bed at regular hours, and be early taught to go to sleep without being nursed in the arms. Without the advice of a physician, never give it any spirits, cordials, carminatives, soothing-syrups, or sleeping-drops. Thousands of children die every year from the use of these poisons. If the child frets and does not sleep, it is either hungry or ill. If ill, it needs a physician. Never quiet it by candy or cake; they are the common causes of diarrhoa and of other troubles.

Rule 4.—Give the child plenty of fresh air. In the cool of the morning and evening send it out to the shady sides of broad streets, to the public squares, or to the Park. Make frequent excursions on the rivers. Whenever it seems to suffer from the heat, let it drink freely of ice-water. Keep it out of the room in which washing or cooking is going on. It is excessive heat that destroys the lives of young

Rule 5.-Keep your house sweet and clean, cool and well aired. In very hot weather let the windows be open day and night. Do your cooking in the yard, in a shed, in the garret, or in an upper room. Whitewash the walls every spring, and see that the cellar is clear of all rubbish. Let no slops collect to poison the air. Correct all foul smells by ponring carbolic acid or quicklime into the sinks and privies. The fermer article can be got from the nearest druggist, who will give the needful directions for its use. Make every effort yourself, and urge your neighbors, to keep the gutters of your street or court clean.

Rule 6.—Breast-milk is the only proper food for infants. If the supply is ample, and the child thrives on it, no other kind of food should be given while the hot weather lasts. If the mother has not

enough, she must not wean the child, but give it, besides the breast, goat's or cow's milk, as prepared under Rule 8. Nurse the child once in two or three hours during the day, and as seldom as possible during the night. Always remove the child from the breast as soon as it has fallen asleep. Avoid giving the breast when you are over-fatigued or overheated.

Rule 7.—If, unfortunately, the child must be brought up by hand, it should be fed on a milk-diet alone, and that, warm milk out of a nursing-bottle, as directed under Rule 8. Goat's milk is the best, and next to it, cow's milk. If the child thrives on this diet, no other kind of food whatever should be given while the hot weather lasts. At all seasons of the year, but especially in summer, there is no safe substitute for milk to an infant that has not cut its front teeth. Sago, arrow-root, potatoes, corn-flour, crackers, bread, every patented food, and every article of diet containing starch, cannot and must not be depended on as food for very young infants. Creeping or walking children must not be allowed to pick up unwholesome food.

Rule 8.—Each bottleful of milk should be sweetened by a small lump of loaf-sugar, or by half a teaspoonful of crushed sugar. If the milk is known to be pure, it may have one-fourth part of hot water added to it; but, if it is not known to be pure, no water need be added. When the heat of the weather is great, the milk may be given quite cold. Be sure that the milk is unskimmed; have it as fresh as possible, and brought very early in the morning. Before using the pans into which it is to be poured, always scald them with boiling snds. In very hot weather, boil the milk as soon as it comes, and at once put away the vessels holding it in the coolest place in the house—upon ice if it can be afforded, or down a well. Milk carelessly allowed to stand in a

warm room soon spoils, and becomes unfit for food.

Rule 9.—If the milk should disagree, a tablespoonful of line-water may be added to each bottleful. Whenever pure milk cannot be got, try the condensed milk, which often answers admirably. It is sold by all the leading druggists and grocers, and may be prepared by adding, without sugar, one teaspoonful, or more, according to the age of the child, to six tablespoonfuls of boiling water. Should this disagree, a teaspoonful of arrow-root, of sago, or of corn-starch to the pint of milk may be cautiously tried. If milk in any shape cannot be digested, try, for a few days, pure cream diluted with three-fourths or three-fifths of water—returning to the milk as soon as possible.

Rule 10.—The nursing-bottle must be kept perfectly clean; otherwise the milk will turn sour, and the child will be made ill. After each meal it should be emptied, rinsed out, taken apart, and the tube, cork,

nipple, and bottle be placed in clean water, or in water to which a little soda has been added. It is a good plan to have two nursing-bottles, and to use them by turns.

Rule 11.—Do not went the child just before or during the hot weather, nor, as a rule, until after its second summer. If suckling disagrees with the mother, she must not wean the child, but feed it in part, out of a nursing-bottle, on such food as has been directed. However small the supply of breast-milk, provided it agrees with the child, the mother should carefully keep it up against sickness: it alone will often save the life of a child when everything else fails. When the child is over six months old, the mother may save her strength by giving it one or two meals a day of stale bread and milk, which should be pressed through a sieve and put into a mursing-bottle. When from eight months to a year old, it may have also one meal a day of the yolk of a fresh and rare-boiled egg, or one of bee. or mutton-broth into which stale bread has been crumbled. When older than this, it can have a little meat finely minced; but even then milk should be its principal food, and not such food as grown people eat.

CONSTIPATION OF THE BOWELS IN CHILDREN.

When an infant's bowels do not act, at least once or twice, freely, every day, sweet (olive) oil may be given, a teaspoonful at once; or manna, a quarter of a teaspoonful at a time (it is sweet and easily taken); or simple syrup of rhubarb, a teaspoonful at once; or glycerin, a teaspoonful at a time. If the stomach is sick at the same time, magnesia (Husband's or Henry's is best) may do more good, a quarter or half a teaspoonful, according to the age of the child, stirred well up in a little water. If colic is present, castor oil, a teaspoonful mixed with two teaspoonfuls of spiced syrup of rhubarb will be the best thing to open the bowels.

GREAT LONGEVITY.

Learned Biblical scholars are not agreed as to the true rendering of the account of the ages of the Patriarchs mentioued in the Book of Genesis. Some of them hold that by the term commonly translated "years" are meant periods each of not more than three months. It however, altogether conceivable that during the fresh vigor of the you of the human race life was much longer than now. "Threescore years and ten" are mentioned in the Scriptures as, in Solomou's time, what would be called the "expectation" of human life. Yet, apart from the commonly understood centuries of Methuseluh and others, good reason exists for believing that, at its early best, the longevity of man ought to have been at least two hundred years; and that now it ought to be, under the most favorable conditions and circumstances, a hundred years.

Actually, nowadays, not more than about one in 3000 or 4000 people born is a centenarian; while, of every 1000 born, from 150 to 200 die in their first year, and from 250 to 400 under five years of age; the average duration of has an life being under, or perhaps now about, forty

vears.

Dr. Farr, a noted English authority, says that if one could watch the march of 1,000,000 people through life, the following result would be observable: Nearly 150,000 will die the first year, 53,000 the second year, 28,000 in the third year, and less than 4000 in the thirteenth year. At the end of forty-five years 500,000 will have died. At the end of sixty years 370,000 will be still living; at the end of eighty years, 97,000; at eighty-five years, 31,000, and at ninety-five years, 2100. At the end of one hundred years there will be 223, and at the end of one hundred and eight years there will be but one survivor.

Tradition, beginning in the obscurity of antiquity, gives a considerable list of men and women said to have exceeded a century of longevity. Among these were Hippocrates, "father of medicine," 100 years; Saint Anthony, 105; James the Hermit, 104; Saint Jerome, 100; Simeon Stylites, 109; Cardinal de Sales, 110; De Belloy, Archbishop of Paris, 100; Kentigern (St. Mongah), 185! Ephraim Pratt, of Shutesbury, England, 117; his son, Michael Pratt, 103; Henry Francisco, in this country, 140. One record published in England names the following also: Robert Pooles, of Tyross in Ireland, 116 (died in 1742); Mary Power, aunt of R. Lalor Sheil, 116; David Kerrison, a soldier of our Revolution (died 1852), 117; Ursal Chieken (!), of Holderness, England, 120 (died 1722); Charles Cottrell, of Philadelphia, dying (1761) 120 years old, left a wife 115, they having lived

together 98 years; a Duehess of Bucclengh, 20 years a maiden, 50 years a wife, 50 years a widow, died (1728) 120 years old; William Beatty, who fought at the buttle of the Boyne (died 1774), 130 years; Mrs. Keith, of Newman, 133; John McDonneh, of Ennis, Ireland, 138; Countess of Desmond, who went to market on foot almost to the day of her death, 140! A shib on the floor of a church building in Herefordshire is inscribed with the name of Elizabeth Lewis, dying in 1715, aged 141 years. One Eckelson, in Ireland, was reputed to be at his death in 1696, 148 years of age. A tombstone in Conway churchyard records that Lowry Owens Vanghan (a woman) died in 1766, aged 192!

In Scotland (says nnother account), James Lawrence reached the end of his 140th year; the Countess Electon, at death, counted 143; Thomas Winslow, 146; Elsphet Watson, 115 (only 33 inches in height); in England, John Efingham, 144; Francis Consist, 150; in Norway, Jonas Surrington, 159; in France, Jean Claude Jacob, a member of the Academy, 121; Fontenelle, Secretary of the Academy, 100; in Spain, Dr. Verdugo, oldest physician of his time (1868), 105; at Rome, Madeline Onofri, 121; Venice, Marquis Cornaro, 100; in the United States, Joseph Crele, of Detroit, 141.

Very famous were the two English patriarchs, Thomas Parr, dying in London in 1635, aged 152 years by the records, and Henry Jenkins of Yorl shire, dying in 1670, aged 169. Parr's death was, after all, premature. His renown took him to London, as a sort of lion in society; they feasted him so bountifully that the unaccustomed dissipation shortened his days.

Other instances, less noted, have been those of Kezinh Smith, of Virginia (dying in 1868 or 9) 125 years; a Pole deceased about the same time, 139; Rachel Byer, said to be living in Iowa, in 1866, 114; a Canadian hunter and guide in Kansas, 134; Baron de Waldeck, a great traveller, dying in 1875, 109; George Labar, of Monroe County, Penna., who died in 1874, 111; Mary Loquaire, native of San Domingo, dying in Philadelphia in 1872, 107; Augustus Picard, of Quebec, 107; Kate Shepp, of Harrisouburg, Va., 120; Nancy Roberts, of Philadelphia, burned to death in 1871, 110 to 120 years.

Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson described in the Christian Union in 1883, a woman named Eumesia, whom she visited in the far West in 1882; who was shown on good evidence to have been born in 1760.

W. J. Thoms, F. S. A., of London, published in 1873 an essay on Longevity; in which he asserted that he had found reason to discredit the great ages ascribed by common report to Henry Jenkins, Thomas Parr, and the Countess of Desmond, above mentioned. He admits, however, at least five centenarians: Jane Chassereau Williams, of London

don, 1739–1841; William Plank, of England, 1767–1867; Jacob W. Luning, of Hanover, 1767–1870; Catharine Eden, of England, and David Rennie, of Scotland. His reviewer in the New York Nation, mentions also seven authenticated instances: Four Harvard graduates, Dr. E. A. Holyoke, Timothy Farrar, Sampson Solter Blowers, and Dr. Ezra Green, Daniel Waldo, Mehitable Barker Piper, and Anna Simpson Dix. Sir Moses Monteflore, the wealthy and benevolent English Israelite, is now living (1885) in his hundredth year; and Chevreul, the great French chemist and professor still delivers lectures, although certainly more than ninety-four years old, according to one account nearly uinety-nine. Shall we wish longer life to them? *

Very great age is scarcely to be wished for, so many are its privations and infirmities. Yet, with all the appliances of our modern civilization,

it may now be made more tolerable than ever before.

HOW TO LIVE LONG.

No one of the venerable company of those who have survived a hundred years has left behind any special secret of long life.† All that we

* The following is from a Philadelphia daily paper of 1883:

A LIVELY CENTENARIAN.—Mice Sabra Gibbs, whose residence at Norwood, R. I., goes beyond the memory of the oldest inhabitant, has, according to the record, finished her one hundredth year. She lives alone, does all her own housework, saws wood for her own fire, and brings it on her back from the woods. She is a constant reader of the Bible and religious books, reads without glasses, and is always ready to expatlate upon any passage of Scripture, which she often does to those gathered around her. She is the last of her generation. She has buried two sisters, Esther tlying at the age of one hundred years, and Hannah at nearly the same age.

As remarkable, at a somewhat earlier age, was the statement made in the summer of 1884, that Captain John W. Andrews, of Sumter, South Carolina, the ninety-three year old pedestrian, who started to walk to Boston, arrived in that city from Hartford by rall. On reaching Hartford, where he gave up walking, he had made 700 miles

on foot, at an average rate of 22 miles per day.

† Horace Binney, of Philadelphia, who lived more than ninety years, said in answer to a question on the subject, "I have never taken any long steps." He meant, probably, that he was never in a hurry, and undertook nothing beyond his strength. William Cullen Bryant, the poet, who died in consequence of an accident in his eighty-fourth year, wrote thus of his habits when about seventy-six: "I rise early, at this time of year (March) about half-past five; in summer, half an hour or even an hour earlier. I begin immediately, with little incumbrance of clothing, a series of exercises designed to expand the chest, etc. These are performed with dumb-bells, with a pole, a horizontal bar, and a light chair swung around my head. After a full hour passed in this manner, I bathe from head to foot My breakfast is a simple one—hominy and milk, or, in place of hominy, brown bread or oatmeal, and, in the season, baked sweet

can do, therefore, towards promoting such an end, is to observe the great laws of health, which we have been endeavoring to set forth at length in these pages. If, then, we full, it must be from some uncontrollable cause, under Divine providence; and, without fatalism, we may say, like the devout Mussuluan, "It is better so; God is good."

As a brief summary statement of the most essential conditions of health and longevity, we may conclude our study of Hygiene with the following precepts.

1. Never breathe three breaths of foul air when you can get out from it into that which is fresh, or can get fresh air into the place where you are.

Eat when you are hungry, and only wholesome food. Eat slowly, and stop as soon as hunger is satisfied.

3. Drink pure water when you are thirsty; take milk as a part of your daily food; a cup of ten, not too strong, if you like it, or cocon; but coffee only when you are very tired; and alcoholic beverages, while it good health and strength, never. Also, make no use of tobacco.

4. Dress always with a view to comfort and convenience; not compressing the class, nor impeding the movement of any of the limbs.

5. Be careful to maintain a regular habit of daily motion of the bowels.

6. Rest, if you can, when tired, and sleep when sleepy (unless in a place of worship). Take eight hours of sleep every night; more, if you feel the need of it, and can get it.

7. Work regularly at something every day, and do the best you can throughout; but avoid over-work. The sign of it is, that you wake up tired, not refreshed, in the morning.

8. Never do any regular week-day labor (simple meavoidable small chores excepted) on the first day of the week. Make it a day of repose and renovation for mind and body.

9. However rich you may be, do not make pleasure the aim and object of life; it will wear you out faster than work, or even worry.

Lastly, let every day be cheered by sunshine from above, and brightened by the hope of a better life to come.

apples Tea and coffee I never touch. Sometimes I take a cup of chocolate. . . . After breakfast I occupy myself awhile with my studies, and then, when in town, I walk down to the office of the Evening Post, nearly three miles distant, and, after about three hours, return, always walking, whatever the state of the weather or the streets. . . . My drink is water, yet I sometimes, though rarely, take a glass of wine. I never meddle with tobacco, except to quarrel with its use."



DOMESTIC MEDICINE.

CAUSES, NATURE, AND SIGNS OF DISEASE.
REMEDIES.

NURSING.

SPECIAL DISEASES.

ACCIDENTS AND INJURIES.

POISONING.

OLD AGE AND DEATH.







ORGANS OF THE CHEST AND ABDOMEN.

Aorta, Pulmonary Artery, Innominate Artery, Left Carotid Artery.

5. Left Subelavian Artery,
6. Vena Cava.
7. Left Vena Innominata,
8. Right Vena Innominata.

H. Heart.
L. Larynx.
L. Livet.
g Gall Bladder.

C.C.C. Colon. S. Stomach. SI.Sl. Small Intestines.

PART I.

CAUSES, NATURE, AND SIGNS OF DISEASE.

WHAT IS DISEASE?

T was a rather strange idea of a recent distinguished writer upon Hygiene, that perhaps, if we understood perfectly all the laws of health, and obeyed them all, life might be indefinitely prolonged. Nature around us pronounces otherwise. Every tree, though it live a thousand years, withers, root and branch, at last. All the animals, from the long-lived elephant and tortoise down to the ephemeral insect floating on the breeze, have set terms of life. On this globe of ours, whatever organism is born, dies. Man's body furnishes no exception; his spirit,

With Cornaro, La Fontaine, and Montefiore, we might, possibly, many of us, live to our lumdredth year, were we perfectly wise and well-conducted all through; if, also, we inherited entirely good constitutions from the stert. More than that ought not to be expected of anybody. But, why is it that scarcely one in some flousands lives so long? Babies, even, die often in their first or second year; some are deadborn; many thousands end their brief existence in childhood, youth,

or early middle life. Should we wonder at this?

No. The marvel rather is, that so delicate a mechanism as the human body can survive for a single year, amongst the various perils that surround it. I think of it. A needle's point passing into the heart might stop its motion at once. A tiny knife-blade severing a small tube in the side of the neck will let life out in a few moments or minutes. Only a few drops of prussic acid, or woorara poison, on the tongue, or street electric-light wire just touching the hand or foot, will kill instanter. We are almost the frailest of creatures on the earth.

Yet we live on, some of us, accidents apart, for a good while. Most persons fail to reach advanced age, because of disease.

It is something either being or acting wrong in the body. There may be as many kinds of disorder, or disease, at least, as there are organs of the body. More than that there really are, however; because complications of diseases occur, and each organ, or the general system, may be

out of sorts in a large number of different ways.

First, it will be well for us to consider what makes the body, or parts of it, get out of order; in other words, let us give some brief attention to what medical writers call Etiology.

CAUSES OF DISEASE.

These may be stated together, thus: as causes which are-

Hereditary; examples (though not always inherited), consumption,

gout, epilepsy, cancer.

Functional: that is, depending upon the action, either too great or too little, of one or more of the organs, or of the body generally. Examples: over-exertion, over-excitement, loss of sleep; or, on the other hand, want of exercise.

Mechanical: as wounds or injuries of various kinds, tight-lacing, etc. Conditional: as extremes of heat or cold, sudden changes of temperature, dampness of dwellings.

Digestive: as poisoning, unwholesome food, intemperance, abuse of

medicine; and, on the other hand, starvation.

Obstructive: as neglect of the bowels, nucleanliness of the skin, ill ventilation.

Contagious: as small-pox, itch, hydrophobia.

Atmospheric: as autumnal fevers, yellow fever, cholera.*

HEREDITARY DISEASE.

We often see consumption affecting several members of the same family through several generations. The same is true of insanity. Gout is many times transmitted from father to son, but seldom to a third generation. Epilepsy, also, does not often extend to grandchildren, nor does cancer. Each of these diseases may come without inheritance. Then, we can sometimes, though not always, find at least a partial explanation of their origin otherwise.

Not all (if there be several) children in a family are likely to have the inheritable disease. Perhaps all may escape it; now and then it comes again in their children, having skipped a whole generation.

Children are not born with transmitted diseases; except syphilis,

^{*} Critical readers will observe that this inclusion differs from present popular opinion; but the difference is the result of deliberate conviction, after much study of the subject.

among those of real constitutional inheritance, and a few of the contagious affections. They are commonly affected with them about the time of life when their parents were so. Thus scrofulous disorders of the eyes, ears, skin, glands, and bones, are upt to show themselves in childhood; consumption of the lungs, in youth or early maturity; goul, near middle age; apoplery, and disease of the heart, from fifty to seventy years; early deafness, or blindness, at various periods in different families.

Sometimes the inherited taint is modified in transmission. Thus the children of a gouty person may have, not regular gont, but neuralgin; and the offspring of one who is insane may have inflammation of the brain, or convalsions, etc. Children of intemperate parents are very likely to have some impairment of their nervous systems, and often die in infancy.

Besides these special transmissions of tendencies to disease, there is a gradually degenerating influence in families, and even whole populations, from unhealthy living: most observed in large cities, where it may be called "the great town system." Poverty, intemperance, and other vices, with crowded and uncleanly dwellings and surroundings, make up this; nowhere worse, perhaps, than in the tenement-houses of New York; which have, in past years, made up more than half the mortality of that city. Latterly, by the efforts of wise citizens, they have begun to be considerably improved.

FUNCTIONAL CAUSATION.

Our examples of this, above given, need little further remark. Over-exertion may produce exhaustion, which, in a person before feeble, may end in death. Or, short of this, there may be brought on a state of weakness slow to be recovered from. In such a state, moreover, the body is less capable of resisting all causes of disease than when in full vigor.

Excessive efforts may, at the time, strain muscles, or even burst the heart, or the great main artery, the aorta. This is a real "broken heart." What is commonly so called is rather the effect of a great affliction upon the whole system, depressing all the functions, so as, in a few instances, to cause death.

Over-excitement of the brain is, in many cases, when it lasts but for a short time, followed simply by exhaustion and gradual return, through repose, to ordinary health. But long-continued excessive mental excitement may produce either inflammation of the brain, insanity, or prolonged brain-exhaustion. Loss of sleep, however induced, endangers such effects. Hardly any one can survive deprivation of sleep for so long as two weeks at a time, a single week would finish most people's lives.

MECHANICAL INJURIES.

We will consider these after awhile; broken limbs, displaced joints, wounds, etc. Under Hygiene, we have seen how tight-lacing is a mechanical cause of interruption to the right action of the lungs and heart, crowding these and other organs into too small a space. Position of the body acts mechanically, sometimes, in promoting certain maladies. Whoever is predisposed to apoplexy, is especially liable to have an attack while stooping, or lying with the head low.

CONDITIONAL CAUSES.

By these we mean high heat, great cold, dampness, sudden changes and partial exposures of the body to either extreme, and electrical influences; these last being very little understood.

Sunstroke is a familiar accident in warm climates. Cold-stroke is less common, but I have known it to be almost as sudden as the opposite. Continued heat predisposes to disorders of the liver, stomach, and bowels. Cold, with dampness, promotes affections of the lungs and other organs within the chest.

Catching cold: what is it? For example; one comes in warm from exercise on a spring or antumn day, takes off his coat, and sits down near a window to "cool off." His skin is relaxed and moist with perspiration, whose evaporation, under the window-breeze, goes on rapidly. Suppose the breeze to blow on his back, between his shoulders. That part is cooled more than the rest of his body. Its blood-vessels and skin-pores contract under the cooling process, detaining the perspiration and driving the blood inward from the surface. Some of the waste matter which the skin would have thrown off by sweating, but for this chilling, is now kept in the blood. If there be, then, a weak or susceptible part within the chest (bronchial tubes, lungs, pleura, or heart) it suffers from overloading with blood and waste material; and we have a bronchitis, a pneumonia, a pleurisy, or an inflammation of the heart. Among these, the first is the most frequent, and the last the least so; but even it does sometimes happen, especially in a rheumatic person.

DIGESTIVE MORBID CAUSES.

Ingestive would be the more exact term; as some things taken into the stomach (i. e., ingested), as poisons, for example, are not digested. Food, however, may have to do with producing sickness, in several ways.

Excess of food may cause indigestion at the time; or, if often repeated, habitual indigestion—called dyspepsia. A less amount of excess or superfluity may bring on an overfulness of rich blood in the system—plethora.

Deficiency of food weakens, and so promotes attacks of many disorders; varying according to constitution and exposure. Absolute privation of food, starvation, will kill most people within ten days. A few will survive for even three or more weeks, when kept warm and nearly at rost. Shipwrecked people starve somer, because they are cold also, and altogether miserable.

Indigestible articles may produce common indigestion, with windy pain in the stomach, musea, etc.; or cholera morbus, which is much more severe; occasionally dangerous. As was said under Hygiene, particular persons may be made ill by things which others can digest

Of the disorders produced by intemperance, we may, in this place, simply name gout (chiefly from excess of wine or malt liquors); maniaa-polu or delivium tremens; gin-liver, kidney disease, and other degenerative organic troubles. Intemperance becomes at last itself a disease; the habit of drinking alcoholic liquors to excess overpowering the will, so that its subject cannot break it off. This is sometimes called metho-

OBSTRUCTIVE CAUSES.

Everything that interferes with the clearing out from the body of all waste and dead material, by the exerctions, tends to injure health. Under Hygiene, it has been shown how ill v ntilation, that is, breathing fonl air, makes the blood impure. Not only will this kill at once if carried to a certain extreme, but, short of that, it promotes diseases of various kinds. The streets and houses in any city which will show the most denths from scarlet fever, diphtheria, or Asiatic cholera, when such disorders are prevailing, may be smelled out by their atmospheric Uncleanliness of the skin acts in the same way to a less certain and serious degree. Neglect of the bowels leads to costiveness, headache, and dyspepsia; now and then it brings on a hernia (rnpture) which may endanger life, or an obstruction of the bowels within the abdomen, from which not many who suffer it recover.

CONTAGION.

This is, strictly defined, conveyance of disease by touch or contact. But some (not all) disorders, which may be transmitted by actual touch, pass also to a short distance through the air. This is true of typhus, small-pox, chicken-pox, measles, scarlet fever, mumps, and whoopingcough, certainly; perhaps, in rare instances, of diphtheria. Hydrophobia, syphilis, and gonorrhæa are conveyed only by contact and inoculation; that is, introduction of the virus of the disease into the blood, or, at least, under the skin. These diseases, just mentioned, are

the only diseases (except some very uncommon ones taken from animals) that are *certainly* contagious. Some others are supposed by many people, including a certain number of physicians, to be so; but a different explanation is more probably correct.

INFECTION: ATMOSPHERIC CAUSATION.

Certain places, at particular times, are infected with meladies which attack a greater or less number of those living or visiting there. Some of these diseases are said to be endemic; that is, they are limited to quite clearly defined places. So, ague and autumnal bilious or remittent ferer are found to prevail in some neighborhoods, every fall and spring; while other places, perhaps not more than a mile distant, are clear of them. Vellow fever is an endemic disease of the vicinity of the sea-coast of Cuba, while the higher regions of the same island are free from it. Cholera is endemic only in Hindustan, near the banks of the Ganges river.

When these, or any other diseases, overpass limited places, and either at i.— me time or one after another fall upon many localities, they are said to be epidemic. Yellow fever is often epidemic; ague and remittent fever but rarely so. Cholera, once in several years, starts out from India, and travels, mostly westward, over land and sea. Thus it has reached, in turn, nearly every part of the world except the cold polar regions, having even gone as far North as Finland and Northern Russia.

Atmospheric transmission or lead infection is reasonably supposed to occur with the causes of these diseases, because it is chiefly through the air that human bodies can be influenced by the conditions of places. But it must be confessed that our knowledge of the causation of endemic and epidemie maladies is, as yet, imperfect. Some physicians believe typhoid fever to be always produced by a personal transmission of a specific poisonous material passing from the bowels of a patient having the disease. This dependence upon personal transmission I am quite sure does not exist. Cholera is thought by a large number of medical writers to be likewise extended only from person to person, the contagion existing in the discharges from the bowels. An overwhelming number of facts disprove this popular theory.

Plague was once universally, and is now generally, believed to be extremely contagious. The weight of evidence is in favor of its being only endemie, or locally infectious. Few physicians now conside: yellow fever to be personally contagious. Places and things (ships, for example) receive, hold, and give out to susceptible persons, the "poisou" which causes this mostly tropical disease.

Erysipelas and puerperal fever cannot be positively said never to be extended from one person to another. Transmission by contact under

certain circumstances (which ought to be gnarded against) has been repeatedly shown in regard to puerperal fever. But it is generally a local disease, especially likely to prevail in crowded, ill-ventilated hospitals. Diphtheria, likewise, is nometimes given by one person to another; the Princess Alice of Hesse, daughter of Queen Victoria, is supposed to have thus become the victim of a motherly kiss. Several physicians have lost their lives by breathing contagion from the throats of patients whom they were treating. Usually, however, diphtheria is either a local endemie or a slowly migrating epidemie disorder.

Influenza is always an epidemie; nobody imagines it to be contagious from person to person. The same is true also of dengue, the "breakbone fever" of our Southern States, and of a form of dyneniery prevalent during the summer and autumn in some localities.

Among the possible and probable ways of explaining the causation of endemic, epidemic, and contagious diseases, the one which has received the most attention of late years is that which is called the "Germ

THEORY OF DISEASE-GERMS.

Let us begin our study of this subject with an extract from a work by Ferdinand Colm, a distinguished German botanist.

"Every one knows in how many relatively different sizes the life of the visible world embodies itself. The mites belong to the smallest creatures visible to the naked eye. They are found in numberless swarms in cheese, and in fruits rich in sugar. Their size compares to that of man about as a sparrow to the Strasburg cuthedral. A similar compariso: be made between the giant fir tree and the moss which grows on its oark. Of the little animalenles that Leuwenhoek discovered, he stated that their size compared with the mite as the bee with the horse. The more the microscope has been improved, and its magnifying power increased, the smaller have been the beings that become accessible to keen observation, since among the animals and plants of the unseen world, a difference in size is found similar to that between the herring and the whale.

"But the smaller the organism, the simpler appears to be its form, the more imperfect its life energy, and the lower its place in the rank of created beings. Among the animals of the microscopie world, we find exceedingly few that possess the fulness of organs of an insect, a crab, or even a worm; the true infusoria stand on the lowest step of the animal kingdom. Even so we find among the microscopic plants not one that reaches the developed form of the blooming plant, or belongs

to even the lowest class of the ferns; only the lowest plant forms, which we usually designate as algor and fungi, form the forests and meadows

of the invisible world.

"But the more the inner formation of microscopic organisms is simplified, the fewer appear to be the characteristics which so easily separate plants and animals in the visible world. The infusoria are wanting in muscle and nerve, while vessels and breathing organs are very imperfeetly developed. On the other hand, microscopic plants show independent movement, and even organs of movement, such as we are only accustomed to flud in animals. In the very lowest organisms, animals and plants appear to run unto each other, and the naturalist is in doubt to which of the two kingdoms he shall assign the subject of his inves-

tigntions.

"But the smallest, and at the same time the simplest and lowest, of all livings forms, we call Bacteria. They form the boundary line of life; beyond them life does not exist, so far at least as our present microscopic expedients reach; and these are not small. The strongest of our magnifying lenses, the immersion system of Hurtnack, gives a magnifying power of from 3000 to 4000 diameters; and could we view a man under such a lens, he would appear as large as Mont Blanc, or even Chimborazo. But even under this colossal amplification the smallest bacteria do not appear larger than the points and commas of good print. Of their internal parts little or nothing is to be distinguished, and even their existence would for the most part remain hidden, did they not live in such gregarious masses. These smallest bacteria may be compared with man about as a grain of sand to Mont Blanc.

"If it is important on their own account to learn to know these smallest and at the same time simplest of organisms, then will our interest be increased through the knowledge that just these little forms are of the very greatest moment; since they, with invisible, yet irresistible power, govern the most important processes of animate and inanimate nature; and even seize on the being of man secretly, but at

the same time fatally.

"The forms of the bacteria resemble sometimes balls or eggs, sometimes shorter or longer rods or fibres, and sometimes cork-screws or screws. The bodies consist of an almost colorless albuminous substance, in which numerous shining, fatty granules are imbedded,* and which

^{*} Some of these granules have recently been found to consist of crystalline sulphur (CRAMER, COHN). They have been observed in Monas Okenii, Bacterium Sulphuratum, and in the different species of Beggiaton, which latter are found most abundantly in thermal sulphur waters, where they play a great rôle in the elimination of sulphur, and the disengagement of sulphurested hydrogen (MAGNIN).

is inclosed in a thin membrane (cellulose), insoluble in caustic potash. According to their form, we can distinguish ball, rod, fibre, and screw bacteria.

" Nearly all bacteria possess two different modes of life, one of motion and another of rest. In certain conditions they are excessively mobile, and when they swarm in a drop of water, maving amongst each other in all directions, they present an attractive spectacle, similar to that of a swarm of gnats or im ant-hill.

"The collective development of the bacteria makes it in the highest degree probable that they belong to the vegetable kingdom, and in nearest relation to the Oseillarier. Bacteria also change from a condition of movement to one of rest, when they cannot be entirely distinguished from common plant cells. They swarm only where there is favorable temperature, plenty of nourishment, and the presence of oxygen; under unfavorable conditions they are motionless. Certain kinds of spherical bacteria appear never to move.

"A compressed yeast factory gives a plain example of the colossal proportions in which these little microscopic organisms can increase if abundance of nonrishment is given them, and they are carefully protected from the opposition of other beings. The yeast fungus exceeds the rod bacteria in mass and weight probably 160 fold. The weight of a yeast cell is also about 0.000,000,25 milligrammes, or 40,000,000 of yeast cells weigh one kilogramme.* If they are in great vats filled with suitable food, and are allowed to remain undisturbed, inside of twenty-four hours over one hundred weight of yeast is generated. Probably there are more than fifty milliards of cells which form such a mass in the course of one day from one single grain.

"Bacteria belong to the most widespread of organisms; we may say they are omnipresent; they never fail either in air or water; they attach themselves to the surface of all firm bodies, but develop in masses only where decomposition, corruption, fermentation, or putrefaction is present. If we place a piece of flesh, a pea, or other animal or vegetable material in water, it will become, earlier or later, thick, and then milky. It loses its transparency, because the bacteria completely fill the water; at the same time the putrefaction increases, under the development of different, and for the most part bad smelling, chemical combinations. After a time the thickness disappears, and the water becomes clear and odorless, the organic material is consumed by the bacteria; these now cease to divide themselves further, and heap themselves on the bottom without motion as white sediment. If a new supply of nutritive mate-

^{*} A kilogramme is a little more than two pounds.

rial be added to the fluid, putrefaction and the multiplication of bacteria, which are not dead, but in a state of temporary repose, are seen to begin

What follows is taken from an article written by myself for a period-

ical designed for general readers: *

First, as these minute forms are so common, how can we ever get rid of them? The Italian Spallanzani ascertained, in the last century, that a boiling heat, followed by exclusion of the air, will prevent putrefaction in animal or vegetable materials. Count Appert, of Frauce, applied this method many years ago to protect meat, vegetables, etc., from spoiling; and now, on the same principle, thousands of dollars are invested yearly in the canning of fruits, and, indeed, of almost all kinds

of perishable food.

If a glass flask, open at the top, is filled with an animal or vegetable mixture, and then boiled (or even subjected for some time to a heat short of boiling), and the mouth of the flask is, while still hot, melted and sealed together, it is known, and may be shown by the microscope, that no living bacteria are contained in it. They are always killed by a high But, without melting and sealing the mouth of the flask, bacteria may be, after cooking, kept out by a plug of thoroughly cleansed cotton. And, simpler still, in 1863, Pasteur, the most eminent investigator in this field, found it sufficient to soften the glass neck of the flask by heat, without melting it, and to bend it into a horse-shoe shape, with the mouth down. Gravitation in the atmosphere will then prevent particles, living or dead, from getting into the flask.

When it was discovered that shutting out all living minute organisms (fungi, bueteria, micrococci, spirilla, and spores) coincided with the absence of fermentation and putrefaction, nothing was more natural than to infer that these minute organisms are the causes of those changes

whenever they occur.

Longest known has been the so-called alcohol ferment, yeast-plant, torula or succharomyces cerevisiae. This is always found present in yeast when examined by the aid of the microscope. Its amazing power of multiplication was mentioned in the account above extracted from Dr. Cohn.

More minute but exceedingly numerous are the vegetable organisms called Schizophytes or Schizomycetes. With these the true rod-like bacteria belong; as well as the spherical micrococci, and the curled or wavy spirilla. A bacterium (b. termo) is commonly believed to be the productive agent ("ferment") of putrefaction. The souring of milk, the con-

^{*} The Friends' Review, Philadelphia, 1881-82.

version of wine into vinegar, and the slimy spoiling of wine, are all accounted for by different bacteria or fungi. What has been formerly called the "blood wonder," has now a similar explanation. It is the sudden formation of a blood-like deposit, spreading over bread or other food, and consists, as the microscope shows, of a rapidly multiplying red, spherical micrococcus (m. prodigiosus, Colm). Litmus, so much used by chemists for testing acids, being obtained from a rock-growing lichen, exposed until it putrefies, is believed to owe its blue color to the

Since these tiny organisms are so numerons that almost everything about us teems with them, we naturally ask, what are their actions upon human bodies? Do they, or some of them, produce diseases?

Before the time of Linneus, two naturalists, one of them named Kircher, had suggested that very small living forms in the air or water might have to do with epidemic maladies. Limueus himself took up the idea, in a rather crude form, without much basis of fact to sustain it.

Much more definitely, before the middle of the present centmy, several thoughtful physicians proposed a similar view. One of them was Prof. Henle, of Berlin; another, Sir Henry Holland, in England; a third, the late Dr. John K. Mitchell, of Philadelphia. In an eloquent lecture, which the writer of this article heard him deliver, Dr. Mitchell showed the probability that malarial fevers are in some manner cansed by emanations from fungous plants. Twenty ye us later, Dr. Salisbury, of Ohio, asserted that he had found, with in aid of the microscope, the very plants themselves, which he called Palmelle. Only last year, two Europeau physicians, an Italian and a German, have given the name bacillus malaria to a microscopic poison-plent of which they report the discovery in the Pontine marshes of Italy; to which they trace the

Not designing to give here many particulars on this topic, we may just notice in passing that several minute living parasites have been for a considerable time known to do harm to men, animals, and plants. Examples are: ergot or "spnrred rye," by which that grain has been sometimes made poisonous to numbers of persons in North Europe; potato rot, so disastrous often to the too-much-depended-upon erop of the Irish; muscardine and pébrine, two destructive diseases of the silkworm: these are all parasitic affections. So, besides pork trichina, and the itch (whose parasite is a little eight-legged acarus, related to the sugar mite), a number of skin diseases are ascribed to very minute and peculiar vegetations, recognized only by aid of the microscope.

Such disorders, however, are minor in importance, compared with the terrible infections and contagions, such as yellow fever, cholera, smallpox, and diphtheria. What has the microscope shown us about them : and their causation?

Were our readers altogether unacquainted with the subject, we should begin our answer to this question by discouraging high expectations. The inquiry is a comparatively recent one; only about half a century old as yet. It is, moreover, very difficult; requiring much skill in the use of the microscope, and extremely careful and patient work. Some sanguine scientists are ready to pronounce the "germ theory" provenabsolutely. When we ask for precise facts, however, a good many of

these simmer down to only probabilities.

Has any one demonstrated that small-pox has an "organism" as its poison-cause? No. Cohn gives a drawing of the "micrococcus vaceiniæ;" but Dr. Beale, an equally good anthority, denies its existeuce as an independent vegetatiou. Has any one demonstrated yet the "mierobe" of eholera or of yellow fever? Not to the satisfaction of the majority of competent judges. Yet, within the last few years, medical books and periodicals, and lately even the newspapers, tell marvellous things of the bacillus of the fatal anthrax of sheep, and the bacillus also of leprosy, one of typhoid fever, and another of cousumptiou (tubercle); micrococci of diphtheria, erysipelas, scarlet fever, and other disorders; a spirillum of relapsing fever, etc. Undoubtedly, able microscopists have seen in each of these instances minute forms which coincided with the occurrence of the diseases respectively. Have they proved that this coincidence means always causation? Some of the reasoning, pro and con, about this question may be worth a little further consideration.

Prof. John Tyndall, of London, a number of years ago, in performing some experiments upon light, made special observation of the multitude of partieles floating in common air. A flash of sunlight in a room anywhere will exhibit some of these. Prof. Tyndall found that he could obtain "optically pure air" by exhausting a glass vessel by means of an air-pump, and then introducing into it other air which was filtered through cotton. He also repeated and modified the experimeuts of Pasteur and others, showing that air made optically pure iu this way or otherwise will not promote fermentation or putrefaction. Meat or soup, first strongly heated (to kill "germs" in it) and then sealed up in such an atmosphere, will keep without taint for an indefinite time. Let in but a single breath of common air, and spoiling will go on at once; and then the microscope will show the presence of multitudes of rapidly multiplying bacteria or other microphytes; with usually, also, infusorial animalcules. Prof. Tyndall is a strong advocate of the opinion that similar minute organisms in the air and in water are causative of various diseases of men aud animals.

We must select a few examples only to show the further progress of this inquiry. A few years ago, Drs. H. C. Wood and H. Formad, of Philadelphia, began an elaborate investigation into the causation of diphtheria. Inoculating rabbits with particles from the throats of patients affected with that disease, they watched the resulting effects. Moreover, they examined the material so used before applying it, and found it to contain a great many minute organisms (bacteria, micrococci, etc.). The animals thus dealt with often became ill, and some died. For a long time, however, nouc of them were affected with anything resembling diphtheria.

At length, however, these earnest laborers in the cause of science obtained material from cases of a remarkably malignant epidemie of diphtheria, occurring in a distant locality. When rabbits were inoculated with this, diplitheritie symptoms, often fatal, followed. Examining the material having such effects very carefully with the microscope, they found many micrococci; exactly the same in appearance with those which, in their previous trials, had failed to produce such results. One difference, however, they ascertained. Putting them into an appropriate "culture liquid," the micrococci of malignant diphtheria could be made to reproduce their kind through a number of generations; while those of the milder epidemics died out in one, two, or three only. Drs. Wood and Formad hence propose the theory, that the inicrococci are all really of the same species; but that, under circumstances important to be further looked into, they may acquire a malignancy in certain cases, which is not present in the ordinary type of the epidemic, or in what are called "sporadic" or occasional instances of

One of the latest of those pursning these difficult studies, and the oue who has produced the greatest sensation, is Robert Koch, a German physician. After many years of close examination and experimentation with tubercle (the material found in the lungs of consumptive patients, etc.), he has arrived at the conclusion that its cause is a tiny parasitie vegetation. This he exhibits by means of a delicate process of staining microscopie partieles, so as to distinguish them from each other. His "bacillus tuberculosis" is small, indeed, for so mighty an effect as the production of so common and fatal a disease as consumption. It is but one-half or one-fourth the size of a blood-corpuscle; i.e., one six-thonsaudth to one tweeve-thousaudth of an inch! So far, also, although very distinctly shown, there have but few of these been found in any one specimen of diseased human lung. Notwithstanding the flourish of trumpets announcing this discovery, it awaits confirmation by other competent observers before we can say that the actual and essential cause of consumption has been made known.

Let us now glance at some of the applications in practice of the theory of disease-producing microphytes. Prof. Joseph Lister (formerly of Edinburgh, now of London), about 1860, proposed that wounds, amputated limbs, and other parts of human bodies liable to suppuration, or to become places of entrance for blood-poisoning, should be protected from the atmosphere by "antiseptic precautions." These consist in the use of knives, ligatures, sponges, etc., dipped in a solution of carbolic acid; sometimes, also, a spray of such a solution thrown over the part; during an operation; and dressings of wounds, stumps, etc., which are soaked in a similar preparation. The object of all this is to destroy and keep out bacteria, etc.; without which, it is held, neither suppuration nor blood-poisoning (septicæmia) can occur. Listerism, as this method is called, has now become common amongst surgeons in all parts of the world. Most of them have adopted it, and its advocates claim that better results follow great operations so managed than ever were obtained before.

But all leading authorities in surgery have not come to this conclusion. Callender, Lawson Tait, Spence, and others have saved the lives of as large a number of their patients without it as other surgeons with the whole routing of antiseptic surgery. What is certain is, that all such investigations have proved the deadly influence of foulness, in air, water, and clothing, on the human body everywhere; whether that foulness be poisonous of itself or only by means of the minute organisms which it contains. Hence the practical conclusion, which the successes especially of the non-Listerian surgeons establish, that the most necessary condition for recovery of a human body under wounds and operations is absolute cleanliness of everything in, upon, and around it. This Callender and the other surgeons named have maintained, and so their patients have done well without the carbolic acid régime.

So far, little has been said, in this brief narration, of Pasteur; the most eminent of all those engaged in this line of inquiry. A volume would be required to tell all that this great French chemist and experimental biologist has done and is doing; for he is still actively engaged, although getting old and in feeble health. His labors, more than any others, have settled (for our age at least) the question of spontaneous generation; that is, he has shown that life will never spring up in totally dead material without the previous presence of living beings; no life is without parentage. Pasteur also defended vigorously against the great German chemist, Liebig, the opinion that fermentation really depends upon the vital action of the yeast-plant, instead of being a purely chemical process, of which the saccharomyces is only an accident or a coincident. He is credited with saving vast amounts to the indus-

try of France, by his discoveries in regard to silk-worm diseases and their prevention.

Within a few years Pasteur and several other experimenters in England, Germany, and the United States, as well as in France, have been trying to find what can be done to prevent fatal diseases in domestic

A very destructive nuclady of sheep, splenic fever (identical with anthrax or charbon) is ascribed to a minute bacillus (bacillus anthracis). Very much like this in appearance is the innocent bacillus subtilis, or hay-fungus. Now, Buchner, Pasteur, and others assert that, by cultivating the former of these bacilli in appropriate liquids exposed to the air, it changes its properties, and is converted into, or at least made to resemble, the latter, the innocent hay-fungus. If, then, a sheep is inoculated with this modified bacillus, a slight inflammation of the part of the body where it is inserted occurs, instead of the fatal splenic fever, and the animal is thereafter secured against an attack of the fever when exposed to its contagion. This has been verified on large numbers of sheep in France. Pasteur has had similar success with inoculation as a preventive of chicken cholera, and it is asserted, more recently, in regard

In the American Naturalist for March and April, 1882, Professor H. J. Detmers gives a full account of his investigation of swine plague, whose causation he refers to one of the Schizophytes or Schizomycetes. These are some of his conclusions:

"Every inoculation of healthy pigs which never had become infected with swiue plague, when made with material containing swine plague Schizophytes, lung exudation for instance, produced the disease. . . .

"Inoculations with swine plague Schizophytes cultivated in an innocent fluid, such as fresh cow's milk, albumen of a hen's egg, etc., invariably produced the disease, though usually in a comparatively mild

"Swine which survive an attack of swine plague and recover, possess afterwards either perfect, or what is more frequent, partial immunity

Professor Law, in this country, and several veteriuary authorities abroad, have obtained similar results with the cattle plague (rinderpest). All such facts remind us at once of Jenner's vaccination to protect against small-pox, which is justly considered the most valuable benefaction ever conferred upon mankind by medical art or science. Are we to have, hereafter, several other kinds of protective inoculation for human beings, on the same principle? We may hope for it; not without reason; but such a result is quite uncertain as yet.

Indeed, the whole inquiry is still incomplete, and the central idea of the "germ theory of disease" is only probable—not placed beyond doubt. Coincidence of two things does not necessarily prove that one is the cause of the other. And, if the general theory were accepted as proven, we should still need to study the different life-histories of all the schizomycetes or "microbes." We must know what conditions favor the presence and multiplication of each, so as, by removing these, to escape the invasion of the disorder produced by it. We must know also, if possible, what medicinal or other agencies will destroy each kind

of poison-parasite within the body as well as outside of it.

Already important differences are known to exist in the propagation of epidemic and endemic diseases, concerning which, unfortunately, all physicians and sanitarians are not of one mind. Some call all such diseases contagious, from person to person, including yellow fever and cholera under that description. Others (among them the present writer) are very strongly convinced that neither of these two diseases has its cause, whether a "disease-germ" or not, formed in or given out from the human body; but that yellow fever is a disease of places and things, which give it to human beings brought under their influence; and that epidemic cholera flies like a cloud across land and ocean, from east to west around the globe. No railroad can hasten its speed, no sea (much more certainly no quarantine) can forbid its progress. It lights and stays where it finds material suited to its existence and increase; and, after a time, disappears for years or decades; possibly for centuries.

One thing, however, is clear. All these scourges of mankind which are, we may say in spite of our caution, most probably produced somehow by myriads of minute fungi or other organisms, are favored in their persistence, multiplication, and diffusion by filth. Filth is "matter ont of place." Cholera, yellow fever, diphtheria, scarlet fever, typhus and typhoid fevers, all these and other diseases analogous to them, while not caused by filth alone, are invariably made worse by it. They come oftenest, stay longest, and destroy most lives in filthy cities, streets, ships, and houses everywhere.* Were all the world as clean as it might be made, "disease germs" would die out without either quaratine or Listerism; and the atmosphere, if not optically pure, would at least be too sweet to maintain any epidemics.

^{*} Autumnal or malarial fevers, remittent and intermittent, it must be noted, are exceptions to this statement, being essentially country fevers.

INFLUENCE OF TIME OF LIFE.

Infancy shows great delicacy of the stomach, irritability of the skin, and excitability of the nervous system. Its disorders are apt to be eraptions on the skin, and, in some children, soreness of eyes, nose, ears, and glands of the neck; diarrhoea, and, in hot summers, cholera infantum and convulsions. Measles, scarlet fever, whooping-cough, mannes, chicken-pox, and varioloid, or (in the unvaccinated) small-pox, are all most commonly met with in children. This is simply because few children escape exposure to them, and they do not usually occur more than once in a lifetime. Grown people may, and not infrequently do, have them, when happening not to be exposed to their contagion during childhood.

Youth is the period of activity. Inflammatory disorders are the only ones to which it is especially liable, except that pulmonary consumption often begins between the fifteenth and the twenty-fifth year.

Middle age ought, under good care of oneself, to be free from predisposition to disease. Now, however, any tendency inherited, or promoted by imprudence in youth, will be likely to show itself; as gout, insanity, cancer, etc.

The old show increasing debility and infirmity. Some aged people wither slowly away, like a tree or a bush in December. Others, instead, grow fat, but unwieldy, and less resistant, perhaps, than the lean ones, to increasing troubles. They are especially liable to fatty degeneration of the heart, liver, etc., and to apoplexy. All old people are, more than young ones, subject, under disturbing causes, to urinary troubles, dropsical swellings, and catarrhal affections of the brouchial tubes and lungs.

Although the causation of special diseases will receive attention in our account of them later in this volume, a brief allusion seems fitting here to that of a few of the most important, and in which most people are interested.

MALARIA.

This word, from the Italian, meant originally bad air, generally. Physicians, however, of late years, have commonly applied it to the supposed atmospheric cause of ague (intermittent) and bilious (remittent) fevers. These are especially diseases of the fall of the year, but in some places they occur also in the spring. Persons who have once taken

ague (also called chills, or chills and fever) may, if it is not properly treated, continue to have it all through the year, summer and winter.

The main facts, about these affections, which bear on their causation,

are these:

1. Malarial fevers are always local in their prevalence, having certain bounds even when epidemic.

2. They never prevail in the thickly-built parts of cities.

3. A mean summer temperature of at least 60° is necessary to their development; a continuance of decided warmth for more than two months being required.

4. They are most common and most severe in tropical or nearly tropical elimates. Yet some regions, in which the summers are both hot

and long, are exempt from them.

5. They prevail least where the surface of the earth is rocky, and

most where the soil is loaded with organic matter.

6. The existence of surface-water favors their development. They haunt chiefly the borders of marshes, shallow lakes, and slow streams, but not exclusively.

7. Those dwelling upon the shores of large lakes are more subject to

them than those who navigate their central waters.

8. The neighborhood of the sea is comparatively free from them, unless inland marshes lie near it.

9. In the midst of unbroken forests they are rure, but are apt to fol-

low the clearing away of woodlands.

10. Heat and moisture sometimes exist together (as on the Gulf of Mexico) without (other conditions being absent) producing these fevers.

11. Draining dams or ponds, or other exposure of surfaces before covered with water to the sun, has often been followed by fever. So has the first cultivation of a new soil; but continued culture is followed by a diminution of malarial disease.

12. Some seasons are healthy, and others unhealthy, in the same place, without any observed difference in its conditions, except that carly heavy rains, followed by drought late in the summer, are apt to presage an nuhealthy autumn.

13. A decidedly hard frost always puts an end, for that season, to the danger of exposure to malarial influence in the region where it occurs.

Nearly all these facts point to the *probability* that an organic cause, of a vegetable nature, produces these fevers. Notwithstanding, however, all the inquiries of Morsen, Salisbury, Tommasi-Crudeli, and others, we have not yet a complete demonstration of this subtle "disease germ" which has the power to impair the health of thousands of people in our own and other countries.

Important preventive measures may be deduced from the known facts concerning malarial fevers.

1. Avoiding localities, known to be subject to them, from frost to frost, but especially between the middle of July and the middle or end of October, will secure immunity.

2. Never going out upon or through a undarious place within two hours after sunrise or one hour before sunset (as well as, of course, not being there during the night) is an important precaution.

3. Even in a nularious district, burning a five in the house on every damp day, even in Summer, and all through the early Fall and late Spring, will, as I know from observation, contribute much to the exape of residents from Ague and Remittent Fever.

CAUSATION OF YELLOW FEVER.

Leaving for a later part of this book our description of this disease, we may here notice only the most prominent facts concerning its prevalence.

1. All the places in which yellow fever ever has really prevailed, that is, where it has occurred in persons not brought to those places already ill, are upon or not far from the borders of the Atlantic Ocean and its connected seas, the Gulf of Mexico and the Western Mediterranean. Thus it never has been an endemic or epidemic on the Pacific Coast of America, nor has it ever been seen at

Canton, in China;	Bombay, India;
Calentta, in India;	Alexandria, Egypt;
Athens, in Greece;	Constantinople, Turkey.

Nor has it been known at any of the interior cities of Europe, as Rome, Vienna, Berlin, Dresden, Munich, Brussels, Paris.

Often, yellow fever has prevailed on the

West Coast of Africa, North Coast of South America, West India Islands, Vera Cruz, etc., in Mexico,	New Orleans, Mobile (formerly) Savannalı, Charleston,
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Occasionally, it has been known at

704 -	
Rio Janeiro,	Gibraltar,
Natchez,	
Vieksburg,	Marseilles,
, ronsburg,	Barcelona,

Memphis,	Cadlz,
Norfolk,	Malaga,
Richmond,	Seville,
Baltimore,	Xeres,
Philadelphia,	Carthagena
New York,	Leghorn,
Boston,	Sicily, etc.

2. Yellow fever only occurs in any place when there is continuous warm weather (usually 80° Fahr, for a month or more); most generally, also, a good deal of moisture in the air. Like malarial fevers, it always ceases with a good hard frost.

3. It is a disease chiefly of sea-ports, or of towns on large rivers connecting with the sea.*

4. It is promoted especially by vegetative decay, as decaying wharves, newly unturned soil, cargoes of rotting potatoes, etc.

5. The infection of yellow fever has mostly rather narrow limits; often they may be marked out in fractions of a mile. So it was in its visitations in Philadelphia; certain streets and blocks of houses only were infected; all who kept away from these were safe from the disease.

6. It is not personally contagious; that is, the cause of the disorder is not formed or multiplied in the bodies of those suffering with it; only outside of them.

7. It is seldom, if ever, conveyed by clothing, bedding, merchandise, etc. Still, the *possibility* of such conveyance affords reason for precautions concerning railroad cars, steamboats, baggage, etc.

8. Ships sometimes transport it, by carrying in their holds a quantity of infected air and foul materials from infected places. This fact justifies ship quarantine under certain circumstances.

9. But, when thus carried, no extension of the disease ever follows, unless the place to which an infected ship comes has the promotive conditions of high heat, moisture, and foulness from decay abounding in it.

10. Thorough cleansing, airing, and disinfection of ships, steamboats, railroad cars, clothing, and merchandise (*reept rotting regetable matters) will always deprive them of the power of generating or extending vellow fever.

11. Removal of the population ... a place infected with yellow fever will certainly always put an end to the prevalence of yellow fever among that population.

^{*} I believe that this fact, or at least the prevalence of yellow fever only on or near the borders of the *Atlantic Ocean* and its connected waters, was first pointed out by myself. It is not generally referred to in books on the subject.

12. Personal detention at quarantine, of either sick or well persons arriving on a yellow fever vessel, or coming from a place where it prevails, is of no use at all, since the disease is not personally contagious; and it is often a cause of much inconvenience and distress. Still worse is the barbarous and inhuman "shot-gum" quarantine on land, for which there is no reason or excuse whatever.

CAUSATION OF CHOLERA.

About this, we must remember the difference between common cholera morbus, which may occur anywhere and at any season (though most common in summer) and epidemic, often called malignant or Asiatic cholera.

This last disease is endemic, every year, only in India. There the eircumstances are remarkable. The Delta of the River Ganges is overflowed every year by the rising and swelling of the river during the rainy season, over a width in some parts of more than a hundred miles. Much of this, in the dry season, is uncovered again, but always damp, and under a tropical sun. Large numbers of animals are drowned during the river-flood, and their bodics decay afterwards, giving off foul emanations. Superstition also leads the Hindoos to throw their dead into the Ganges, as "the gate of heaven." The habits of the people about their houses are very nucleanly. All sorts of products of animal decay abound everywhere. This seems to be the great promotive cause of cholera. There must also be a specific cause (germ?) for it; but that has not yet been certainly found.*

Physicians and others resident in India do not, as a rule, think of cholera as being contagions from person to person, in any way. It prevails at a certain place; avoid that place, and you are safe from it. An army encamped is attacked by cholera; the commander moves his soldiers to a higher and more open, healthy place, perhaps not more than a mile or two from the first camp, and no more cases occur.

All the history of this disease shows the importance of animal filth (human and other, living and dead) in maintaining and extending it.

^{*} Dr. Robert Koch, a German investigator, asserted his discovery (1883-84) in Egypt and India of a very minute "disease-germ" (bacillus) which he believed to be the cause of cholera. But, as in the case of the same sort of causation of consumption, it remains to be positively shown whether the presence of the bacillus is a cause, or only a coincidence. Careful examination of the evidence, pro and con, convinces me that Koch's "comma bacillus" is not the specific cause of cholera.

Its mortality has been greatest in Moscow, Paris, Marsellles, Liverpool, Manchester, Edinburgh, New York, etc., and worst of all, in the filthiest parts of those and other cities.

Yet it does not depend on human intercourse for its migration over the world. It may pass from one town to another without affecting mother town, lying right between and on the way. Most striking of all, it has several times attacked ships far out at sea, when there was no cholera at all at the ports from which they sailed.* No explanation exists for such facts but that the mysterious epidemic cause travels as a "cholera cloud," over sea and hand, lighting and staying where it ads (like a cloud of insects or a flock of birds) uniterial to feed upon. Such material is always present where men live in close houses, with foul cellars, yards, streets, shughter-houses, graveyards, etc.

Most plainly, bud drinking water has been shown to increase the number of victims of cholers. So much has been made of this, that the current popular theory of the extension of the disease (outside of India, where they can see it plainly otherwise) is, that the specific cause is only conveyed from person to person and from place to place by the discharges from the bowels of those having the disease. I am altogether satisfied (after a good deal of study of the subject, during three epidemics, 1849, 1854, and 1866) that this theory is not true. All feed discharges, and all fonl water, foul air, everything that is foul, promotes cholera; the exercments of a patient with it are no worse in this respect than any other foulness.

Not being contagious, then, quarantine against cholera is of no use at all; while detaining persons at quarantine in an infected vessel has repeatedly cost scores of lives. Foul ships ought to be cleared at once of their passengers as soon as they reach a port; they cannot give the disease to any one, wherever they may go. The worst possible thing is to detain them in an unhealthy steamer, or whatever it be, on which cholera has prevailed during the voyage. Personal detention at quarantine, in fact, has no excuse in connection with any disease. It might perhaps have for small-pox, but that the true and efficient preventive of that is universal vaccination.

Cholera is to be prevented by eleanliness, cleanliness! That one word sums up all there is about it.

^{*} I have given a full account of these facts in my little book, "Cholera: Facts and Conclusions upon its Causation, Nature, Prevention, and Treatment." Philada., 1866.

CHOLERA INFANTUM.

We have said so much in our pages on the Hygiene of Infancy, upon the summer care of children, that it is needful now merely to recapitulate the main particulars in regard to the causation of "summer complaint."

These are three: high heat (90° to 99° or 100°); the foul atmosphere of large cities; and improper food, especially milk not sufficiently fresh. Symptoms of this disease, and its domestic management, will be considered later in this book.

DIPHTHERIA.

Although known to the ancients under other names, and at considerable intervals several times visiting Europe and America, the prevalence of this disease in the United States has much increased since 1856. Rather more obscurity exists as to its causation than in regard to most other diseases. Some facts, however, are clear.

- 1. Diphtheria is generally a local disease; that is, infecting certain towns, villages, or houses, at particular times.
- 2. It may be taken by one person from mother, but only upon contact or close approach.
- 3. Foul air, from filth, bad drainage or ill ventilation, contributes very decidedly to its prevalence and to the mortality resulting from it.

NATURE OF DISEASES.

Children sometimes die of old age. That is, their original endowment

of life energy was so small as to be exhausted during infancy.

Others die very soon because of some defective development of a vital organ or organs. Monsters, now and then, are met with, born without a head or without a heart, etc. Spina bifida is what physicians call a cleft spine; the usual natural bony covering of the spinal marrow not being perfect. Most of those born thus die within their first year. Oyanosis, the blue disease of infancy, is not always fatal, but is generally so; the dark color resulting from the blood not being arterialized properly; this being due to an imperfect development of the heart or of one of its great vessels (pulmonary artery).

At any period of life the disorders to which we are all subject consist

in one or both of the following changes:

1. Disturbance of the action of some organ or organs by a morbid cause.

2. Alteration of the structure or substance of one or more organs;

inducing, of course, change also in its action.

To the first of these the term "functional disorders" is applied; those of the second sort are "organic diseases." Temporary changes in the substance or structure of an organ often occur, as when it is inflamed, from which there may or may not follow permanent organic alterations.

Only slight affections of even small parts of the body can take place and last for any time, without involving the general system more or less in disturbance. Also, a disorder beginning in the blood, and thus being a general malady, nearly if not quite always puts some of the functions of the organs out of order. Still some cases do begin in, and chiefly affect, particular organs; these we call local disorders; others begin in the blood, and involve the body in many of its functions; those are well described as general diseases. We will give attention here, first, to the nature of the disturbances coming under the former of these heads.

LOCAL DISORDERS.

Medical books speak of irritation, congestion (hypercemia), inflammation, mortification, and degeneration, as affections of organs of the body. Atrophy, hypertrophy, and morbid growths are such also; and less purely local, but often more or less restricted, are drop-sical effusions.

IRRITATION.

An eye is irritated when a spark from a locomotive, or a bit of sand, or an inverted eyelash, gets into it. A mustard-plaster first stimulates the circulation of the skin where it is applied; this may be quite within the bounds of healthy action, if the mustard be soon withdrawn. If it remain longer, irritation is shown by pain and soreness; next, if still allowed to act, it will produce inflammation. Irritation of the stomach may be caused by indigestible food, or, more serions in degree, by certain poisonous substances; as strong acids, alkalies, arsenic, or corrosive sublimate.

HYPERÆMIA.

The older name for this is congestion. It may be an active flowing of more blood than common through a part, or a passive collection of blood in the part. Stimulation produces the former; when it passes beyond the line of health into irritation, passive congestion occurs at the centre of the irritation, active congestion in the parts around it. Determination of blood towards any portion of the body may be, when very decided, called local hyperamia. A bloodless condition of an organ is called a local anamia. The first simply means excess of blood; the second, deficiency of blood.

INFLAMMATION.

All the world knows when a hand, a foot, or an eye is inflamed. Proverbially, the signs of this are redness, heat, pain, and swelling. The redness is owing to the excess of blood; the heat to the same cause, with also probably some increase of chemical change in the part. Pain is not quite so clearly to be accounted for. Pressure on a nerve is known to cause pain; and the excess of blood beating on a part at whose centre is stagnation, must induce considerable pressure. Nerve-pain (neuralgia), however, often occurs without inflammation and without pressure. Some one has wisely said that pain is always a sign of a tendency in the part towards death. It is, at least, indicative of lowered vitality, local or general; and that is present at the centre of an inflamed organ, while around it there may be the heightened activity of stimulation. In a boil, and yet more fully in a carbuncle, we see the dead centre (core) of the violent inflammation, when its force is nearly spent.

The swelling of an inflamed part is also due in considerable degree to the accumulation of blood in it. But, under the pressure of the heightened circulation, some of the lymph (watery portion) of the blood escapes from the blood-vessels into the substance of the part. Some of the corpuscles, especially the colorless, or white corpuscles (leucocytes)

also, in some cases, pass through the walls of the vessels. Then the effused lymph, with or without corpuscles, undergoes changes, which are important.

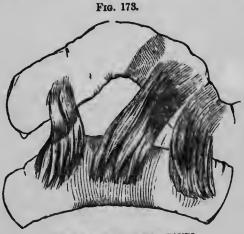
An active or acute inflammation may end in several ways:

1. Resolution is the early passing off of all the inflammatory symp-

toms, leaving almost no sensible change in the part.

2. Effusion of lymph, not at once absorbed, shows itself in bands which glue together tissues naturally movable, or in a collection of fluid (serum), constituting a form of local dropsy. In an attack of pleurisy, both of these results may follow instead of resolution.

3. Suppuration is the formation of pus; that is, yellow matter, which is very seldom absorbed, and whose best destiny is to be got out of the



INFLAMMATORY LYMPH-BANDS.

body by an opening, natural or artificial, at or near the external surface. Every "gathering" or abscess is an example of this. Pyæmia is a general disorder of the system, with a disposition towards the formation of collections of pus in different organs, with fever and much weakness, endangering life.

4. Mortification, also called gangrene, or sloughing, is the actual death of the part. Frozen feet mortify, not from inflammation, but from the directly killing effect of cold. Inflammation does not often end in mortification; if it does so, it is either from the extreme intensity of the inflammatory process, or from a very low vital condition of the patient affected.

Inflammation is modified considerably by specific causes of disease. A gouty toe is one example of this; a wrist or elbow inflamed with rheu-

matic fever is another. The sore throat of quinsy, that of scarlet fever, and that of diphtheria, are all inflammations, yet each somewhat different from the others. The pustule of vaccination and that of genuine smallpox are not precisely alike; and still different is that of chicken-pox; and so on with other specific diseases.

Chronic inflammation is not a desirable term, though it is used in all In it, redness, pain, or at least soreness, and more or less swelling, are present, in varying degrees; but there is no effusion of lymph, which really is the characteristic of a true inflammation. Irritability is a usual part of what is called chronic inflammation; we might often with advantage speak of this in describing the disorder: thus, irritable eyes, irritable stomach, irritable bladder, irritable womb, irritable brain, etc.

HYPERTROPHY.

Overgrowth is the meaning of this word; increase in size without essential change in the nature of a part. An organ may enlarge very

much, with a great change in its character; for example, a tumor of the breast, or a dropsy of the head. Again, an organ may be stretched or dilated without even an increase of its substance.

The heart exemplifies two of these changes in different instances. If one of its valves through which the blood passes becomes obstructed from disease, the heart has to labor more than usually to compel the blood to pass by the obstruction. Like other muscles (the heart being really a hollow muscle), this extra labor may have either of two results, according to the conditions present. If the person's constitution be strong, and



HYPERTROPHY OF THE HEART.

his blood well nonrished, the much-worked heart will grow thicker and more powerful with the exercise. This is hypertrophy. But, if the contrary be the case, with a feeble system and poor blood, the heart is weakened by its excess of labor, and it stretches or becomes thin (attenu-

The thickening of the skin of a workingman's hands shows an inereased growth from habitual rough usage. A corn is a hypertrophy, and so is a wart; both involving almost entirely the outer skin or Wens and pimples show a greater change of substance with enlargement,

ATROPHY.

This is the opposite of hypertrophy. Want of blood or of the supply of nervous energy will cause an organ to shrink away. So a palsied hand often, in time, withers to half its original size. Atrophy occurs naturally, all over the body, with old age. First the fat is absorbed, then the muscles, and afterwards other parts, until the "well-shrunk, shank" is far within the "lean and withered pantaloon."

DEGENERATION.

Instead of lessening in size, however, from loss of life-force, an organ may grow larger, with change of substance. This is organic degeneration. The substance taking the place of the natural tissue of the part is always inferior in character to that tissue. Thus fat may take the place of muscle, as in "fatty degeneration of the heart." Or bone-like material may form in place of the proper substance of the arteries; making "ossification" (calcification) of those vessels. Or the liver or kidney may be enlarged, the normal cells of either organ being replaced by a material like the areolar ("cellular") tissue of the surface of the body under the skiu. Tubercle, of the lungs or other parts, is essentially a kind of degeneration; although it often (not always) follows attacks of inflammation. Acute and chronic inflammation of various organs is frequently followed by hardening or softening; both of these being modes of degenerative alteration.

DROPSY.

Seldom does an accumulation of water occur in one part of the body without some previous general disorder of the system, or at least an affection of some of the great organs: the heart, liver, or kidneys. We do sometimes meet with "white swelling" of the kuee; but nearly always there are also signs of a "scrofulous" constitution to predispose to it.

Inflammation may, however, cause au effusion of serum, which remains after the acuteness of the attack has passed. The simplest illustration of this is seen in a blister.

Suppose mustard to be applied to the skin; as mentioned already, when referring to irritation, etc. First, we see stimulation, shown by redness and heat, with very little if any swelling, and no pain. Next, irritation, with soreness and pain, perhaps quite severe; then inflammation, followed by effusion, which raises the skin with what we call a "blister."

So, also, when the pleura, which lines the ribs and wraps the lungs,

is iustamed, it throws out in a few days more or less lymph as an effusion. If this is copious in amount, it presses the lung away, and interferes with its expansion in breathing. This is sometimes so serious a trouble as to induce physicians to tap the ehest and draw off the water to relieve the oppressed lung. Likewise, inflammation of the covering of the heart (pericarditis) may result in a serous effusion within the pericardial sac, clogging the heart so as not infrequently to cause death. Hydrocephalus, or water on the brain, may originate in a similar way.

Dropsy of the chest, however (hydrothorax), dropsy of the head (hydrocephalus), dropsy of the abdomen (ascites), and general dropsy (anasarca), are much more often brought on by obstruction of the circulation, with thinning of the blood, from disease of the liver, kidneys, or heart, or two or more of those organs at the same time. Ovarian dropsy attends a ("cystic") disease of one or both of the ovaries.

Œdema is a watery swelling of a part of the surface of the body or limbs.

Emphysema is a puffiness of the skin, or lungs, from accumulation of air in the cellular substance of the part affected.

MORTIFICATION.

When a part, as a toe, a whole foot, leg, or arm dies, while the rest of the body lives, it is said to mortify, slough, or suffer gangrene. Once in a while the feet of an old person may undergo slow and dry gangrene. When an artery, as that of an arm, is plugged up by a elot (embolus), the arm is apt to mortify in consequence. Frozen feet or toes often die and slough off. Sometimes, especially in ill-ventilated hospitals, stumps of amputated limbs, and wounds of various kinds, slough instead of healing (hospital gangrene). Quite rarely, sore mouth in children may become gangrenous; and even a lung, or a portion of it, may become the seat of gangrene. In the last case, the patient is almost sure to die.

Mortification of a part is always more or less dangerous to the life of the whole body in two ways. First, the slonghing process may extend gradually from the part affected towards the centre of the body; and thus, involving vital parts, it may become fatal. Or dead matter from the gangrenous portion may be absorbed by the vessels, and so poison the blood (septicemia) in a manner seldom recovered from.

When mortification is confined to a small part of the body, as a frozen toe or finger, the rest of the system being in a healthy state, a line of demarcation naturally forms, separating the dead from the living tissues. In some cases, a surgeon will then consider it best to hasten and com-

plete the process, by removing the sloughing part, by an operation. In other instances, the dead parts will drop off, leaving a surface which will gradually heal.

MORBID GROWTHS.

Warts, corns, bunions, wens, moles, bony enlargements, fibrous and fatty tumors, are all unsightly, and the last named may be considerably inconvenient. But they do not of themselves tend to undergo such increase or morbid changes as to be dangerous to life. They may there-

fore, by comparison, be called innocent growths.

Malignant tumors are generally included under the name cancer. They tend to grow indefinitely, at the expense of the neighboring parts and of the general system. They often change their character, becoming open, discharging, offensive sores; the seat, moreover, generally of severe pain. At last, the whole body of a cancerous patient becomes unhealthy; and the end, after various periods, is death.

Cancers may be either schirrus, colloid, or encephaloid.

Schirrus is hard cancer.

Colloid is jelly-like.

Encephaloid is soft, almost like brain substance.

The parts of the body most liable to be attacked by cancer (especially after middle life) are the womb, the female breast, the stomach, and the lower bowel (rectum); but various other organs are sometimes invaded by it. Schirrus is most apt to be met with in the breast, stomach (pylorus), or bowel; colloid, in the stomach, bowel, or covering of the bowels (mesentery, peritoneum). Encephaloid may occur in any organ; it is the only kind ever seen in the eye, liver, kidney, lung, etc.

Epithelioma will be spoken of on page 463.

GENERAL DISORDERS.

We may name these as debility, anæmia, plethora, cachexia, neurataxia, toxæmia, and fever.

DEBILITY.

One is apt to feel weak, when anything whatever is the matter. But there are different sorts of weakness. A soldier bleeding from a wound, is weak from loss of blood. An overworked man or horse is ready to drop, from excessive fatigue. One who has had typhoid fever for three weeks is feeble from continued illness. All these are examples of exhaustion.

But, again: a railroad car runs over a man's leg, or he is burned over half of his body, or has fallen from the top of a house to the ground, or has been terribly frightened, about himself or some one else. Either of these causes will or may, by its shock, cause depression or prostration, of which the extremest degree is called collapse.

Thirdly, everybody is "weak" who has taken a very heavy cold, or who has an attack of measles, scarlet fever, small-pox, intermittent, remittent, or other fever. In the beginning of all such affections, the weakness is that of oppression. The organs of the body are clogged, so to speak; skin, kidneys, bowels, etc., are, for the time, hindered in their action, and the loaded blood fails to stimulate aright the various functions.

These states may be illustrated by a comparison. Exhaustion is like the running down of a clock. Depression, like arresting for a time the movement of the pendulum. Oppression, like something getting into the works, which does not stop their motion, but obstructs and alters it so that it goes out of time. We remedy the first of these by winding up the clock; the second, by starting the pendulum again; the third, by removing the obstruction from the works. So it is important, in treating debility, to distinguish of what kind it is. Exhaustion, as after long illness, is to be recovered from, with time, under nourishing food, rest, pure air, etc. Depression, or prostration, as from a severe shock, by warmth, rest, and stimulation, according to the nature and degree of the case. Oppression of the organs, at the onset of a disease, is best relieved by unloading the system, by purgative medicines, and those which promote the action of the skin and kidneys; sometimes, in an early stage, by the withdrawal of blood from the arm, or by leeches or cups from a central part.

ANÆMIA.

Poverty of blood is what this word means. It may result from various diseases, or from loss of blood, too long nursing, etc. Weakness accompanies it, of the kind above called exhaustion. An amenic person is usually pale (though perhaps easily flushed by excitement), rather thin, and "nervous." In women, such a condition is apt to be attended by monthly irregularity. There is a form of it called progressive permicious anamia, which cannot be accounted for by ordinary causes, and which (unlike simple, common anamia) it is almost or quite impossible to cure by any treatment. Another serious affection of the blood is leukamia, of which we will speak in another place.

PLETHORA.

This is the opposite of anæmia. In it, the red corpuseles of the blood are too numerous, and the blood itself is redundant in amount. A plethorie person is round and plump (not necessarily fat), with full bloodvessels and a high color. Such an one is more liable than others, in early life, to acute inflammations and active hemorrhages; after middle age, to apoplexy.

CACHENIA.

By this we mean a bad habit of constitution.

Leukemia * (or leucocythæmia) is a disease in which there is an excess of white or colorless corpuscles in the blood.

Another cachexia is scurvy (scorbutus); brought on by deficiency of

fresh food; especially vegetable food.

Another is goitre or bronchocele; whose main feature is a swelling in the neck, involving the thyroid gland. With this, in Switzerland, there is often cretinism; a depraved constitution in every way; stunted growth, mental imbecility, and general weakness.

Chlorosis, or "green sickness," is a cachexia sometimes met with in girls or young women; the name is given because of a peculiar sallow-

ness of complexion belonging to it.

Rickets occurs tolerably often among the ill-fed poor in the cities of Europe; much more seldom in this country. Those having it are feeble from childhood, with defective development especially of the bones; which are easily broken and subject to decay.

Tuberculosis is the constitutional affection of which consumption of the lungs is the most familiar manifestation; but it often also affects the bowels, brain, and other organs. Tubercles are the small, irregular,

Something more will be said of each of these affections in a later part of this book;
 under SPECIAL DISEASES.

roundish deposits found after death in the place of healthy tissues; which, however, frequently soften, leaving cavities. Tubercular meningitis is the name given to an almost always fatal form of inflammation of the membranes of the brain, in children.

Scrofula is an old designation for a constitutional tendency showing itself, early in life, by swelling of the glands of the neek and elsewhere, sore eyes, sore nose, running at the ears, and sometimes inflammation and decay of the bones of the limbs, or "white swelling" of the knee. Cheesy matter is found in scrofulous glands, which closely resembles the tubercle of some consumptive lungs. Many physicians believe, I think correctly, that scrofula and tuberculosis are essentially varieties of the same cachexia. Its characteristic is, a tendency to slow and obstinate inflammatory affections of different organs of the body, with deposits of formless material, more or less cheese-like at first, but disposed to soften



TUBERCULOUS LUNG.

(occasionally, however, becoming chalky instead) and to cause abscesses (gatherings with pus) around it.

Diathesis is another word used at times with very nearly the same meaning as cachexia. So, we may say, that the diathesis now mentioned, which is often inherited, involves generally in childhood the glands, nuccous membranes (of the nose, ears, eyes), and bones, making what is called scrofula; or, at the same period, the brain, with "tubercular" or scrofulous meningitis; in youth and early middle age, the hungs; producing phthisis, that is, consumption of the lungs. There is good reason to be sure, however, that tubercular consumption may occur and go on to a fatal end without depending upon any inflammation of the lungs to begin it; being simply, from first to last, a destructive general and local cacheria.

NEURATAXIA.

I have coined this word (from neuron, a nerve, in the Greek, and adaria, irregularity) to signify nervous disorder. Neurasthenia has been much spoken and written about of late years, meaning nervous debility. The latter, debility, does very often predispose to and produce disorder of the nervous system; but the other term is wanted because un amount of irregularity in the nervous functions may and does often occur quite out of proportion to the weakness present; indeed sometimes in those who can scarcely be said to be in a condition of marked debility.

Hysteria is the most common descriptive word for various ataxic (nubalanced, out of order) nervous symptoms. It covers not only what are known as "fits of hysterics," but also a great many freaks of disease, of body and mind, well known to physicians. Among special diseases, hereafter, we may consider more particularly epilepsy, infantile and other convulsions, lock-jaw, etc., as disorders of the nervous system.

TOXEMIA: BLOOD-POISONING.

An old saying is that "the blood is the life." Everything that ever makes part of any organ of the body must reach its place therein through the blood. And all that exists to-day in the solid structure of our frames will, some day or other (unless it be on the skin or some surface connecting with the outside), dissolve in the blood, to be carried out and away. Moreover, every beat of the heart, every drawing of breath, every thought flashing through the brain, needs a supply of pure blood, that it may be done rightly and well.

Blood-poisoning, then, can never be a trifling thing. We would be in deadly dauger of it every day, but that so much is arranged in our bodies not only to prevent it, but to relieve it promptly when it begins to take place. Indeed, each particle of used-up matter, which has served its purpose in any organ, becomes poisonous the moment it gets into the blood. But then, at once, the lungs, skin, kidneys, and bowels, with help also from the liver, take from the blood these dead particles, and carry them out, in the exhaled breath, perspiration, wine, and excrement. Thus we are safe, although, most literally, "in the midst of life we are in death."

If, however, either of these blood-purifying processes is stopped, or much obstructed, real danger comes. Waste material collects in the blood, and the organs, thus badly supplied, work badly. There are several forms of blood-poisoning. One is uramia, from suppression of the action of the kidneys; another is cholamia, from non-secretion of bile by the liver. Another might be called sapramia, from retention

of putrefiable matter not carried off by the bowels; but that word is otherwise used by some writers.

All these are forms of blood-poisoning from within; that is, by matter formed in the body. Next to these may be unmed septicamia, produced by the absorption of foul nuterial from a surface of the body, or man it; as from a gaugrenous wound or an unhealthy abscess; or from the unremoved "lochial" discharges following child-birth. Pyamia is the term applied to such poisoning when it is followed by a deposit of pus in various parts of the body.

Uramia, unless relieved (towards which the skin ulways does n friendly part for the kidneys), is fatal usually in a very few days. Cholomia seldom shows such destructive power, but is manifested by dizziness, sickness of stomach, headache, bitter taste in the month, and yellowness of the skin, tongue, and eyes.* Obstruction of the bowds causes blood-tainting by non-removal of putrescent material through their secretion; thus, and by other means, it kills commonly in a week or two, unless some means of relief be found. Septicomia and pyomia will be treated of hereafter by themselves.

Outside poisons reach the blood through the month and stomach, by the lungs, or by the skin. Not now considering gross poisons (such as arsenic, corrosive sublimate, etc.), we refer here to those of a subtler nature, as bad drinking-water, malaria, and the causes of those diseases which for a long time have been called zymotic, now more often named enthetic—as small-pox, scarlet fever, yellow fever, cholera, etc.—about whose causative history something has been said in our section on Etiology. Each of these has more or less characteristic effects, to be described hereafter in their due place. That which is common to them all will be our now next following subject.

FEVER.

When one has a hot, dry skin, a glowing red eheek, thirst, a rapid pulse, and weakness of body, with more or less dulness or disturbance of the mental faculties, we say he has fever. Constipation of the bowels, and scanty secretion from the kidneys, also commonly belong to the same condition. But of all this group of symptoms, the most constant one is heat. In health, a thermometer in the armpit will mark 98.5° Fahr. Fever often runs it up to 103°, 104°, 105°, or even higher still.

^{*}These last symptoms result from the non-removal of the coloring-matter of the bile, which may have been reabsorbed into the blood from the gall-bladder after being secreted by the liver, when the gall-duct is obstructed, as by gall-stones.

What causes this excess of heat? Several conjectures have been made about it; but not much has been proved. The most nearly certain explanation is, that it is owing to increased "combustion," that is, oxidation, going on in the blood. Always, oxygen is, during life, and still more rapidly after death, combining with and "consuming" the elements of the body, in the blood and in the tissues. This consumption or combustion, which produces animal heat, is controlled and regulated, during health, by the living energy (life-force) of the body; the nervous centres being the instruments of this regulation. But when a disturbing element is introduced, life-energy is lowered, and chemical changes go on more rapidly; hence a higher heat of blood-combustion.

Fever is met with in connection with many diseases. Inflammation of any of the great organs, brain, lungs, heart, pleura, bronchial tubes, stomach, bowels, etc., will, when active, be attended by it. And, without any inflammation, we meet with it in typhus; also with inflammatory affections secondary to the general disease, in scarlet fever, smallpox, measles, diphtheria; and with or without local inflammations, in yellow fever, in relapsing, intermittent, and remittent fevers; perhaps also sometimes without any true acute inflammation, in typhoid fever.

Two sorts of origination of the febrile state seem thus to exist: one, when it follows a local inflammation—irritative fever; the other, when it precedes inflammation or occurs without it, having its morbid cause in the blood—toxemic fever. The various examples of it will receive our attention again after awhile.

CLASSIFICATION OF DISEASES,

Various plans of arrangement have been proposed, and are in use. I prefer to name all diseases as either inflammations, toxemic disorders, cachectic affections, nervous disorders, or unclassifiable dis-

Under the first head we place inflammatory attacks affecting the brain (meningitis*), lungs (pneumonia), pleura (pleurisy), air-passages (laryngitis, tracheitis, bronchitis), heart (endocarditis, pericarditis), tonsils (quinsy), throat (phuryngitis), stomach (gustritis), bowels (enteritis, colitis, dysentery), peritoneum (peritonitis), liver (hepatitis), kidney (nephritis), bladder (cystitis), etc.

As toxemic disorders may be mentioned: 1. Those can bonly by confuct or inoculation: primary syphilis, gonorrhoa, hydropholia, vaccinia.† 2. Eruptire! diseases, which are contagious: small-vox, chicken-pox, scarlet fever, measles. 3. Allied affections to the above, but not cruptice, ulthough contagious: mumps and whoopingcough. 4. Discuses generally epidemic or endemic: § typhoid fever, typhus, spotted (cerebro-spinal) fever, erysipelas, puerperal fever, influenza, diphtheria, plague, and cholera. 5. Endemic am occasionally epidemie: yellow fever, relapsing fever, and dengue. 6. Endemie and "malurious": intermittent, remittent, mul pernicious

Of cachectic affections, a part of the long list will answer our purpose here. 1. Those which are always chronic (prolonged indefinitely, tedious, not tending to recover of themselves): anæmia, chlorosis, leukæmia, general dropsy, tuberculosis, diabetes, constitutional syphilis. 2. Acute or subacute (active, and of limited duration): scurvy, gout, inflammatory rheumatism, pyæmia, septic fever (septicæmia), etc. 3. Local cachexiae (degenerations): as cancer, goitre, Bright's disease (of the kidneys), fatty heart, gin liver, etc. 4. Skin-diseases; which will be classified in another, more convenient, place in this book.

^{*} Nearly always this term applies; meaning inflammation of the membranes of the brain as well as of its substance.

[†] Glanders, sometimes taken from the horse, is another of this group.

[?] Physicians often call these exanthemata.

These words have been explained earlier in the book. Endemic is from en, ln, and demos, a people, in the Greek; meaning among or in the midst of the people of a place. Epidemic comes from epi, upon, and demos; a disease which comes upon a

Nervous disorders may also be only in part named here: apoplexy, paralysis (palsy), epilepsy, catalepsy, hysteria, chorea (St. Vitus's dance), tetanus (lock-jaw), asthma, angina pectoris, locomotor ataxy (one form of spine-disease), convulsions, neuralgia, delirium tremens (mania-a-potu), insanity.

Of unclassifiable diseases, not easily fitting in either of the above groups, there are dyspepsia, cholera morbus, diarrhæa, colic,

jaundice, hemorrhages, local dropsies, worms, etc.

organ or function of his body is not as it ought to be?

SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS OF DISEASES.

On approaching a sick person, our first question, whether put into words or not, is naturally, Is there much the matter?

Other inquiries follow, such as these: Has he fever? Is he very weak? Is his head clear? Does he suffer pain anywhere? What

So we proceed from one thing to another in forming what dectors call a diagnosis of a case. Experience makes such an examination more and more easy, rapid, and efficient. A besetting temptation, even with physicians, is, when enough has been found out to give a probable name for the malady of the patient, to conclude at once that this is the whole matter, and that we know all about his case. This arrot be true, however, unless we have carefully scrutinized all his organs, or at

absence of disorder in them all.

Our plan here makes suitable only a short account of the principal symptoms found in connection with different parts of the body, and their meaning; or, at least, the conditions with which they are most likely to be associated.

least have satisfied ourselves on good evidence as to the presence or

SYMPTOMS AFFECTING THE SKIN.

The skin is hot and dry in fever.

Moisture is nearly always a favorable sign. Exceptions are, the cold and clammy perspiration of great prostration, and the copious sweating of advanced consumption.

Emaciation (wasting) is seen generally in those long siek. Sometimes it occurs rapidly, as in severe diarrhea, or in the summer com-

plaint of children.

The color of the skin may be changed considerably in disease. The face is—

Pale, during fainting, with sick stomach, and in anæmie persons.

Flushed, in fever, early stage of apoplexy, or intoxication. Cheeks brightly flushed, in hectic fever of consumptives.

Purple or livid, in typhoid or typhus fever.

Yellow, in jaundice, bilious fever, and yellow fever.

Sallow, in chlorosis, dyspepsia, and cancer.

Blue, in the collapse of cholera, and cyanosis. Black, almost, in suffocation from any cause.

Eruptions upon the skin belong to certain diseases, which will be described hereafter.

SYMPTOMS PRESENTED BY THE MOUTH, ETC.

The tongue is pale, in anæmic persons; red, in scarlet fever, inflamed mouth, and sometimes when the stomach is inflamed (gastritis); furred, in indigestion, and very often in fever; brown, or black, cracked and fissured, in low fevers, as typhoid or typhus. It is pushed out with difficulty in low fevers, and after an apoplectic attack; going to one side, in paralysis affecting one side only.

The teeth are covered with thick brown stuff called "sordes" in low febrile states. They are loosened, sometimes, by severe salivation, from large doses of mercury.

Doses of mercurial medicines large enough to produce such effects are not now given by regular physicians.

The gums are swollen, soft, and spongy, and disposed to bleed easily in scurvy. A blue line along the gums is observed in lead poisoning; a red line, occasionally, in advancing consumption. Swelling and soreness of the gums, with tenderness of the teeth and a "coppery" taste in the mouth, are signs of mercurial salivation.

Increase of saliva gives the name to this affection, once not uncommon in medical practice. Iodide of potassium, taken medicinally, will sometimes salivate. Large doses of jaborandi, or its active principle, pilocarpin, generally does so.

The taste is morbidly bitter in disorder of the liver; sour, often, in dyspepsia; saltish, with spitting of blood; putrid, in gangrene of the lungs.

THE THROAT.

Difficulty of swallowing may result from inflammation of the tonsils or gullet (pharynx); spasmodic closure of the throat; permanent narrowing or stricture of the pharynx or lower gullet (@cophagus); obstruction, as from a bone, etc.; paralysis, as after diphtheria, or extreme weakness, in the dying state.

Thirst is excessive in two opposite conditions: high fever and low collapse.

THE STOMACH.

Appetite is almost always deficient in both acute and chronic disease; most so, however, in the former, as a rule. Perverted appetite occurs in

cases of chlorosis, and in some hysterical subjects.

Nausea (sick stomach), with or without vomiting, is met with in indigestion, colic, seasickness, preynancy (morning sickness), gastritis (inflammation of the stomach), hysteria (occasionally), cholera morbus, epidemic cholera, bilious remittent fever, yellow fever, ulcer of stomach, cancer of etomach, strangulated hernia (rupture), obstruction of the bowels, irritant poisoning.

SYMPTOMS BELONGING TO THE CIRCULATION.

Palpitation, or disturbed action of the heart, may depend upon inflammation of its membranes (perivarditis, endocarditis), enlargement (hypertrophy or dilutation), valvular disease, anomia, with weakness, ner-



FEELING THE PULSE

vous irritability (nervousness), as from strong coffee, tobacco, etc., dys-

pepsia. brain disorder.

The pulse may be, in disease, natural, strong, weak, firm, yielding, full, small, compressible, rapid, slow, quick, jerking, hard, soft, tense, gaseous, orded, wivy, thready, imperceptible, regular, irregular, intermittent, double (dicrotous).

A fever pulse is moderately rapid, and in the early stages of an attack, strong; later, soft and compressible. When violent acute inflammation of any organ is present, it is quickened, hard, and rather full, as a rule.

A nervously disturbed pulse is quick (jerking rather than rapid),

and variable, under excitement . . repose.

In extreme weakness, most of all in the dying state, the pulse is

nearly always rapid and small, or "thready.": A pulse of 150 or 160 in a minute, is alms a always a sign of death. Very rarely is the pulse slow in the dying state.

Slowness of the pulse is most marked in compression of the brain (as in apoplexy, fracture of the skull, or hydrocephalus, i.e., water on the brain), and in opium poisoning. Occasionally the pulse is very slow in cases of heart disorder.

Irregularity of the pulse is natural to a small number of persons, at least in childhood or in old age, without other signs of disease. It may be, otherwise, a transient symptom, particularly during convalescence from a fever. It is distinctly related to disease present, in certain cases of heart disease (when it is serious) and in the third stage of acute meningitis (inflammation of the brain). Excessive smoking of tobacco sometimes produces irregularity of the pulse, as was first shown by Dr. B. W. Richardson, of London.

A double (dicrotous) pulse is met with in many instances of continued fever, typhus or typhoid.

Slowness of the capillary circulation is occasionally shown, in morbid states, by the tardy return of the blood when displaced by pressure, as on the back of the hand or the cheek. In the veins, likewise, this is notably seen in the collapse of cholera.

HEMORRHAGE.

While bleeding from any part of the body is often an important symptom, it needs to be interpreted with care. Its consequence depends greatly on its quantity and the source from which the blood comes.

Thus, in bleeding at the nose, the flow of blood may possibly result from either of the following causes: a severe blow; congestion (fulness of blood) simply in the membranes of the nose; congestion of the brain (to which the bleeding may give advantageous relief); early stage of typhoid fever; suppressed menstruation (monthly discharge) of which it is an alternative.

Spitting of blood may come from hemorrhage of the gums, the back of the nostrils, throat, windpipe (bronchial tubes), lungs, or stomach.

If from the stomach, it is preceded by nausea, and is vomited. When from the lungs or bronchial tubes, it is coughed up instead.

Hemorrhage from the lungs (hamoptysis) may depend upon congestion (over-fulness of blood) of the lungs; heart-disease, tubercular consumption, suppressed menstruation, of which it may, occasionally, be "vicarious," that is, an alternative or substitute; an injury, as a broken rib, wound of the lung, etc.; rupture of an aneurism of the aorta. (See the account of this affection later in the book.)

Vomiting of blood (humatemesis) may be one of the symptoms occurring in hysterical women; or it may result from ulcer, or cancer of the stomach; or it may be (as above) substitutive or vicarious of absent menstruction.

Uterine hemorrhage (other than the natural monthly flow) may come from congestion of the womb, or its ulceration, or cancer. During pregnancy it threatens misearriage, or results from misplacement of the placenta (after-birth).

Hemorrhage from the bowels may be connected with piles (hemorrhoids), dysentery, ulceration of the bowels, cancer, rupture of an abdominal aneurism, typhoid, malarial, or yellow fever, or vicarious menstruation.

Hematuria (bloody urine) may follow a mechanical injury, inflammation of the kidneys, stone in the bladder, or a bad state of things in cases of searlet fever.

SYMPTOMS CONNECTED WITH THE BREATHING ORGANS.

Sixteen to eighteen times in a minute is the ordinary rate of breathing while at rest, in health, for a grown person. In fever it is almost always a good deal faster than this; often thirty, forty, or more respirations in a minute. When a person is poisoned with opium, the breathing becomes enoring, and very slow, even only six times or less in a minute in heavy narcotism. Apoplexy, and pressure upon the brain from a piece of a broken skull, are also attended by slow, snoring respiration.

Difficulty of breathing (dyspnæa) may be caused by

Irrespirable gases (as chlorine, etc.) in the air;

Obstruction in the air-tubes, as from croup, asthma, or bronchitis; Disease of the lungs or pleura, as in pneumonia, consumption, or pleurisy.

Disease of the heart or aorta;

Abdominal dropsy, pressing upwards.

Coughing, also, may have a variety of causes, of the nature of which we may often judge by its character. Thus it is, commonly,

Dry and tight, in early bronchitis;

Soft, deep, and loose, in advanced bronchitis;

Hacking, in the beginning of consumption;

Deep and distressing, in advanced consumption.

Short and sharp, in pneumonia;

Hourse and barking, in an early stage of croup;

Whistling, in advanced membraneas croup;

Paroxysmal (in spells) and whooping, in whooping-cough.

Dry and hollow, when sympathetic or nervous.

Expectoration is white, thin, and mucous, in catarrh and early bronchitis; yellow and thick (purulent) in severe and protracted bronchitis; rusty, in the middle stage of pneumonia; bloody, thick, and yellow, in developing consumption (phthisis); in heavy, round, small yellowish, tumps, in advanced consumption; putrid (rotten), in gangrene of the lung.

The breath is hot, during fever; cold, in the collapse of cholera. The odor of the breath is seldom perfectly agreeable except in a healthy child. Bad teeth and imperfect digestion are common causes of unpleasantness in it. It is very heavy at the commencement of a fever; sour, during an attack of indigestion; rotten, in gangrene of the lung.

Hiccough is produced by a spasm of the diaphragm, at the floor of the chest. It may depend upon indigestion, nervous disorder, or great exhaustion. In the last of these, it is generally a decidedly bad symptom.

Snoring (stertorous), respiration results (as above-mentioned) from oppression of the brain; the cause of which may be either apoplexy, fracture of the skull, dead drankenness, or narcotism by opium. (Of course we do not forget that some persons snore tremendously during their natural and healthy sleep.)

SYMPTOMS AFFECTING THE MUSCLES.

Position is often significant in disease. Inability to rise may be owing to general weakness, palsy, inflammation of the joints, etc. (as from rheumatism or gout), or an injury, such as a broken thigh or leg.

Inability to lie down is generally the result of difficulty of breathing (dyspnæa), which doctors then call orthopnwa, or straight-up breathing. In colic, the patient usually prefers to lie upon the belly.

In peritonitis, the chosen position is on the back, with the knees drawn up.

In the early stage of pleurisy, the patient lies of choice on the side not affected; after water collects (effusion) this is reversed. When the liver is enlarged from disease, the right side is mostly preferred. When the heart is much disturbed in its action, the sufferer generally cannot lie on the left side. Exceptions occur in heart disease, especially of long duration.

In aneurism of the aorta, a favorite position often is sitting up and leaning over the back of a chair, or the edge of a bed.

Muscular weakness may result from acute disease, as fever, or from exhaustion. Entire want of exercise weakens the muscles. When an arm or a leg has been long fastened up in splints on account of a fracture, its muscles are almost powerless upon first being taken out of their confinement.

Spasm may be of either of three kinds: fixed, or tonic spasm, as in lock-jaw (tetanus); regularly jerking, or clonic, as in fits or convulsions; and irregularly jerking, as in St. Vitus' dance or chorea. Oramp is a short-timed tonic spasm.

Tremor (trembling) is of two kinds: constant trembling, as in shaking palsy (paralysis agitans), and tremor only when doing something, as

in one form of disease of the brain and spinal marrow.

Rigidity of nuscles is different from mere spasmodic contraction, It occurs in certain severe and continued cases of palsy (paralysis).

Jerking of the tendons (subsultus tendinum), especially at the wrists, is met with in low states of continued fever, typhoid or typhus.

SYMPTOMS CONNECTED WITH OUR SENSES.

Pain is variously interpreted, according to its place and character. It may be

Acute, sharp, cutting, as in pleurisy;
Shooting, darting, as in neuralgia;
Piercing (laneinating), in cancer;
Gnawing, tearing, in rheumatism;
Dull, heavy, aching, as in pneumonia;
Griping, twisting, in dysentery;
Bearing down, in second stage of labor;
Pulsating, in the formation of an abscess;
Burning, smarting, in erysipelas;
Stinging, nettling in articaria (nettle-rash);
Constant, or intermittent; fixed or wandering.

Tenderness on pressure is generally a sign of inflammation, although some neuralgic cases have it; possibly from inflammation of the sheaths of the nerves. Tired muscles also are often sore to the touch as well as on motion.

Sometimes pain is relieved by pressure; this is often the case with colic. In such instances we conclude that there is no inflammation.

Pain is not always at the place of disease. In disease of the hip-joint, the principal pain is at the knee; in dyspepsia, often, over the middle of the breast; when the liver is disordered, under the right shoulder-blade; in irritation of the womb, at the top of the head.

Loss of sensation (anaesthesia), occurring from disease, constitutes one kind of paralysis. The other form is loss of power to move the limbs or parts affected. When paralysis involves one side of the body only, as the right arm and leg, or the left arm and leg, we call it hemiplegia. Paraplegia is palsy of both legs at the same time. (See p. 517.)

THE EYE IN DISEASE.

Blood-shot eyes show either inflammation of them or fulness of blood in the head, which is often present in fevers. If one eye only is very red, of course the trouble must be in itself. Yellowness of the "whites" of the eyes occurs in bilious disorder.

The eyeballs are notably prominent in that curious and rather uncommon disorder called "exophthalmic goitre" (of which meution will be made again hereafter). Prominence or bulging of one eye only shows a probability of disease, as a tumor, behind that eye.

Sinking of the eyeballs in their sockets is seen to some extent in consumption and other wasting diseases. Sinking of one eye must result from wasting of its own substance or of the socket behind it, the former being often observed in the blind.

Rolling of the eyes from side to side is common in great nervous restlessness of infants or young children.

Squinting (strabismus), which is natural with some, and an acquired habit with others, becomes a serious symptom when it occurs as the result of disease of the brain.

The lustre of the eyes grows dull often a short time, perhaps a few hours, before death. Bright eyes are commonly noticed in advancing consumption. They may glare in mania (insanity), or, for a time, in acute inflammation of the brain.

Very small pupils of the eyes are seen when either they are, or the brain is, the seat of inflammation. In opium-poisoning the pupils are contracted, at least until very near death. They are large (dilated), commonly, in apoplexy, water on the brain (hydrocephalus), and poisoning by prussic acid or by Jamestown weed (stramonium) or belladonna.

Great shrinking from light (photophobia) exists in severe inflammation of the eyes, and also in acute inflammation of the brain.

Spots, rings, etc., floating before the sight (musca volitantes) show the presence of opaque particles in the interior of the eyeball (vitreous humor), which are not of much importance. Fixed dark spots are of more consequence; they often show a beginning of blindness.

THE EARS.

Pain in one of the ears, earache, may be either inflammatory or neuralgio. Other signs must be considered along with it to show which it is.

Ringing in the ears (tinnitus aurium) occurs from either of at least two or three causes, to distinguish between which is not always easy.

Large doses of quinine, and of one or two other powerful medicines,

will make many people's ears ring or roar. Disease of the ear will often produce this symptom, even when the disease is not severe at the time. In other instances, brain exhaustion, or congestion (overfulness of blood) of the brain, may give rise to it. If it be heard only in one ear, we may be confident that the cause is in that ear itself.

Deafness, or hardness of hearing, in various degrees, may proceed

from

Cold in the head;

Very large doses of quinine;

Typhus or typhoid fever;

Wax accumulated in the ears:

Disease or injury of the ears;

Brain disease.

HEADACHE.

Pain in the head may depend in different cases upon

Neuralgia;

Rheumatism;

Overfulness of blood (congestion, hyperamia); Blood poisoning (as by alcohol, opium, etc.);

Fever (remittent, typhoid, etc.);

Disease of the brain;

Sympathetic irritation (as with uterine disorder, etc.).

Skill as well as care may often be necessary to make out, in an actual case, to which of these a headache (cephalalgia) belongs. Neuralgic headache is nearly always on one side only or chiefly, and extends to the face also; it is shooting or darting, and there is with it some tenderness on pressure. Rheumatism of the scalp is usually accompanied by stiffness of the muscles that move the head and neck. Headache from fulness of blood or fever is attended by heat of the head; the pain is then apt to be throbbing in character. Pain from disease of the brain is generally in one spot, either fixed or in spells (periodic or paroxysmal); and some other sign of brain disease is also present with it. (See p. 519.)

EXPRESSION OF THE FACE.

Acute disease is apt to alter this more than that which is chronic; but it is often changed in both. An anxious or distressed expression giving way to serenity is always a good sign, unless it be the result of mortification or palsy coming on.

Great anxiety is seen especially in organic diseases of the heart, and in acute disorders of the abdomen, as well as in melancholy.

Terror belongs habitually to delirium tremens, also called mania-a-potu, or the horrors.

Rage is now and then seen in insanity (acute mania), and in some, not all, cases of hydrophobia.

Insane persons, although not always very peculiar in countenance, have mostly an expression by which their derangement can be recognized by those accustomed to observing it.

Collapse, that is, extreme prostration, as from the shock of a railroad accident, an attack of cholera, or the dying state from any cause, has its own characteristic expression, more easily understood when seen than described. Shrunken cheeks, pale or livid, with mouth drawn down at the corners, and white, glassy eyes; these with clammy coldness to the touch, gasping respiration, and a thready or absent pulse at the wrist, mark this condition.

DELIRIUM.

This is a disorder or confusion of mind, in acute disease, not fixed for a long time like insanity, but depending upon a temporary cause. It is present in many attacks of maladies attended by fever; as severe remittent, typhus, typhoid, scarlet, or yellow fever, etc. A few persons are liable to transient delirium during almost any brief attack of illness. Mania-a-potu, as already said, has a characteristic delirium, in which, almost always, there is extreme terror, from imaginary enemies or dangers of some kind.

Doctors speak of active delirium, in which the patient talks a good deal, and tries to go about; and passive or low, muttering delirium, when he lies still and only mnumbles incoherent words.

Grown people are affected by delirium usually under eircumstances which, in a child, would bring on convulsions.

STUPOR.

Coma is the medical word for this. It is an unnaturally deep sleep, from which one cannot be roused. We meet with it chiefly in the following: alcoholie drunkenness ("dead drunk"); opium poisoning (narcotism); apoplexy; very low typhus fever; compression of the brain from fractured skull.

It is not always easy to say, in a particular case, which of these is present.

Intoxication is generally shown by the odor of the breath, and the general appearance of the patient, and his behavior before he became unconscious. In opium poisoning, the pupils of the eyes are, as a rule, strongly contracted, even when no considerable light is shining on them. Typhus fever is known by the history of the case; as, in it, complete stupor is never the condition at the very beginning of the illness. A broken skull, if not obviously accounted for by a known injury, may be

found out by careful examination of the head. (Of this again hereafter.)

Disziness (giddiness, vertigo) is accounted for in different instances by either of four causes: mere weakness; disorder of the liver (biliousness, cholomia) and stomach; disease of the internal ear; disease of the brain. The last of these is the least common, unless in persons over sixty years of age.

Loss of speech (aphasia), or getting the wrong words instead of those intended, comes from a disorder of the brain. It is often accompanied by loss of power, especially in the right arm and leg. Loss of voice (aphonia) is another thing; resulting from thickening of the lining membrane of the windpipe (larynx), or paralysis of its muscles; or, in the dying or nearly dying state, extreme debility.

SYMPTOMS AFFECTING THE SECRETIONS: THE BOWELS.

Constipation (tightness of the bowels; absence or rarity of movement, and smallness of amount discharged) is almost always present during the first days of a *fever*, of any kind except *typhoid*. Even in that, also, although early looseness of the bowels is more common, there is in a few cases a short time of constipation.

Pregnant women are very apt to have the bowels constipated, from the partial obstruction produced by the pressure of the enlarging uterus upon the lower bowel (rectum). Sea-sickness, also, is very often attended by slowness of the bowels. But the most obstinate and alarming constipation is that of obstruction of the bowels; as in strangulated rupture, or in intussusception (both to be again mentioned in another place).

Diarrhæa (excessive liquid flow from the bowels) is symptomatic of various disordered conditions. It is present as a rule in typhoid fever, and is common in advanced pulmonary consumption. It is an essential part of the attack in cholera morbus, epidemic cholera, and cholera infantum (summer complaint of infants). It occurs frequently by itself, particularly in warm elimates, and in the summer season.

Discharges in diarrhoea are either natural (fecal), nucous (slimy), bilious, or watery. In cholera morbus, which may be met with anywhere, the passages are nearly natural or bilious, unless near the end of a very bad case. Epidemic cholera is distinguishable partly by the rice-water-like abundant discharges, with no biliary color at all.

Dysentery is recognized by scanty but frequent bloody discharges, with griping pains, and a disposition to bear down. Slime (mucus) is apt to be mingled with blood, also, and at a later period in severe cases there may be pus.

Excretion of the Kidneys.

Symptoms connected with this exerction are: strangury (difficult urination), incontinence of urine (want of control, especially during sleep), retention, suppression, and excess of the secretion (diabetes), and unhealthy character of the urine passed.

Strangury sometimes follows the application of a fly (cantharides) blister. Now and then it is observed in children from the irritation of seat-worms in the lower bowel; and in young infants, owing to an irritating quality of the urine; which, in such a case, is pretty sure to be scanty and high colored.

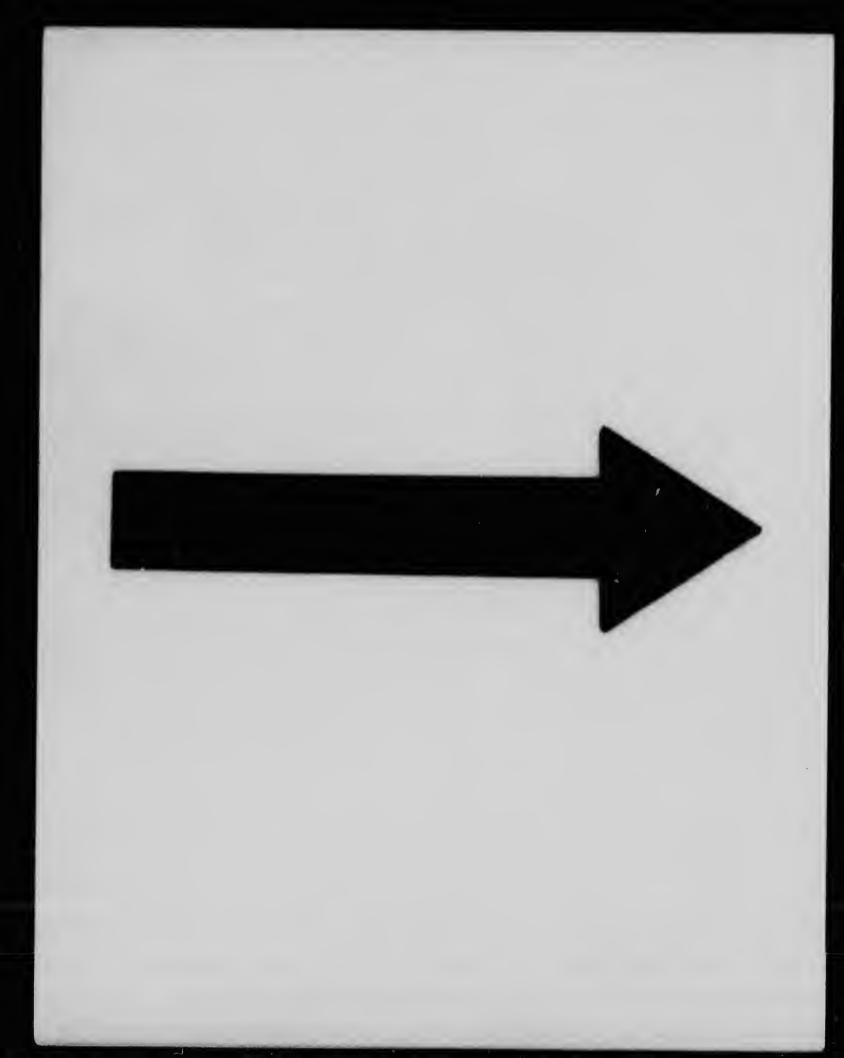
Nightly incontinence of urine is quite common in children, sometimes up to their "teens." Dribbling while awake shows a much greater loss of power over the bladder. This is seen in many cases of injury or serious disease of the spinal marrow.

Retention of urine may be a very distressing symptom. Men suffer it who have "stricture" of the urcthra (ontlet tube from the bladder). Nervous disturbance may cause it in either sex, but especially often in hysterical women. After child-birth it follows pressure upon the neck of the bladder. In low fevers, as typhus or typhoid, it results from general debility. Its probability should always be remembered in such cases, as the patient may be "out of his mind" and so may give no account of it. We should make sure, in a fever case (or, indeed, in any other illness), how much and how often water is passed. If the quantity is certainly small, it is necessary to examine the abdomen at its lower part, over the bladder. When urine is retained, there will be a firm swelling at the lowest part of the belly, just in front, above the bony ridge of the pelvis; and, on tapping there with a finger, a dull sound will be made. If the bladder be empty, the sound will be rather hollow.

In some cases of spine disease, there is retention instead of incontinence of urine. This symptom, however produced, often calls for relief by the use of a tube introduced through the urethra into the bladder, called a catheter. It is short and almost straight for the female; longer and curved (if of metal or firm rubber) for the male subject.

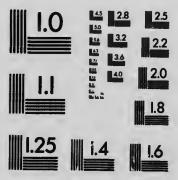
Suppression of urine is always a bad sign, in any case of disease. It is sometimes met with in low fevers, epidemic cholera, bad cases of scarlet fever, and long standing cases of disease of the kidneys. Uramia (blood poisoning with materials of urine) follows it, and usually ends life in a few days at most.

Excess of urinary discharge is called by physicians diabetes. It occurs not unfrequently, for a time, after checking of perspiration by exposure to cold. Hysterical or other nervous persons also may be affected with it. Common report says that soldiers almost always have



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need to empty the bladder just before going into a battle. The chronie (prolonged) disease called diabetes is attended by a remarkable change in the character of the nrine passed; which is very heavy and contains sugar.

QUALITIES OF THE URINE.

About forty, or from thirty to fifty, fluid onuces (a quart, more or less) of urine is passed by a healthy grown person every twenty-four hours. It may be retained longer in the female than in the male bladder, but not many hours commonly in either. More is passed, and more frequently, during winter than in summer. Warm temperature promotes perspiration, cold, wination.

The color of healthy urine is that of amber. It should be clear when passed, and should have very little settling at the bottom, even after standing for some hours. Yet some change in color, lighter or darker, or variations in quantity, and even deposit of sediment, may take place while the person continues in health. Such alterations often show the successful relief of the system, by excretion, of what, if not carried off, might have caused disease. Great and continued alterations in the urine, however, are important signs of something being wrong; and, under skilful examination, the nature of the disease may thus be found out. For this kiud of inquiry the skill of the physician, trained in the use of chemical tests and the microscope, will be required. Our present plan calls only for an account of what any observant person may discover and understand.*

We judge of the character of the urinary secretions by noticing, besides its quantity, its general appearance, weight (specific gravity), reaction with chemical tests, and the presence or absence of different kinds of sediments.

In appearance, it may be clear or opaque, light-colored or dark. If clear and deep-colored, we infer a too rapid wasting of substance to be going on in the body at the time. In jaundice, the urine is generally very yellow, and sometimes is as dark as porter.

When opaque, it is either white or dark. White opaque urine contains either mucus or pus, or undissolved earthy sediment, or all of these together. Mucus floats more as a cloud than pus; the latter is apt to be opaque throughout, though with a more creamy layer at the bottom. Pus, however, can be readily diffused (more so than mucus) by shaking. (Mucus always shows a less violent, or less advanced, inflammation than pus.)

^{*} See the author's "Essentials of Practical Medicine," under Semeiology, for further particulars on this subject.

Dark-colored opaque urine is most frequently tinged with blood, giving it a pinkish or brownish hue. Blood may be in the urine either from the kidneys or from the bladder; or, after an instrument has been used, from the urethra. Bile also may give a dark color to the urine, as in non-secretion of bile by the liver (or its reabsorption) in jaundiee.

The weight (specific gravity) of the nrine may be easily determined by using a wrinometer (hydrometer), which is a little glass upright, with mercury at its lower end, and a marked scale above. In healthy nrine (as in pure water the 1000 mark is just at the water-level) it should only sink so far that the 1017, or from that to the 1020, line just touches the level. In diabetes mellitus (with sugar in the urine) it may rise to 1060 or 1070. In the clear and abundant nrine of some hysterical persons it may be so light as to mark 1010 or less.

Tests require for their use, as already said, chemical skill. It is easy for any one, however, to find whether the urine is acid or alkaline. In health, and mostly also in disease, it is acid, more or less. This is shown by its reddening a strip of litmus paper dipped into it. If, instead, it be alkaline, it will restore the blue color to litmus paper which has been reddened by another acid (as vinegar), and will change the yellow of turmeric brown. Alkaline arine is noticed particularly when mucus remains for some time, in the bladder.

Physicians use tests especially to find out whether, in cases of disease, the urine contains albumen (as in Bright's disease) or sugar (as in diabetes mellitus). For these processes we must refer to medical or chemical works.* In those also are described the various minute forms of crystals, corpuscles, etc., observed in the fresh or dried sediments of nrine, by aid of the microscope.

Gravel is the term applied to small stony particles which are formed in the kidneys from disease, and pass, first along the *nreters* to the bladder, and thence out through the *nrethra* with the flow of urine. Pain, sometimes very severe, may attend both of these short journeys of particles, if they be large. Often, however, they are more like sand than gravel, and escape without giving pain, except that both the kidneys and bladder are apt to be in a state of irritation at the time of an "attack of gravel."

^{*} It may be merely mentioned that nitric acid followed by heat will cause a milky appearance in albuminous urine. Both are needed to make the test sure. One test for sugar in urine is, to add a little strong solution of sulphate of copper to a portion of it, and then pour in half its bulk of solution of potassa. On heating the mixture, a yellowish or reddish-brown precipitate settles to the bottom of the vessel. Glass test-tubes should be used for such purposes, with a spirit-lamp.

Stone in the bladder is of the same uature, only the particles accumulate into one or more masses, which may become very large, and cause great suffering; not seldom, unless removed by an operation, shortening life.

Gall-stones are formed by thickening of bile in the gall bladder, which lies under the liver, on the right side, near the middle of the body. Although the gall-duct, through which such stones pass to the small intestine, is short, a large gall-stone (biliary calculus) sometimes gives extreme pain in its passage. Complete relief comes when it enters the small intestine (duodenum); as is the case likewise when a gravel-stone escap s from the ureter into the bladder.

PERSPIRATION.

Besides deficiency and excess in this important secretion of the skin, it is a familiar fact that it has, in some persons, a very unpleasant odor, especially in the armpits and about the feet. Perhaps this is somewhat most manifest in the African and other tropical races, but much depends on individual constitution and cleanliness. A few persons, with all possible care of their skins, still have a considerable odor, at least in warm weather. For such it is important to bathe frequently, applying good soap and water daily to their armpits and feet; and also to keep their bowels regularly and sufficiently open. The odor seems to be due in part to an unhealthy misplaced (vicarious) excretion by some of the glands of the skin.

In small-pox, typhus fever, and some other diseases, an odor peculiar to each is given off (in some cases at least) from the body.

MENSTRUATION.

This is not truly a secretion, it is rather a periodical and natural hemorrhage; although of somewhat altered blood. Its deviatious from health, besides mere irregularity, are amenorrhæa, menorrhæa, and dysmenorrhæa.

Amenorrhæa is absence of monthly discharge. Menorrhægia is excessive flow at such times. Dysmenorrhæa is the term applied when it is attended by pain. We must leave for another place further consideration of these affections.

PHYSICAL DIAGNOSIS.

By this is meant the close examination made by physicians into the state of the organs in the chest and abdomen, by measuring, feeling, tapping, and listening (mensuration, palpation, percussion, and auscultation). Percussion is tapping with a finger end, or a small hammer,

so as to compare the sound brought out with that of a healthy chest or abdomen. Auscultation is listening, either directly or through a tube (stethoscope), to ascertain the breathing sounds, or those belonging to the heart in its rhythmic action. An attempt to discuss at length this subject, which can only be practically understood with the aid of considerable experience, would be out of place in a work on Domestic Medicine.

Temperature in Disease. Thermometers are made for ascertain g this (clinical thermometers). The bulb is commonly placed in the armpit (sometimes under the tongue, or in the bowel, by direction of the physician), where it should remain about five minutes, to get the temperature of the body. During health this will be, in an adult, 98.5° (from 98.4° to 98.6°); in a child, 99° or 99.5°, possibly 100°. In tropical climates, it is sometimes a degree higher than in temperate regions. In the latter, it is apt to be highest on waking in the early morning; lowest at midnight. In tropical regions, it is lowest in the early morning, and highest shortly after noon. During fever, however, it is always highest a few hours before midnight.

A rise of temperature, in disease, of 1° Fahrenheit, corresponds, as a rule, with an increase of the rate of the pulse of from eight to ten beats in the minute. The thermometer has been known, especially in scarlet fever, yellow fever, and tetanus (lock-jaw), to mark as high as 108°, 110°, or even 112°. An anthority on the subject (Aitken) says: "When the temperature is increased beyond 98.5°, it merely shows that the individual is ill; when it is raised as high as 101°—106°, the fever is severe; if above 105°, the patient is in imminent danger; with 108° or 109° a fatal issue may wit. out doubt be expected in a comparatively short time."

Convalescence from disease does not begin until the natural temperature of the body returns, and is maintained unchanged through the day ght.

PART II.

REMEDIES.

REMEDIES.

O doctors, properly speaking, eure the diseases and injuries of their patients? Yes, and no. Cure comes from a Latin word meaning care; to take care of something or somebody. That a good physician will always do. Sometimes, also, he may and must actually interfere with what is going on; as when he gives an antidote for a poison, and so saves life that would otherwise be lost. But, in many other instances, he simply takes care of the patient, and Nature eures, in the full sense. of that word. There is, as we are created, a tendency to get weil, which was called by the ancients vis medicatrix nature. A bone, for example, What does the surgeou do? He draws it out straight, gets the pieces into their proper line, and puts on splints to keep them there. Then the bone knits, in a few weeks, of itself. So also with the healing of a wound. Its edges are placed and kept close together, if that can be done, till they unite again; or, if that be not possible, the wounded surface is covered with something which can do no harm, and which protects the part from outside air and other things, until it heals, of itself.

Here we see that certain conditions are wanted in each case, in order that the knitting or healing will take place. So it is with diseases, as well as with injuries. Some disorders are naturally self-limited; that is, they will, if the patient lives for a certain time, get well of themselves; they run a tolerably regular course, and then end. Scarlet fever either kills or is passing off, generally, within eight, nine, or ten days; small-pox runs its course, living or dying, within about three weeks; typhus fever, in four weeks; typhoid fever, in the same or a longer time; and so with other fevers, all of which are self-limited.

What the doctor has to do in such cases may be shown by an illustration.

He is like the captain or pilot of a ship. The wind, or steam, drives it on; he simply directs its course; steers it, away from dangers, and towards its intended haven.

As, however, sometimes, the captain of a vessel has more to do than only to steer it—in time of great danger, for example, to take in sail, cut down a mast, or throw overboard his cargo—so there are cases of disease in which the physician must actively interfere; and cases of injury, in which the surgeon must operate. These cases are fewer than those in which "steering" only is called for; but they are very important; and only a skilful physician or surgeon can with confidence ascertain when and how they are to be dealt with.

Hence there will always be need of doctors, and of skilful, well-trained, and well-informed ones, too, however highly we may appreciate the powers of nature and the value of good nursing. Those who understand these best will be the most able to do justice to the real worth of a judicions medical or surgical practitioner. The purpose of this part of our book, on Home Medicine, is not to attempt to show how doctors can be dispensed with, but to enable those who, under eircumstances not very care, cannot at once have competent medical advice, to judge what is the best thing to do while waiting for it. Also, it is hoped that the knowledge thus set forth may enable our readers to understand better, and thus place more intelligent confidence in, what doctors advise in cases that are brought under their care. The times of superstitious expectation of magical doings on the part of the physician (like those of the Indians' "medicine-men") have well gone by. Every one knows that no skill will always avert death. But it is important to be sure, also, that by the timely and well-judged use even of simple measures, death may often be averted or long postponed; suffering may be much lessened, and recovery may be hastened from diseases which otherwise would be of very nucertain and far-off result.

Looking at remedies from our present standpoint, we may elassify their *objects* as follows.* Whatever their nature, they are used for one or more of the following purposes:

To relieve pain;

To compose nervous disturbance;

To promote sleep;

To open the bowels;

To check diarrhœa;

To relieve vomiting or sickness of stomach;

^{*} This classification is also used, with some slight differences, in my little book entitled "The Family Adviser and Guide to the Medicine Chest;" Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott & Co.

To allay indigestion;

To improve weak digestion;

To reduce inflammation;

To lower fever;

To ease or quiet cough;

To stop hemorrhage;

To regulate menstruation;

To relieve dropsical swelling;

To support the system under prostration or exhaustion;

To increase strength in prolonged debility;

To cure certain diseases by special remedies;

To expel worms;

To antidote poisons;

To obviate the danger and suffering of accidents or injuries.

A full consideration of all the articles and procedures that are or may be used under advice of physicians for these different purposes, would make a work on "Materia Medica and Therapeutics." Many such technical and professional works have been written.* Our present aim will be to give a simple general view of the subject, and to dwell on such remedies as are safe and available in Home Medicine, when no physician is to be had; only briefly mentioning, also, some of those which are less suitable for domestic employment, although used in medical practice.

^{*}The most satisfactory information of this sort may be obtained by reference to the "United States Dispensatory," by Wood and Bache and their successors, or the "National Dispensatory," by Stillé and Maish.

To RELIEVE PAIN.

Much depends on where the pain is, and of what sort. Anodynes are medicines whose action is to quell pain, by their influence upon the brain or nerves. But we do not nearly always have to resort to hese on account of pain, especially when it first begins to be felt.

Of all parts of the body, probably the abdomen is the most frequent seat of pain. "Stomachache" and "colic" are very common. The most general cause of such attacks is indigestion with flatulence (wind in the stomach and bowels). To make the muscular coat of the stomach and intestines contract actively and evenly, all along their length, will, at least if done carly, be pretty sure to give relief. For this purpose we give warm and gentle stimulants to the stomach, as Essence of Peppermint, Essence of Ginger, or some other aromatic (spicy) medicine.

But a frequent cause of irritative pain in the stomach or bowels is the presence of acid from indigestion. Against this we have what are called antacids, because they neutralize acids by combining with them. Such are lime-water, soda, and magnesia. Often there is great advantage, in cases of colicky pain, in adding one of these to an aromatic.*

Further, the bowels are often constipated under the same circumstances, and this makes matters worse. It is of much importance then to move the bowels, by purgatives, or, as the milder ones are called, laxatives. Magnesia is one of these, being also, as above said, an antaeid, thus having a double advantage. Rhubarb is another; it is combined with aromatics in Spiced Syrup of Rhubarb, an excellent preparation, especially for children, and as a miring liquid or "vehicle" for other stronger and more unpleasant medicines. Another, often good in colic, though nasty, is castor-oil.

A safe and often very useful remedy for pain in the abdomen, or, indeed, anywhere else, is the outward application of a mustard plaster. When doubtful what else to do, try that. Properly used, it cau do no harm, and it will most probably do good, often a great deal of good. [How to make and use a mustard plaster will be explained later in this book.] A right hot piece of flannel laid over the pelly will sometimes be almost as useful as a mustard plaster.

Colicky pain may be lessened (in my own person it is entirely relieved) by firm pressure on both hip bones, near their front edge. This can be done with one's own thumbs and fingers, or by those of another. The

^{*} An old name for aromatic medicines given for flatulence is "carminatives." Some particulars about the medicines now and shortly to be mentioned, will be given hereafter.

pressure should be pretty hard, though steady and not enough to hurt of itself.

Gentle pressure, and still better kneading the bowels, at the seat of pain from flatnlence, will often help to scatter the wind and promote its moving and passing downwards, which is very important in colic.

Also, rubbing over the stomach and back with a hair-brush or clothesbrush, as briskly as can be comfortably borne, will sometimes do a

wonderful amount of good for colicky pains.

If such palliative means as those just spoken of, as aromatics, laxatives, and outward warming applications, do not, in a reasonable time, show signs of affording relief of severe pain—we may have to obtain medical advice, or in its absence to resort to anodynes. Of these, the nickest and most effectual are those made from Opium, especially audanum (tineture of opium). A much weaker one is Paregoric (camphorated tineture of opium). Camphor is, in the form of Spirits of Camphor, both an aromatic and an amodyne; in the latter quality, however, less potent, at least an ordinary doses, than opium. Both, and especially opium, require great care in their use. [Doses will be mentioned particularly hereafter.]

Pain in the abdomen, however, results by no means always from indigestion or colic. It may possibly be the beginning of inflammation of the bowels, or of dysentery; or of peritonitis; or of obstruction of the bowels; or it may be seated in the liver; or in the kidneys (then rather in the back); or, if low down, in the bladder; or, in the female, in the ovaries or womb; or there may be an ancurism of the aorta, or a cancer; or it may be only a form of neuralgia. For each of these, which a good deal of knowledge may be needed to ascertain, a different kind of treatment will be called for; the pain being only one of the manifestations of disorder. Therefore any suspicion of so serions a possibility as either of these (or even severe or obstinate colic) will be a proper reason for

promptly obtaining the advice of a physician.

For the relief of pain in the side or chest, a mustard-plaster is to be considered, aft r trial of rubbing, and simple heat (by a hot flannel, hot flat-iron, bag of het salt or sand, or a tin vessel filled with hot water) the first active remedy. So much here depends on the origin of the pain, that no further uniforn treatment of chest or side pains can be advantageously laid down. Pain in the chest may result from pleurisy, pneumonia, neuralgia, rheumatism, heart-disease, aneurism of the aorta, etc., or from so secondary a cause as dyspepsia ("heartburn," cardialgia). Each of these requires some difference of management.

Physicians often use, for the relief of severe or obstinate pain, Morphia; which is got from opium. With them, a savorite way of employing this is by introducing a solution of it under the skin, by who is called "hypodermic injection." A small and fluely pointed syringe is the instrument for this purpose; but it is hardly adapted for domestic practice. A full account of it is given in medical works.*

Pain in the head has been, on a precious page, said to be of several kinds, and dependent on several causes. Very seldom are anoignes suitable as remedies for headache, because they all act more or less powerfully on the brain, and so, if they do not do good, they may do real harm. As a rule, we may say, never take opiates or other anodynes for headache, unless directly under medical advice. For "sick headache," which is habitual with certain persons, and then very hard to care or even relieve, the me 'frequently useful remedy is a dose of magnesia and aromatic pirit of ammonia (doses and other particulars hereafter). When an aching head is hot, we are safe always in trying to cool it, by laying upon the forehead a hight handkerchief wet every few minutes with cold water. A neuralgic headache wil! be more likely to be helped by application of heat to the part affected. Gentle rubbing with a pencil of merthol, such as is now sold by druggists, will often mitigate, if not relieve, it.

Pain in the face is likely to be of one of three kinds: toothache in a decayed tooth (or more than one); inflammation of the jaw; or neuralgia ("tic doulourenx"). For the first, the most certain remedy is, to apply to the hollow of the aching tooth the end of a bodkin or darning-needle, around which is wrapped a little bit of cotton dipped in pure Creasote. As this will burn the lips or gums if it touches them, care should be taken to have it overflow as little as possible; and a glass of cold water must be at hand to rinse the drop or two away, if such does escape into the mouth. If the creasote reaches the right spot, i will quell the pain at once. Oil of clores, used in the same way, is nearly as effectual; and rather less so is laudanum.

For inflammation of the jaw, advice had better be taken at once from a dentist or a physician. A hot poultice of Flaxseed-meal, into which has been poured a teast onful of law anum, may be safely applied to the painful side of the face, and covered with oiled silk (or oiled paper, or thin sheet-rubber) to prevent i from drying up and getting cold too soon. Neuralgia may be best co. sidered in another place, hereafter.

^{*} See "Essentials of Practical Medicine," before referred to, on this and kindred subjects.

Earache is most common in young children. A simple first remedy for it is a drop of warm sweet oil poured from a bottle or a teaspoon into the ear. If that fail to relieve, a drop (or in a child two or three years old, two drops) of Landanna may follow it.

Pain in the joints is usually called rheumatic; although this word is not always definitely used. When there is no meelling, or heat (signs of inflammation), warm applications are likely to do good. For the pain of the joints in inflammatory rheumatism, the most relieving thing is Laudanum; laying on the joint a bit of rag, doubled and wet with laudanum, and binding over it a piece of oiled rilk. It will not do to put laudanum in this way over too many parts ut once; as some of it is absorbed, a large amount of it might necrotize the patient.

Neuralgic pain in any part of the body is generally but one symptom of a general condition, depending on a predisposition of the nervous system and (in most, not all cases) poverty of the blood.

The former, being constitutional, is to be retended to by all the ways we have of favoring the general improvement of health and strength. Poverty of blood is treated also by good nonrishing food and Iron. For the immediate relief of attacks of neurolgia, many things are helpful, while nothing is certain in every case; except that, if driven to it by great suffering or exhaustion from pain, anodynes (as opium, or morphia, or some of their preparations) will stupefy sufficiently to "drown" the agony.

Temporary weakness often brings on attacks of neuralgic pain in those disposed to have them. Such persons should never wait too long for a meal. Likewise, hot food, as a cup of hot milk, or cocoa, or beef-tea, at the very beginning of the attack, may stop its progress.

Heat applied to the painful part will frequently do good; any convenient mode of application will answer. On some parts of the body a mustard-plaster is just the thing. Sunshine will (as I have seen) cure some attacks. On the other hand, I have read of ice applications having the same effect; but I have never witnessed its trial. The Japanese remedy, menthol, or oil of peppermint, is conveniently applicable in the form of rounded sticks, made by the druggists by mixing it with spermaceti. One of these may be gently rubbed over the painful part for a few moments at a time.

Various powerful anodynes are sometimes advised by physicians to be put upon, or hypodermically injected near the seat of severe and ob-

stinate neuralgic pain. For Home Medicine, I venture only to repeat what was said about rheumatic joints; that a rag soaked in Laudanum, laid on the part and covered with oiled silk (or viled paper) will often stupefy the verves of the part so as to quell the pain. Anodyne liniments are often used with advantage. I may mention one which is moderate in strength and safe (applied outside only): none drachm of Chloral Hydrate with four fluidounces of Soap Liniment. This is to be gently rubbed in, for a few minutes at a time, over the part affected with pain.

Pain at the time of menstruation (elysmenorrhora) is labitual with some women, and occasional with others. For its prevention, those liable to it should keep quiet for a comple of days before the expected time, and then for mother day or two. When the pain has commenced, the proper position is lying down. Warmth, not excessive, but enough for entire comfort, is also needfal. Hot drinks, such as Ginger-tea, or hot water with a little Essence of Ginger in it, or a teaspoonfal of Compound Spirit of Lavender, will be suitable. So will Spirits of Camphor, or Camphor Water, and, in had cases, Paregorie, or even (carefully) Laudanum. Cloths wrang out of hot water may be applied to the lower part of the abdomen. Very severe suffering of this kind may, in rare cases, call for injection of Laudanum into the bowels; of which again hereafter.

Piles (small lumps at or near the anus, i.e. outlet from lower bowel) are sometimes very painful, especially ut or after the time of movement of the bowels. Constipation should be avoided, as far as possible, by those who are troubled with piles, and yet purging actively will not agree with them. Rhubarb is the best laxative in such cases; or Sulphur; not Magnesia.

Inflamed piles may be soothed, if much heated, by application of very cold water. Yet, contradictory as it seems, warm, or moderately hot water, will give still more comfort in some cases. A flaxseed ponltice into which a teaspoonful of Laudanum has been poured will be suitable when the patient is in bed with a bad attack. An ointment, as Cold Cream (of the apothecary), should be frequently applied. It is well to know that an attack of pain and soreness in piles (which are often present without giving much trouble) may be many times prevented by the early and free anointing of the parts with Cold Cream, Tallow, or Lard.

Fissure of the Anus is a still more distressing affection, our further reference to which may be best left over for another place. Strangury (pain in passing water) is to be treated by the warm bath, or hip-bath (sitting-bath), followed by application over the bladder, or between the thighs, of cloths wrung out of hot water. Also, taking Camphor Water, and Flaxseed Tea containing a little Sweet Spirits of Nitre, as a drink. Severe cases may justify an injection of Laudanum into the bowels, or the placing in the lower bowel of a suppository of Opium (of which hereafter again).

Under the name of anodynes (pain relievers) several other drugs are named in medical books. We need only mention here Hydrate of Chloral, Belladonna, Hyoscyamus, Stramonium, Cannabis Indica, and Chloroform. Every one knows, also, what a boon to those who have to undergo surgical or dental operations is the breathing (inhalation) of anæsthetics, as Ether, Nitrous Oxide, and Chloroform. These are called by that name because they annul sensation, for the time. For extracting teeth, pure Nitrous Oxide is the best; for larger operations, Ether is much safer, though less convenient, than Chloroform. The use of either, in this way, requires much skill, judgment, and care.

Composing Nervous Disturbance.

What this requires depends very greatly on the cause and nature of the trouble.

A wakeful and fretful babe, for example, may need simply to have a part of its clothing changed, or to be fed, or made more comfortably warm, or to have its gums lanced. Do not resort to Godfrey's Cordial, or Mrs. Anybody's Soothing Syrup, for restless babies. A little Fennelseed Tea, or a drop of Essence of Peppermint in a small drink of sweetened water, or a teaspoonful of Camphor Water (not Spirits of Camphor in such a dose) or the same of Milk of Assafeetida; cither of these will be a good and safe infant's soothing draught. Overloading the stomach by keeping the child at the breast all night will have the opposite effect, making it worse instead of better.

For infants, as well as older persons, nervous disturbance may vary all the way from slight fidgeting to fits or convulsions. Mild medicines for moderate degrees of, for example, "hysterical" nervousness, are Assafatida, Camphor, Valerian, and Hoffmann's Anodyne. Physiciaus often prescribe also, Bromide of Potassium (or of Sodium), Musk, and others.

Convulsions are very much more common in children than in grown people; and most so of all at teething time. They are least dangerous during infancy, but are always frightful. Just now, we are concerned only to speak of composing measures adapted to them. The same apply generally at all ages, so far as the attack itself is concerned. What is to be done between times to prevent or ward them off, is an important and often difficult question for even the physician to answer.

When a child "has a fit," lay it upon a bed, loosening all its clothing, especially about its neck. Have good fresh air in the room, but also sufficient warmth. Let one or two persons make two mustard-plasters, one for the stomach and one for the back. Get a warm (almost liot) bath ready. If the plasters are prepared first, put them on; if the bath first, let them wait, and place the child in the warm water at once. In the last case, also pour gently cold water over the head while the child is held laid in the bath. The mustard-plasters (whether first or second in time) are only to stay on long enough to redden, not blister, the skin. This should be ascertained by looking under the plaster every few minutes. A very little while will be enough to redden and burn a child's skin if the plaster be strong of mustard. But it will be better for it to have, for an infant, only one third part of mustard, the rest flour or Indian meal.

After the bath, have got ready a mixture of soap and hot water, and

into a teacupful of this put a dessertspoonful of Milk of Assafœtida (if at hand) and a teaspoonful of Castor- or Olive-Oil. Let this be thrown into the bowels with an injecting syringe; a towel being then held for a little while against the fundament to prevent the injection

from escaping at the moment.

By the time these things have been done, if not before, the Doctor, if sent for when the attack began, as he should be, when accessible, will have arrived; and, if the attack has not yet passed by, he must say what else will be proper in the treatment. If the newly coming teeth are troublesome, it may be hoped that he will lance the child's gums. Adult men and women rarely (although they do sometimes) have convulsions, except those which are either hysterical, puerperal, or epileptic. The principles of management of hysterical and epileptic convulsions, during the attack, are essentially the same as for that of infantile convulsions. Treatment between attacks is a more difficult affair—to be conducted by those who are skilled in medicine. Puerperal convulsions (that is, occurring during labor, or after child-birth) are more peculiar, and ought always to have immediate attendance from a physician. Few cases of illness are more serious and critical than these; not only in appearance, but in reality.

PROMOTION OF SLEEP.

What a great need is this! Whoever has fought for sleep (as the author has) for scores of nights, may appreciate it. If a single night could be taken alone, we might, as a rule, make short work of it, and force sluraber by a good large dose of some opiate, as Laudanum, or solution of Morphia. But then, the next day, and the next night, and the next! So we have to look forward, and, for the best result in the long run, rather persuade than try to compel "coy" slumber.

When sleeplessness comes as one of the symptoms of a disease, it may not have to be dealt with by itself, at least by medicine, unless it be more prolonged and distressing than usual. In all such cases, however, and indeed in every case whatever, quietness is indispensable, through the evening and night. Little or no light should, during the night, reach the eyes of the patient; if accustomed to darkness, it will be best.

If difficulty of sleeping (insomnia) result from nervous disturbance, exhaustion, over-study, or auxiety, management should always be perseveringly tried before resorting to drugs so powerful as the sleep-producers (hypnotics, narcotics).

Very light, easily digested food should, under such eircumstances, make the last meal of the day. Yet a person not strong will sometimes be kept awake by having an *empty* stomach late at night. A cracker, a drink of sugared water (a French beverage), or a small wine-glassful of beef-tea, may then make a better night. No excitement of the brain, as by reading or continued conversation, should be allowed for two hours before usual sleeping time. Being read aloud to, if the book be not too interesting, answers in some cases; but an objection to it is that it requires the presence of more light than is desirable.

Mothers and nurses often sing their babies to sleep. That is a very good expedient, and may now and then succeed even with a grown person.

Exercise, in moderation, and in proportion to one's strength, may be very well taken in the evening to promote sleep. A walk in the open air will do, or a few minutes' flourishing of not too heavy dumb-bells. Getting a little tired makes one sleepy; while real exhaustion has the contrary effect.

Position is not without influence. Naturally we lie down to go to sleep. But, did you never feel "dreadfully drowsy" while down-stairs in the parlor, and then, after going to bed, get as wide awake as if it were morning? In faet, during sleep, less blood flows through the brain than while awake. In the sitting posture, gravitation (weight) tends to relieve the brain of much blood-pressure; when we lie down, more blood flows

into it. If all is healthy, we get asleep nevertheless; but not always when predisposed to sleeplessness. Best, therefore, in such cases, will be an *inclined* posture in bed, with the head and shoulders somewhat raised, in as comfortable a position as possible. When real sleepiness

comes on, one may then lie down as usual.

Some people imagine, that if they cannot get asleep at once, they might as well be up and doing something, reading or writing, or walking about. This is a very great mistake. If not sound asleep, or even far enough towards that to entirely lose consciousness, we may yet get a good deal of rest in partial sleep; and the more of this we get the better, in the saving and renewal of strength. Keep still, then, in the dark, with closed eyes, and try to dismiss active thought. Count 100, 200, 300; repeat doggerel verses, as wrong as you can misremember them; watch imaginary sheep jumping over fancied stiles, one, two, three, four, and on, to twenty-five or fifty. Fight your eyelids; after a while, the brain-vibrations, like those of a bell that has been struck, will hall by degrees, and sleep may come at last.

Hardly without a doctor's advice, if that can be procured, ought any one to take strong eleop-compelling doses, such as Hydrate of Chloral, Laudanum, or Solution of Morphia. Lactucarium, which is obtained from the garden lettuce, used for salad, is much milder than opium; and Camphor Water will, when mere nervous restlessness is the matter, often compose so as to allow of sleep. Hoffmann's Anodyne is similar in its effect, and Tincture of Hops, or a tea made of hops, is very quieting. Even a hop-pillow, made by sprinkling hop-leaves with alcohol and binding them in a pillow-case, will sometimes bring the tossing head to rest. As to the effect of the old English "night-cap," a glass of whisky, or the less dangerous ale or beer, for sleep-producing, I am afraid to say anything, lest the too perilous temporary remedy might prove at last

worse than the disease.

PURGATIVE MEDICINES.

A large number of drugs act upon the bowels; cathartics is a technical name for these. Only a few of them need to be considered in connection with our present plan.

Rhubarb is adapted to a greater variety of cases than any other medicine for the simple purpose of relieving constipation. Simple Syrup of Rhubarb is very good for this use with babies. Younger yet, however (under a year), Sweet Oil (olive oil) is mildest of all, unless it be Manna or Glycerin. Fluid Extract of Senna, with one drop of Oil of Aniseed or Oil of Fennel in a teaspoouful of it, is also a good infantile laxative. Castor-oil comes next, when a more active purge is wanted; or, when there is sourness of stomach, Magnesia.

At any age, Magnesia is the best antacid laxative. Castor-oil is to be preferred when colic or irritation of the bowels is present. [Give it in twice as much Spiced Syrup of Rhubarb, well mixed up.]

Saline purgatives are useful generally at an early time of attacks of siekness with fever. The author's generation, in childhood, were dosed for "a bad cold," or at the beginning of measles, etc., with Epsom Salts or Senna Tea; nasty, both of them. Nowadays, one may have, instead, Citrate of Magnesium or Tarrant's Aperient. Scidlitz powders are of older date, but of similar cooling effect; and the same is true of Rochelle Salt and Cream of Tartar. Pullna and Hunyadi mineral waters please the taste of some. (On constipation in children, see p. 195.)

At the beginning of acute attacks of disease with fever, when all the secretions are "locked up," I believe that the use of some purgative medicine, especially of the saline kind, is very serviceable and important. This is true, as a rule, of measles, scarlet fever, whooping-cough, small-pox, and varioloid; and, with more discrimination of cases and moderation in doses, also of diphtheria and typhus fever. Typhoid fever has diarrhea as an early symptom generally. If, in it, the bowels are exceptionally costive, only a teaspoonful of Castor-oil had better be ventured upon to relieve the bowels. In measles the bowels sometimes incline to be too free; but this should not prevent our making sure of their full movement during the first two or three days. When, after that, they become too loose, a weakening excess of purging may be checked by suitable means, such as will be presently mentioned.

For habitual costiveness, either chewing at bedtime a small piece of Turkey Rhubarb Root (as big as a pea), or taking at that time a Rhubarb Pill, will be the best thing to begin with. If that fails, take another piece, or another pill, also, before breakfast.

Compound Rhubarb Pills are stronger; they will, with most people,

purge rather actively. Compound Cathartic Pills, of the United States list, are too strong to use except when a very decided purgution is needed.

Often, when the mildest and least disturbing way of emptying the lower bowel is required, an enema (injection into the bowels) will be the best. For this, a simple and generally satisfactory mixture will be made by dissolving a thumb-sized piece of Castile soap in warm (almost hot) water, and stirring into this a tablespoonful of Molasses, a table-spoonful of Table Salt, and a tablespoonful of Olive or Lard Oil, or a dessertspoonful of Castor-oil. There are different kinds of injecting nrrangements. With the most convenient, a person can (unless ill) wait upon himself. If too siek for this, or if only the old-fashioned straight syringe can be had, its point should be greased with lard, and then, the patient lying (best on one side) on a bed, it can be very gently introduced into the opening to the bowel to the distance of an inch or so, and gradually the liquid may be forced through the syringe. Thoughtful common sense will find no difficulty in this, even the first time.

Suppositories are sometimes yet more convenient, and are least disturbing of all; but they are not so sure to take effect, and their action does not evend far upward. A suppository is a small soft mass, prepared for the purpose; rounded, about as large as the last joint of a voman's little finger. Common Brown Soup, cut into such a size and shape, and dipped in castor-oil, or lard, may be so used. All that is to be done is to push it well into the anus (outlet of the bowel), and let it

stay there.

After either a suppository or an enema has been introduced, the patient ought to try to retain it for some minutes, for effective operation.

To CHECK DIARRHEA.

Not every looseness of the bowels ought to be stopped at once by medicine. Sometimes it is a *relief* to a condition of the system which would involve a worse illness if it did not come.

Infants, especially, need to have the bowels moved two or three times daily; most of all while they are teething. We do not call it diarrhee in them unless there are at least four or five large liquid passages in twenty-four hours. Of course when it is excessive it must be attended

to, or weakness and exhaustion will follow.

Correctives, generally, should be the first things given in babies' diarrhæa. Sourness of stomach is commonly present with it; therefore Lime-water, being antacid, is particularly suitable. Another good corrective is Spiced Syrup of Rhubarb. On account of the spices in it, this article does not purge like Simple Syrup of Rhubarb; it only promotes an even, regular action of the muscular coat of the bowels, and so tends to get things right again.

Soda (Sodium Bicarkonate) is an antacid corrective, stronger in this effect than Lime-water; but less astringent or binding.

Cinnamon Water is a gentle astringent; so is Camphor Water. These do well to come next after Lime-water or Soda and Spiced Rhubarb, if the complaint is not corrected by them. Should a still be obstinate, more potent checking medicines will be needful. Of these, Paregoric and Laudanum have much power; but they must be used very cautiously, on account of their containing Opium.

Of the many astringent medicines employed by physicians, under whose advice, when it can be had, they had better be taken, we may mention here, as possibly wanted in home practice, Chalk Mixture and Tineture of Catechu. A desperate and exhausting diarrhoa, which resists all such treatment as has now been spoken of, may call for the use of a Laudanum and Starch enema. This is introduced with a small syringe, even for a grown person; the object being to have it stay in the bowel; just the opposite of what we want from a purgative injection. A syringe holding an onnee will do for this purpose for an adult; half an ounce for a child. Two or three drops of Laudanum, with Starch made not too thick to run, will be the infantile dose for such an enema (even less for a babe under a year old); thirty or forty drops of Laudanum, with less than an our reg of Starch, for a grown person.

Dysentery differs from diarrhea, in having many small and bloody passages, with straining or bearing down, as well as pain. (Sometimes there is abdominal pain with or before each passage in diarrhea.) The management of dysentery will be dealt with best in that part of this book (later on) which considers it among Special Diseases.

SICK STOMACH.

As this occurs under a variety of circumstances, the main treatment of every case must depend upon its nature and cause. We may name, however, several remedies which will do good in most cases of nausea or vomiting, and which, therefore, it will be safe to use while awaiting medical advice.

Ice is one of these. It may be taken into the mouth in small pieces, and melted before swallowing. This is helpful in nine out of ten instances of sick stomach, and in the tenth case will do no harm.

Lime-water is beneficial in most of such cases; when nourishment is needed, it may be given in equal parts with milk, from a teaspoonful to a tablespoonful of each.

Effervescing waters (mineral-water, soda-water, Apollinaris, etc.), made cool with ice, very orten assist in relieving nausea. When seasick, iced mineral-water will be likely to help more than anything else.

When weakness is present, terspoonful doses of Brandy or (the best) Whisky may be appropriate. The smallness of the dose is here especially important, and it need not often be repeated more than three or four times, at intervals of half an hour or so, unless great exhaustion is impending. Very seldom ought anything alcoholic to be ventured upon as a remedy without the express advice of a medical authority. It is an edged tool, of the most dangerous sort. Children's doses, of such and of all strong medicines, should be very small. Ten drops of brandy or whisky will be enough at a time (if needed at all) for a child of two or three years, where a teaspoonful would be given to a grown or nearly grown person.

Aromatic Spirit of Ammonia is reviving to one who is faint

with sickness of stomach. It is antacid as well as stimulant.

Soda (Bicarbonate of Sodium) is antacid, but not stimulant. It is

generally very comfortable to a disturbed stomach.

Wearning stomachic doses for nausea are Ginger, Cloves, Cinnamon, and other Aromatics (spicy articles) in small doses. Large draughts of ginger, hoarhound, Chamomile, or Boneset ten, or even of clove or cinnamon infusion, will bring on vomiting. This is an instructive example of the opposite effects, often produced by the same thing, in small and in large doses. (This gives, however, no sort of support to the absurdity of the infinitesimal doses, the thousandth dilutions, etc., of

Homeopathy.)
Sometimes, with constipation, or even, especially in summer, with commencing diarrhea, small doses of Magnesia are composing to the stomach. The same is true of very small doses of Calomel (½ to ½ of a grain), which, however, is another "edged tool," belonging to the physician's rather than to the home list of medicines. Still, out in the country, where advice cannot always be had in time, a family medicine-chest may very well have in it, among other things only for possible or occasional use, a small box or package of ½-grain Calomel Powders. They may be serviceable particularly at an early stage of summer complaint in children.

Paregoric is the only other medicine needing here to be mentioned

among those likely to assist in quieting a nauseated stomach.

Outside, an early remedy for vomiting may, in any case, safely be, a Mustard-plaster over the pit of the stomach. For a young child, a Spice-plaster will, for this purpose, be preferable; made by mixing together one or two teaspoonfuls each of several spices—as Ginger. Cloves, and Cinnamon, or half as much Red Pepper, with a similar amount of wheat or Indian flour; wetting these with whisky, and spreading them on a piece of muslin or thin flannel. This, when laid

over the stomach, should be covered with a piece of oiled silk or oiled paper or rubber-cloth, to retain its moisture for a longer time.

INDIGESTION.

A much overloaded stomach as best relieved by being made to throw out its contents under the action of an emetic. This is, however, a harsh remedy, not nowadays often resorted to. It is not easy to appreciate the passionate gluttony of the ancient Roman emperor; who would, after eating a luxurious dinner, tickle his throat with a feather, so that he might disgorge and begin again! (About the use of emetics, something will be said under Poisons.)

Ordinary indigestion requires, for one thing, to give the stomach rest. Let no food be taken for a number of hours; if the patient is strong enough, not for a whole day. Another "indication," as the doctors say, is to make sure that the bowels are open; to carry off the refuse of undigested or half-digested food.

Besides these important things, if the stomach is still worried and unsettled, the aids to nature which we may resort to are those just abovementioned, as suitable for cases of nausca and vomiting. Small and few doses, however, are likely to be necessary for common attacks of indigestion. If, with these, there are dizziness, headache, a yellow tongue or eyes, and a bitter taste in the morning on awaking—a set of symptoms designated usually as biliousness-small doses of the old fashioned Blue Pill may be reasonabl" and safely given. I say small doses. When my father was a boy, the doctors gave Blue Mass and Calomel (the latter being three times as strong as the former) in ten to twenty grain doses. Even in families, such doses were very commonly taken for slight "bilious" attacks, without waiting for medical advice. As, in such quantities, these mercurial medicines almost always operate freely on the bowels, and so purge themselves off-his practice did not appear to do harm. It is, however, not now approved, as other purgative medicines are more available; Calomel and Blue Pill are now given in much smaller doses, and not nearly so often as formerly.

(The way in which they got their reputation for being injurious was by medium doses being given too often, and continued too long.)

Practically speaking, of Blue Pill, a small dose for indigestion, with signs of participation by the liver, will be one grain at night, and again the next morning; and perhaps again the second night. What I call Compound Gentian Pills may be taken for two or three days, if entire relief does not come sooner. This is their prescription, written doctor

R. Mass, Ex. Hydrarg, gr. v. Pulv. Rad. Rhel et Extract. Gentlan, an 35. Ol. Caryophyll., gtt. iv. M. et Div. in Pil. No. 20. S. One or two at once.

Which, done into English, reads thus:

Take of Blue Mass, five grains; Powder of Rhubarb Root, and Extract of Gentian, each twenty grains; Oil of Cloves, four drops. Mix these together, and divide the whole into twenty pills. One or two to be taken at once.

When there is lingering indigestion, after an attack, with some flatulence, the bowels not being sufficiently free, yet not requiring a strong purge, two of the above pills may be taken, twice daily, for two or three days; not longer at one time, on account of their containing a small. amount of mercury. It would take much more mercurial medicine than that, however, to salivate anybody; unless it were that rare and uncomfortable individual who is one in thousands for susceptibility; one who might be made happy by Oscar Wilde's sunflower; or who would "die of a rose in aromatie pain."

We do not count upon such existing, unless we meet with them, and then they are to be managed all in a way of their own.

CONTINUED WEAK DIGESTION.

Expecting to say something about this later in the book, under the head of Dur pepsia, the remark may be made now, that the class of medicines which particularly tone up a weak and relaxed stomach are the simple Vegetable Bitters. Such are Quassia, Columbo, Gentian, and some others. Simple bitters we call these, because they have no other very positive quality except the bitter taste, and no marked effect upon the human system except as tonics to the stomach. (In large draughts, as already said, their infusions or "teas" will act as emetics.)

Some bitters there are which have other very important actions. Quinia is one, got from Peruvian Bark; it acts powerfully on the nervous system, and is the special remedy for malarial fevers. The same bark contains also Cinchonia, and several other more or less bitter tonic

and nervine "alkaloids," as the chemists name them.

Nux Vomica is a very powerful bitter nervine tonic. Out of it is obtained Strychnia, one of the deadliest of poisons, but also one of the most valuable of medicines, when used with judgment, care, and skill. With this information, we may venture to add that the Tincture of Nux Vomica, in ten-drop doses, twice or thrice daily, is one of the most effective of all the stomachie bitters, in cases of continued weakness of digestion, with flatulence.

These bitters generally improve the appetite, which is almost always poor when the stomach is otherwise weak. For the same end, as appetizers, Mineral Acids are useful; Dilute Aromatic Sulphuric Acid, for example, under the common name of Elixir of Vitriol, and Chlorohydric Acid, formerly, and sometimes now, called Hydrochloric, or Murintic Acid. Nitromuriatic Acid acids a find tendency to act upon the liver. One or other of these acids, and most of all the last named, is often given to the subjects of prolonged indigestion, along with the vegetable bitters.

To REDUCE INFLAMMATION.

A serious task, this is, in many instances; taxing the doctor's skill, and not very rarely baffling him. How, then, can one say anything about it in a work on Home Medicine? A few clear principles seem to be all that can be here spoken of, referring the reader for a larger discussion of the subject to treatises designed for the medical profession.*

Inflammation (as already said in that part of this book which dealt with the nature of diseases) may affect any organ or portion of the living body. When it attacks one of the more important organs, as the brain, spinal marrow, langs, heart, liver, kidneys, plenra, peritonena (see Anatomy), or even extensively involves the skin, life may be endangered by it. If only a small part, as an eye, car, hand, or foot, is inflamed, there is usually much less danger, though there may be a great deal of suffering. Moreover, an inflammation may spread, as from the ear or the eye to the brain; or some poisonous (septic) matter may be formed in the inflamed part, and, by blood-poisoning (septicemia), the whole body may suffer and perhaps die. Septiceenia is very often fatal, but a vast multitude of people have inflamed hands, feet, eyes, noses, jaws, etc., without either it or the allied disorder, Pyæmia. The linbility to such accidents of inflammation is greatest where the atmosphere of the place is foul.

Taking a broad general view of inflammations as a class of disorders, it may be said that they have three stages, or progressive changes.

First comes excitement. Towards the centre of the inflamed part, the arterial blood-vessels beat and throb; being roused to endeavor, so to speak, to overcome the obstruction there. Heat, redness, swelling, and pain, all belong to this stage.

Then follows exudation. This is the forcing of some of the fluid portion of the blood (often with some of the white corpuscles; occasionally also a number of the red corpuscles) out, under the pressure of the excitement and resistance together, through the walls of the vessels, into

^{*} See "Essentials of Practical Medicine," Section

the substance of the part. If this fluid is thin, it may collect as a "scrous effusion;" such as is frequently the result of plenrisy. When thick and adhesive, it glues parts together (plastic lymph); this happens in the pleura, in the peritoneum, in the perieurdium, and in the membranes of the brain (see Anatomy). If, again, there are many white corpuscles in it, and the vitality of the part is disturbed much, pus is formed; we have suppuration; with ther mi absecus, or, at once, a in severe bronchitis). yellowish or greenish purulent discharge

This is one way in which the three stages of inflammation may follow one another. But, differently from this, there may be the first stage of excitement, and the second, of exudation (effusion), with, for a third,

instead of suppuration, gangrene, or mortification.

Happily, also, the most frequent of ull is better than either of these; of which, of course, the last named is the worst. We may have inflammatory excitement, and moderate or small exudation, followed by resolution; that is, the inflammatory process ecasing, without either suppuration or gangrene; and the part and the patient getting well; with very little damage resulting; except that both the part and the general system are somewhat weaker than before.

Now, what can be done by treatment against the going on of inflammation to its worst (gangrene), or the next worst (suppuration), or the

third in seriousness (liquid effusion)?

We can attack it in the first stage of excitement, with, in many cases, very good effect. This is what we mean by reducing inflammation; moderating the violence of the conflict between the surrounding throbbing blood-vess 's and the obstructed centre, so that the least possible damage shall be done by it.

For this purpose, the means available in different cases are, chiefly,

these:

Rest; Position; Cold; Diet; Purgation; Blood-letting; Cooling Medicines; Nervous Sedatives; Counter-irritation.

Rest of the part is indispensable in all inflammations. When the part is small, and is not used in moving about, the body need not be absolutely confined. If it be otherwise, as when an ankle is inflamed from a severe sprain, and still more when a lung, or the pleura, or a bowel, is so affected, the rest must be complete, in bed. Carrying a sore hand in a sling rests it; covering an wflamed eye with adhesive plaster closing the lids, or remaining in a darkened room, gives it repose. But any one with an inflamed lung must be kept as still as possible; and must not even speak, unless in a whisper. 11 the brain be inflamed, quietness and almost durkness will be necessary, to avoid mental as well as bodily disturbance.

Position can be made to help when a hand or a foot is inflamed. By keeping the part raised, the tendency of blood towards it will be lessened advantageously.

Cold is often a powerful autiphlogistic, as old writers called whatever tends to reduce inflammation. It must, however, be steadily applied, to have this effect. Dashing cold water on a part and then leaving it, in a place not itself freezing cold, will, from reaction, make it warmer than before. When the brain is inflamed, a good plan is to shave the head, or at least cut the hair very short, and keep it half covered with rags soaked in ice-water. For steadiness of effect, the rags must be dipped in the cold water every few minutes. A more effectual method, more convenient, however, for the abdomen than for the head, is to buy over the inflamed part a coil of light rubber tubing, through which cold water is made to pass. This is done by placing one end of the tube in a vessel of water somewhat higher than the body, and allowing the water to pass out at the other end, which is placed lower.

Diet was formerly much relied upon, and ion diet was made very low—almost to starvation. We know now, that infimumation is possible in feeble as well as in strong bodies. Not every one can bear doing long without food, or even with too little food. Also, strength is necessary to shake off disease, so to speak. It is not strength, but excitement, that we want to reduce. A really low, thin diet, therefore, is only suitable for a strong person, and for even such a one, not for many days together, during illness. It is important, however, when fever is present, with which the power of digestion is always weak, to give food in a simple, liquid form, so as to give the stomach no trouble in appropn. ing it.

Purging medicines act like an unstimulating diet, in cooling the blood, and thus promoting a quieter action of the heart and arteries. This favors the reduction of the excitement which attends a violent inflammation of any part. The catharties which have the most effect of this kind are the Salines, as Epsom Sults, Rochelle Salt, Citrate of Magnesium, Cream of Tartar, etc.

Taking blood, either from a vein in the arm (venesection) or by leeches or cups, from an inflamed part (local blood-letting), is a very ancient remedy. Once overmuch used, the reaction in our time has gone quite too far against it. It is a very valuable means of reducing inflammation. This language is confident, because based on experience. I was brought up under the régime of the lancet. My father, Dr. Joseph Hartshorne, was, with a very large practice for many years, a frequent bleeder. He was a pupil of Dr. Benjamin Rush, who has been called (not very justly) the American Sangrado. Before I was of age, my two arms bore the sears of thirteen bleedings, at my father's hands,

besides many dozens of leeches having drawn their fill from my supply of blood. Yet I "still live," although I have passed, since maturity, through the dangers of a bad dissecting wound and of an attack of typhus lever; and, like others of my much-bled contemporaries, I have now as good health as need to be, in the early part of the second half century of life. In fact, there have been, in my knowledge, more people going on to their eighties and nineties of the generation of the bleeding-bowl and the lancet, than there seem likely to be in the present time, when these appliances are, with many physicians, obsolete. We may see, however, evidence that the "wave" of reaction against bleeding is subsiding. Many leading physicians, both in Europe and in this country, have now the sagacity to see that, while our fathers bled oftener, and more than they needed to do, yet there is a place of importance for blood-letting, local and general, especially in the treatment of the early, excited stage of violent inflammations.

During an experience of twenty years in the practice of medicine, I have bled many people, and had leeches and cups applied to many

Fig. 178.



A LEECH.

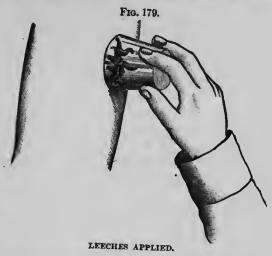
more; and I never once had occasion to believe that these remedies were otherwise than useful to my patients. Still, it is by no means all cases of inflammation, even of the great vital organs, that need; or all constitutions that bear, the loss cî blood. It is a matter for careful judgment in each case.

Few persons who have never seen a vein opened will feel like bleeding any one themselves. It may be mentioned, however, that a full bleeding for a grown man from the arm will be about twelve ounces; for a woman, ten ounces. When a child is bled, if ten years old, four ounces; if five years old, three ounces will do. In using leeches, it is to be remembered that each leech will draw, on the average, a teaspoonful of blood. American leeches (making the smallest bite) are always best for children, and for adults anywhere unless on the hand or on the back. European leech-bites sometimes

bleed more freely than is desirable if applied on the neck, etc.

Cut cups draw blood according to their size and number. They are more painful than leeching, which, indeed, gives no pain of any account. Leeching should be preferred upon parts that are tender to the touch; cups are especially available on the back. The cup is a small round glass

from which the air is exhausted; sometimes by a pump applied to its top. Being placed closely upon the skin, this drawing out of the air makes the parts swell under the cup, and become there full of blood.



Then the cupper takes off the glass, and, with an instrument made for the purpose, scarifies the blood-filled surface at several places. Then



the cup and pump are reapplied, and half an ounce or so of blood is withdrawn by each.

Dry cups draw blood to the surface on which they are placed, and

so help to relieve a loaded or inflamed organ beneath it. This is often It is easy to arrange for dry cupping without any very serviceable. special instruments. Take a number of egg-glasses, or lemonade-glasses -anything smaller thau tumblers. Put under each (one at a time) a small bit of paper, doubled up and dipped in alcohol or whisky, first lighting the paper, at a candle or otherwise. The heat of the burning paper drives out most of the air in the glass; when put down on the skin, the flame goes out for want of air, so that it does not burn the part. Cooling at once, the air left in it contracts, shrinks, and so draws up the skiu, with blood in it, just as is done with the cup and pump.

When dry cups are used, it is commonly well for them to stay on a . good while (fifteen or twenty minutes), to make a decided impression,

in the diversion of blood to the surface.

A mechanical leech has been invented, and is sometimes successfully employed, to take the place of natural leeches when they cannot be obtained.

For inflammation of the lungs, pleura, brain, or bowels, local withdrawal of blood by leeches or cups is, I believe, sometimes a very im-

portant part of the treatment.

Cooling (sedative) Medicines are in place chiefly in inflammatory affections of the breathing organs, as pneumonia, bronchitis, and pleu-Tartar Emetic is the most powerful of these. Once it was very largely used. Its harsh action upon the stomach and bowels has caused it to be now given mostly in very small doses; from the one-sixteenth to the one-fourth of a grain only, for adults, at an early stage of a violent inflammation attended by fever. Tartar Emetic is not suitable to be used as a domestic medicine.

Ipecacuanha resembles it in its disposition to bring on vomiting, but is very much milder and safer. Ipecaeuanha is a very proper article

for family use, under many eircumstances.

Nitrate of stassium is a sedative, cooling medicine, not now very largely used by physicians. Digitalis was once cousidered a sedative; now it is called a tonic to the heart. Ergot has great popularity in the medical profession at the present time, in the treatment of subacute inflammatory troubles, particularly of the spinal marrow. None of these last, Nitrate of Potassium, Digitalis, or Ergot, can be advantageously used without medical advice.

Some nervous sedatives are important in their secondary effects upon iuflammation. The nerve-centres have much influence over the movement of the blood.

Aconite is one of these. It is a strong poison in any but very small doses, and must be used only with the greatest care. Tincture of Aco-

nite is the common preparation. Its dose is from half a drop to one or two drops, in water, every one, two, or three hours. Some physicians of experience give it in almost all cases of inflammation of the lungs, pleura, etc., even in children. If it is kept in the family medicine-chest, it should be distinctly marked Poison.

. Opium has obtained a very large place in the treatment of one dangerous inflammation, that of the peritoneum (peritonitis), which lines the whole interior of the abdomen. Opium tends to constipate the bowels, and powerfully affects the brain. It also tends to diminish secretion in the air-passages, and therefore it does not appear to be suitable, at least at an early stage, in inflammation of the bowels, brain, or lungs or in acute bronchitis. After the excitement has subsided, in dysentery and in bronchitis, perhaps sometimes in pneumonia, it may aid

in allaying pain and checking excessive discharges.

Counter-irritation is a term which explains itself. Endeavor is made to draw blood and nervous excitement from an inflamed part by a harmless irritation or inflammation somewhere else. Blisters are strong means of this kind. A blister is raised by leaving on the skin for a time a plaster made of Ointment of Cantharides; or painting the part with Cantharidal Collodion, and covering it, while moist, with a piece of oiled silk. With a child, an hour or two will generally be enough to allow the Cantharides (Spanish Fly) to act. In a grown person, it may require three, four, or more hours. There should always be a piece of gauze between the skin and the blistering plaster, so that it can be entirely removed at the proper time. When it is taken off, the scarfskin (entiele) being raised in watery swellings, these may be pricked with a point of any kind, to let the water out. Then there should be placed over the sore surface a piece of muslin or lint thickly spread with Simple Cerate, to heal it up in two or three days.

The time for blistering (which is only alled for in rather bad attacks of internal inflammation) is not at the beginning of the case, but after the excitement of the circulation has ceased. The disorders, in the course of which, at such a stage, a blister is most likely to do good, are inflammation of the brain, pneumonia, pleurisy, and membranous

croup.

Other modes of counter-irritation (better, perhaps, called derivation) are, painting the skin with Tineture of Iodine; rubbing over a small surface a drop or two of Croton Oil; or with a little Tartar Emetic Ointment.

Painting with Iodine is a milder measure than blistering with Cantharides; and it may be resorted to in a greater number of cases, of moderate violence. Croton Oil and Tartar Emetic Ointment are only

employed in *obstinate chronic* cases of irritation of internal organs. They produce very sore, pimply, or pustular eruptions.*

FEVER.

Reminding the reader of what was said, a few pages back, of the nature and signs of fever, it may be said now, that what we want to do when those signs (heat, excitement of the circulation, locking up of secretions, and weakness) are present, is, first and chiefly, to ascertain and remove, if possible, the cause of the attack. If this cannot be done, instead of it, or if it can be, then along with that endeavor, we should try to lessen the heat, promote the return of the secretions, and support the system through its period of weakness.

To diminish the excessive heat, cold water is the great remedy. Almost ineredible it seems, that physicians were once afraid to give cold drinks to patients suffering with raging fever. A man with small-pox, two hundred years ago, was shut up in a close room, with red curtains hanging about his bed, blankets piled on him to promote perspiration, and, for the same end, only hot and bitter drinks, herb teas, were allowed him! All the world knows better now, and follows nature's pointing better than that. Thirst is an almost universal symptom of fever; and frequent draughts of cold water are its best remedy. Icewater is not the best, at least if the draughts craved and taken are large; it may be, to the most advantage, of about the temperature of deep † well water; about 50° to 52° Fahr.; although nearer the freezing-point will answer well. If the stomach is very irritable, as is often the case in autumnal remittent and in yellow fever, small lumps of ice melted in the mouth and then swallowed, at short intervals, will do better than drinking much water at a time.

Cold water outside is a remedy naturally thought of; and it may be used, but carefully. Sudden chilling is not safe. Some physicians, especially in Germany, now treat cases of typhoid fever by immersing the patient for ten minutes at a time in a really cold bath. This seems to me not a plan to be approved. But the sponging of the face, arms, hands, and, part after part, the whole body, with cold or cool water, two or three times a day, is an admirable means of relief in fevers generally. Its service is perhaps most marked in scarlet fever, when

^{*} If either of these should be used, great care must be taken not to get the oil or ointment into any one's eyes. A patient of mine nearly blinded himself by neglecting this precaution; putting his fingers to his eyes just after rubbing croton oil upon a part of the skin.

[†] Very deep (Artesian) well water is much we mer than this; the temperature increasing with the depth, after the first forty or fifty i.e.

the surface of the body is often intensely hot; the whole skin seems to be inflamed. Bear in mind the great principle: we want to temper, to moderate the excessive heat; not to chill the body below its normal degree.

Certain additions to water as a drink will contribute to its refrigerant action. Acids have this tendency. Lemonade and the juice of oranges are generally snitable. Citrate of Potassium and Acetate of Ammonium are the medicines most sure to be safe and beneficial for the same purpose; the former when the bowels are natural or constipated, the latter when there is a disposition towards diarrheea.

Of the secretions, those of the bowels, skin, and kidneys require attention in fever. In most cases of typhoid fever and some cases of measles, the bowels incline to looseness from the start. When, in those diseases, they are not moved at all during the first day of the fever, a small dose of a mild purgative may be given; in typhoid fever, a teaspoonful of Castor-Oil; in measles, a teaspoonful of Citrate of Magnesium (solid), or a half-wineglassful of effervescing Solution of Citrate of Magnesium; or a teaspoonful of Rochelle Salt.

These are exceptional febrile diseases. In Remittent (autumnal, bilious, malarial) fever, a good brisk purging early in the attack with a saline medicine, such as Citrate of Magnesium (an even table-poonful, solid, or a wineglassful of the solution, repeated in six hours if it does not operate) or Rochelle Salt (a tablespoonful), will be pretty sure to be useful. Typhus fever requires caution, in expectation of great weakness; half of the above doses will be best for its treatment. Scarlet fever should be, as a rule, the occasion for a good cooling saline dose on the day the attack breaks out. Dr. Joseph Hartshorne, who had a very large experience in Philadelphia, used to say that the chief reason why some cases of scarlet fever and allied diseases had troublesome late symptoms and sequelæ (after effects) was the neglect of proper evacuation at the beginning. Purgatives at that stage help to clear out from the bowels and from the blood impurities which, while they remain, are poisonous to the system.

But real purgation belongs in fevers, as a part of the treatment, only to the early stage. After that, we need merely to see that the bowels are not constipated; a daily moderate movement will suffice. Some persons suppose that because a sick person takes only small quantities of food, he does not need to have his bowels open at all. But the waste of the substance of the body is going on even faster than during health, and the discharge from the bowels comes from this waste as well as from the refuse or excess of food

Dry of the skin is a regular symptom of fever. The most fre-

quent exception to it is in the febrile state of inflammatory rheumatism; in which the skin, while hot, is sometimes quite moist. Generally, the dryer the skin, the worse; the coming of moisture shows the subsidence of the fever. The high heat and dryness are connected together. Reduce the temperature, and perspiration will break out. cold drinks and (careful) cold washing and sponging, spoken of as appropriate to lower the excessive temperature, will serve also to restore the secretion from the skin. Citrate of Potassium, Acetate of Ammonium, and some other mediciues favoring this effect, are called diaphoretics in medical books.

Diurctics are agents which tend to increase the action of the kidneys, the flow of urine. They are among the more uncertain remedies; they do uot always act as we wish them to. In this they differ very much

from purgative medicines.

The salines already mentioned (Citrate of Potassium and Acetate of Ammonium) as diaphoretics are commonly diuretics also. So are Cream of Tartar and Sweet Spirit of Nitre. The latter is very often given in fever, when the amount of urine passed is small. Do not forget that sometimes, in low fevers, the bladder is full, but the patient cannot This must be examined into. If there is retention of urine, it must be drawn off with a catheter.

Weakness, in fever, is not quite the same thing early in the attack as towards its end. In the first place it is an oppression of the system; after a while there is more or less exhaustion. The first is best relieved by the evacuating (unloading) means above referred to; purgatives, diaphoretics, diuretics. At that stage, with persons of average strength, the amount of food taken may be small and its character light. (Persons always feeble will need to have concentrated food from the beginning.) As the attack goes on, even towards the end of the first week usually, and in scarlet fever and small-pox sooner, the system loses strength, and support is necessary. What shall the means of that support be?

Liquid, strong food in small quantities and often is the rule. Milk (with lime-water iu it if the stomach be very weak) and beef-tea are the things to stand by. Strong mutton broth and chicken soup (with

all fat fully skimmed off) will do for variation.

Supporting treatment for great debility has always, with physicians, included the use of something alcoholic, wine and whisky being mostly preferred. Opinion in the medical profession on this subject has tended of late years (in the minds, at least, of its safest leaders) towards a lessening of the amount of alcoholic stimulation in fevers, and towards resorting to it in fewer cases. Ouce it was almost a universal practice to give whisky in all cases of typhoid, as well as of typhus, fever. Now, many cases of typhoid fever are found to get through well without it. Typhus is attended by more positive depression; yet in my own person, attacked while a resident physician in Penusylvania Hospital, typhus was treated without alcohol, except one wineglassful of wine whey, which, as it did not seem to agree well, was not repeated.

On such an important matter, in every actual case, the judgment of a physician should be obtained. The safest rule in **Home** management of the siek will be (unless in extraordinary emergencies) not to give or take alcohol in any form unless advised by a competent physician.

Cough.

How many different kinds and causes of cough there are, we have already mentioned when considering it among the symptoms of disease. It cannot be treated exactly alike under all these different circumstances. As a symptom, however, it is unpleasant, and often wearisome; and it is well to know of some domestic remedies which are safe and useful in many cases.

First, a dry cough must be softened and loosened. The three best home remedies for this purpose are Ipecacuanha, Squills, and Wild Cherry Bark. Of the Syrnp of Ipecacuanha, for this effect (not to cause vomiting) the dose is from a quarter to a half teaspoonful. Of Syrup of Squills, which does best at a later stage than Ipecac, half a teaspoonful to a teaspoonful. Of Syrup of Wild Cherry Bark, a teaspoonful. This last may be given along with Syrup of Ipecae at first, and with Syrup of Squills afterwards.

There is also real usefulness in the soothing effect upon cough of Licorice, and of pure and well-made candies; hoarhound candy for example. The advantage of these is that a little of either can be taken very often, so as to keep up a nearly constant influence of the kind desired. Although such things only touch the swallowing part of the throat (pharynx), not the wind-pipe (larynx), yet the nearness and sympathy of these two surfaces cause the extension of the effect from one to the other. Spencer's Chloramine pastilles are useful in this way.

After loosening, a wearisome cough may need to be quieted. This must be done with care, since to stop secretion and dry up a cough will make things worse. Opium and its preparations, including of course Morphia, have the most power of this kind. They are often added to cough-mixtures, to be used after free expectoration of phlegm has come on. Wistar's Cough Lozenges, when made after the regular formula, are composed chiefly of Licorice, with a little Opium added. Syrup of Lactucarium, also, is quieting to cough, and is a milder narcotio

than Opium. It may be used sooner and with less apprehension of excessive effect. Compound Tincture of Benzoin often has a very good effect, in fifteen to twenty drop doses, each dose taken on a lump of sugar. About other medicines adapted to particular kinds of cough, something will be said in connection with special diseases. A full account of them is given in all works on *Materia Medica*, under the title of Expectorants.

HEMORRHAGE.

What causes bleeding must always be the first question. If from a wound, it will come under Accidents and Injuries, to be considered

in the latter part of this book.

If a symptom of a disease, the necessity of treating the disease rather than the bleeding is plain. In such a case, only a large and weakening hemorrhage calls for special measures on its account. This is true of the bleeding at the nose in the first week of typhoid fever, spitting of blood in consumption of the lungs, romiting of blood in ulcer of the stomach, and bleeding from hemorrhoids or piles. If hemorrhage from the nose, stomach, or lungs takes the place of the monthly flow in women, we are less concerned to stop it than under other circumstances.

It is well to state clearly that there are no remedies which are always certain to stop bleeding from any internal cavity of the body.

NOSE-BLEEDING.

Often this is rather relieving than otherwise, in full-blooded young people, who without it would have had headache. The occasion for stopping it comes when it is so large in amount, or continues so long, as to weaken by loss of blood.

How shall we stop it? Tell the patient to avoid blowing his nose. Clotting (coagulation) is the natural way of stoppage of all hemorrhages. Bathe the forehead and outside of the nose and cheeks with cold water, or apply ice to the forehead (not too long at once, but enough to cause the impression of decided cold); or, if this does not suffice, to the back

of the neck.

Put a plug of cotton well into the nostril from which the blood comes. If first dipped lightly in a strong solution of Alum, it will be more effectual. Let the person keep quiet, with the head and shoulders raised. Holding both hands high above the head is said to help to stop bleeding at the nose.

Only one in a very large number of cases will be really dan ous. When all the above measures fail, a physician will be needed, who will effectually plug the bleeding nostril. For this a watch-spring arrange-

ment is sometimes used, or an elastic catheter. If the latter, a string (waxed ligature) is put through the hole at the end of the instrument, and that is oiled and very gently passed back into the nostril until it can be felt at the opening above the throat. With forceps (nippers) one end of the string is then seized and brought out of the mouth. A piece of cotton is tied upon it, and then the catheter and the other end of the string are drawn out of the nose, and the cotton plug is held firmly against the back of the nostril. If still necessary, another plug may be again inserted in the front of the nostril.

BLEEDING IN THE MOUTH.

When a tooth has been pulled, or, in an infant, the gums have been freely lanced, sometimes con iderable bleeding will occur. If from a tooth, a plug of cotton may be dipped in *Creasote*, or *Tincture of Chloride of Iron*, and pressed into the bleeding cavity with the end of a bodkin or darning-needle. Ice may be applied to too freely bleeding gums, or they may have put against them a soft rag wet with Alumwater or a solution of *Tincture of Chloride of Iron*.

SPITTING OF BLOOD.

Is it from the lungs, or from the throat, mouth, or nostrils?

Not unfrequently, bleeding from the nose goes backwards, into the throat, and the blood, then hawked up, is naturally imagined to como from the lungs, sometimes causing great alarm. Inquiry and examination will make it clear whether this, or bleeding from the mouth, is the case.

Ulcerated throats sometimes bleed. The ulcer can then be seen, in a good light, if the tongue is pressed down with the handle of a table-spoon. This sort of bleeding, however, is not at all common.

When romiting occurs before blood appears, we ascribe it to the stomach. The blood is then, usually, rather dark and thick; not fresh-locking.

If real bleeding from the lungs takes place, the blood is coughed up (perhaps quite softly and lightly); it is, as a rule, bright red. Only a little may come; sometimes merely streaking the expectoration; or it may be copious; mouthfuls all at once. In this last case, it is attended by danger of exhaustion from the loss of blood.

No unprofessional person should think of taking charge of a serious hemorrhage without the aid of a physician, if one can be had. While waiting for one, however, what ought to be done?

Put the patient upon a bed, with the head and shoulders comfortably raised with pillows. He must keep very still and not speak. Let a

piece of ice be taken into his month every few minutes, and swallowed slowly. Then fasten around each arm, above the elbow, a shawl-strap, if such be at hand, or a long handkerchief, quite tightly; leaving each on, however, only a few minutes at a time. If the bleeding does not stop, let them be tightened again and again, several times. Should this not succeed, and the doctor has not yet arrived, sim straps or bandages may be applied in the same manner to the lowe. ambs, just below the knees.

If blood comes from the stomach, it may be from ulceration, or cancer; or it may be hysterical (that is, connected with general . ervous disorder), or, in exceptional cases, may take the place of menstruation which is suppressed. (Bursting of an aneurism of the aorta is a possible source of hemorrhage, either from the stomach or from the lungs; but the existence of such an ancurism will mostly have been before discovered

by an attending physician.)

To moderate or check large bleeding from the stomach, as shown by free veniting of blood, ice is the safest and most hopeful of remedies. Keepia quiet, and taking the least possible food in the liquid state, are important. Boiled milk with lime-water will be the most suitable nonrishment; or arrow-root, tapioca, etc. In the absence of medical advice, no medicine had better be ventured upon; unless it be swallowing very small amounts of solution of Alum, or, once in two or three hours, a single drop of Creasote, dissolved in two tablespooufuls of water.

INTESTINAL BLEEDING.

For hemorrhage from the bowels, the same kind of management is applicable as that appropriate when blood is thrown up from the

stomach; as just described.

Bleeding piles (hemorrhoids) are, of course, troublesome, but the bleeding, as such, does not nearly always require treatment. If it continues very freely, the patient must lie still in bed, with a piece of oil-cloth or rubber-cloth under the lower sheet. A piece of sponge or a napkin dipped in ice-water may be held against the fundament. If anything else is to be done, it ought to be upon a physician's advice.

MONTHLY IRREGULARITIES.

Proposing to refer again to these hereafter, under the several heads of Amenorrhea, Dysmenorrhea, and Menorrhagia (our present aim being to bring forward general principles in regard to remedies), our most important statement now is that there are no certain specific medicines which will always bring on, or always delay, or otherwise regulate menstruation.

A comparison will here be instructive. We can always make any one romit with an emetic. We can be sure, if there he no obstruction of the bowels, of causing purgation by one or another of the cathartic medicines. Most probably, in a given case, we can, by cold drinks and diaphoretic medicines, produce sweating. Probably, but not certainly, diurctics, so called, will in given cases increase more or less the flow of urine. Farthest of all from certainty is our endeavor to net upon the uterus so as, when menstruation is postponed beyond its regular time, to hasten it, or, when it comes too often, to retard its coming.

For delayed monthly courses it is desirable to produce a determination of blood towards the lower part of the abdomen. Hot foot-baths, and warm hip- or sitting-buths, are the most effective means for this end. Opening the bowels rather briskly with a Lady Webster's or a Compound Rhubarb pill, or Warner's Cordial, or Tincture of Aloes and Myrrh, will also be helpful towards it. Especial care must be taken that the body, and most of all the feet, shall not be chilled at such a time.

Lately, good medical evidence makes it appear that Permangunate of Potassium is a good promoter of regularity in menstruation. Manganese, which it contains, is a metal, chemically a good deal like iron. Two grains may be the dose, twice daily; stopped or lessened however, if it causes sickness of the stomach or irritation of the bowels. If it seems to agree with the patient, it may be continued through a month or two, discontinuing it at the time of the monthly return, when that takes place.

For painful menstruation (dysmenorrhoa), lying still is very important from the beginning of the attack. Warm flunnels (wrung out of hot water, or heated dry at a fire close by), may be applied to the abdomen. A hot drink is likely to be comfortable, such as this: Put into half a teacupful of hot water, a teaspoonful of Warner's Cordial, a teaspoonful of Compound Spirit of Lavender, and twenty drops of Spirits of Camphor; stir them well together just before taking it. Should relief not come in an hour or so, Paregoric-a teaspoonful at once-may be given. Few cases will need any stronger anodyne; and they should be under the care of a physician.

Gentle compression of the womb, with a warm hand upon the abdomen, will sometimes lessen the pain. The same may be hoped for from firm and steady pressure on the two hip bones near their front

edges; as mentioned in the case of colic.

Menorrhagia is excessive menstrual flow; a variety of hemorrhage. The most important part of its management is usually during the intervals, to prevent it. Near the expected time the sufferer, who has 19

reason to fear it, should lie still in bed. When the excessive flow comes, cold wet cloths may be laid upon the abdomen, the rest of the body being kept comfortably warm. Only a decidedly bad case will fall to be thus moderated. Further treatment, such as injecting hot water, or vinegar and water, into the vagina, or squeezing a cut lemon therein, or plugging with cotton soaked in alum water, etc., had best be left, whenever possible, to a physician.

DROPSY.

For our purpose, in this place, it may be said that there are three classes of dropsical troubles: general dropsy (anasarea), superficial local dropsy (adema), and local internal dropsies. After scarlet fever, the kind most likely to come is anasarea, general dropsy. From great weakness and thinness of the blood there often comes adema, or local watery swelling, of the feet. Heart-disease, liver-disease, or kidney-disease will often bring on general dropsy; but, not infrequently, liver-disease will be attended by abdominal dropsy (ascites) almost alone. Chest dropsy (hydrothorax) is another local internal form; and water in the head (hydrocephabus) another.

For the cure of any of these, the great thing is to find the cause, and remedy it, if possible. We have to mention this if, because, of all difficult diseases to cure, those which produce dropsy are, in many cases, among the most obstinate. It is often, though of course not always, one of the last results of disease, which itself may have continued for weeks, months, or years. The best hope of its being cured is in those cases in which there is not much else the matter, and when it has not

yet lasted long.

Just for the dropsy, as a symptom, when it is right to treat that, physicians give diurctics and purgatives. Of the first may be named Cream of Tartar, Juniper Berries, and Squills. Cream of Tartar (Bitartrate of Potassium) acts also moderately on the bowels. Another purgative used in this way is Jalap, frequently given with Cream of Tartar. More active is what is called the drastic cathartic, Elaterium; which, even in very small dose, will purge severely. All these medicines, indeed the whole treatment of dropsy, ought to come under the judgment of a skilful physician. Such an one, when unsuccessful (as may happen) in reducing dropsy by diurctics and purgatives, may conclude it best to tap the patient; that is, to let out the water by introducing a small tube into the swollen part. This gives immense relief, sometimes permanent. In a certain number of instances the fluid accumulates again, and the operation may have to be repeated. Tapping the abdomen has long been an approved practice; doing the same for

effusion in the chest, after pleurisy, has latterly been found suitable in a considerable number of instances; and even water around the heart (pericardial effusion) has been so relieved in some cases within a few years.

Another relieving operation sometimes performed for great watery swelling of the legs and feet is to lance the skin in a good many places, so as to make the water coze out gradually. When this is done, the parts should afterwards be greased with Cold Cream or Tallow, to prevent inflammation, which might become crysipchitons and trouble-some.

One form of dropsy is peculiar to women, generally after or near middle life—ovarian dropsy. This is not often greatly helped by medical treatment, or even by tapping. When it is clearly going to shorten life very much, surgeons increase the probability of longer survival by an operation, removing the tumor, which is the cause and sent of the dropsical swelling. This operation is called ovariotomy.

PROSTRATION: DEBILITY.

We have seen already that there is more than one kind of weakness from disease. There may be oppression, us in the early stage of almost any acute disorder; or depression (prostration) from a great shock, such as a railroad accident, crushing a limb, or from the lowering influence of typhus or typhoid fever; or exhaustion, such as will be produced by a large hemorrhage, an attack of cholera morbus, or a severe disease of some length of continuance.

For oppression, in a person of good constitution and strength, unloading the system is needed—by sweating, purging, and action of the kidneys.

For depression, support is called for. Not deeming it expedient to go here into an argument about it, only mentioning that some difference of opinion has latterly sprung up on this point, my own judgment, based on experience, goes with that of physicians generally, to this effect: that alcoholic stimulation is, in sudden or great prostration from any cause, the most effectual. It may enable the system to tide over the time of weakness and danger, so that all will go on well again; whereas, without it, the patient may sink and die.

Alcoholic stimulation is very often abused. It is employed when there is no occasion for it, and when required it is frequently excessive in amount. Every little feeling of weakness does not properly call for a glass of wine or whisky; far from it. Fainting is better treated by fresh air, as much as possible; dashing or sprinkling cold water on the face, and Ammonia. Smelling salts (Carbonate of Ammoniam) put, for

a moment at a time, under the nostrils, will hasten recovery from a faint When swallowing is possible, twenty or thirty drops of the Aromatic Spirit of Ammonia may be taken in a wineglassful of water.

But when a person is almost dead from loss of blood, or an extensive burn, or the shock of a railroad accident, with white lips, shrunken cheeks, cold skin, and rapid, thready pulse, we need to stimulate with Alcohol, but not too much. A teaspoonful of whisky will be enough, in many instances, repeated in ten or fifteen minutes, if the patient does not show reaction. A tablespoonful will be a large enough dose at oue draught in any case. More will do no better towards stimulation, and the after effect will be worse. Always, moreover, such stimulation must be withheld as soon as the depression has passed away, and then the less alcohol he has had put into his system the better.

GENERAL DEBILITY.

After an acute disease with fever, as scarlet fever, measles, typhoid fever, etc., convalescence is accompanied by more or less debility. But when everything goes well, appetite is then strong, and the losses of the system are made up by the appropriation of food. A person who was healthy before such an attack will commonly need no help from medieines to "build up" again.

Running down in strength, however, with or without acute disease, and often without any fixed disorder of any great organ, is not uncommon, from various causes. Too severe, monotonous, and long-continued labor, out of proportion to one's strength; worry, particularly when it prevents refreshing sleep; living in a close air, without change and exereise; these are some of the conditions in which people are apt to get

down "below par" in strength.

Poverty of blood (anaemia) is generally present in such cases. So is loss of appetite and digestive power; and nervous depression. These are

the three elements of ordinary continued debility.

To meet these, we have, besides rest from care, change of air, and generous feeding (all of which are of the greatest importance), three sorts of tonics: blood-renewers, appetizers, and nervines. Of the first class, referring to works on Materia Medica for others, the most valuable, in the generality of cases, are Iron and Cod-Liver Oil. To the second class belong the vegetable Bitters, as Gentian, Quassia, Columbo, Chamomile, etc.; and the Mineral Acids, as Aromatic Sulphuric Acid (Elixir of Vitriol), and others. Under the third head may be named Quinine as most largely and safely applicable to general debility. Physicians also use, in some selected cases, Strychnia and Phosphorus, as powerful nervine tonics; but they are too dangerous to allow in the family medicine chest for use without medical advice. One preparation, if labelled *Poison*, and kept out of the way of the children and of ignorant servants, may sometimes find safe use as a tonic both to the digestive organs and to the nervon system; *Tincture of Nux Vomica*; safe in the small dose case drops twice or thrice daily.

I'EMEDIES FOR PPECIAL DISEASES.

We have very few reat and vertain specifies for the cure of particular diseases. The great boast of the medical profession is of its power to stop "chills and fever" and coutrol other kinds of malarial attacks with Quinine, and with some other preparations from the same source, namely, the Pernvian Bark. Syphilis is, undoubtedly, curable in the large majority of cases, timely attended to, by the skilful use of two remedies, Mercury (various preparations) and Iodide of Potassium. Itch is always conquerable by a sufficient application of Sulphur, in oiutment or otherwise.

Scurvy is curable, without much aid from medicines (tonics if any) by fresh vegetable food; as potatoes, onions, oranges, lemons, etc. Inflammatory rheumatism is beneficially influenced by Salicylic Aoid and Alkalies (Potassa, Soda, Lithia); as Gout has been long known to be by Colchicum.

Besides antidotes for actual poisons, and medicines which kill or drive out worms from the bowels, we cannot claim any other clear examples of special remedies for particular diseases. It used to be said that Iodine is a certain cure for goitre (enlargement of the thyroid gland in the neck). It is no doubt generally serviceable in that affection; but it will not always cure it. Quiniue does not always cure ague. It "breaks" the chills, but in one, two, or three weeks they may come again; and the cure then has to be finished by a month or two of a course of Iron.

There has not yet been discovered any specific remedy for scarlet fever, measles, whooping-cough, small-pox, typhoid or typhus fever, yellow fever, or cholera. All these diseases must be, therefore, conducted through the attack as safely as possible; neeting the symptoms as they occur, with the most reasonable measures we know of. I have sometimes told medical students, when talking of this subject, of what once happened to my father, while he was practising medicine.

Having to drive several niles out of town to make an early visit to a patient, his horse was put into the carriage without any breakfast. On the way home, on a turnpike, the animal's hunger, and perhaps wrath, caused him to run away. My father, being alone, was quite unable to check his speed. As he dashed on, a turnpike gate came in view. What

was to be done? Stopping the beast was impossible. Had the reins been abandoned, although the gate was open, going through at full speed, not guided, would probably have resulted in knocking carriage, turnpike gate, and doctor all together into pi, as the printers call it. Therefore the doctor, being a man of good steady nerves, held the reins carefully, and drove through the gate, without even grazing a hub! After that, the runaway used up his excess of animal spirits without serious harm to anybody. So it is, then, that, in the self-limited diseases, above mentioned, we are to drive through, as skilfully and carefully as we can, attacks which we cannot abruptly stop; but which will come to an end of themselves after a while.

Worms, Poisons, Accidents, and Injuries will have their special consideration in suitable places later in this book.

PRINCIPAL MEDICINES, AND OTHER REMEDIES.

For the reader's convenience, we will now give a brief account of each medicine that has been spoken of in the preceding, or is likely to be particularly mentioned in the following, pages. As they are alphabetically anged, there will be no difficulty in finding any one of them for reference.

Acetate of Ammonium Solution. This is a mild, moderately cooling medicine, very suitable to promote perspiration during fever. It is easily made by dropping small pieces of Carbonate of Ammonium into good Vinegar, piece after piece, until it ceases to bubble with effervescence. (This proceeds from the Carbonic Acid gas passing off, being displaced by the Acetic Acid of the Vinegar.)

Dose of this Solution, a Tablespoonful every two or three hours. It is preferred to other sweating medicines especially in typhoid and typhus fevers; tow fevers, so-called. It does not act upon the bowels.

Aconite. Tincture of the Root of the Monkshood or Aconite plant. A deadly sedative poison in any but very small dose. It acts mainly on the nervous system, but indirectly on the circulation. Some physicians use it in more cases of inflammatory fever, as in that of pncumonia, pleurisy, etc.

or two drops, in water, for a grown person, every two, three, hours. A bottle containing it should be labelled Poison.

Aloes. A powerful purgative medicine, having a particular tendency to act on the lower bowel. Therefore it is not a suitable cathartic in cases of Piles. Yet, in a very small, not purgative, dose, it is sometimes added to other medicines for the relief of piles. Its action on the lower bowel makes it me appropriate when delay of the feminine monthly flow is treated by laxative medicines. The Tincture of Aloes and Myrrh (Elixir Proprietatis) has been much employed for this end. Dose of Aloes, from one or two to ten or more grains. Dose of Tincture of Aloes and Myrrh, from one to three or four teaspoonfuls, in water.

Alum. A mineral, called a salt by chemists. It contains either Ammonium or Potassium with Aluminium and Sulphuric acid in combination. (There is also an Iron Alum, in which, likewise, Ammonium is present.) It is crystalline, and has a peculiar taste, easily recognized after making its acquaintance. Alum is not often given as a medicine by the stomach, except as an emetic in bad cases of croup. For that purpose, its dose, in powder, is half a teaspoonful, with the same amount

of the powder, or a teaspoonful of Syrup of Ipecacuanha. In small dose, it is an astringent; that is, it tends to make the tissues which it touches shrink or contract together. Thus it helps to lessen the swelling of the mucous membrane, which is inflamed in sore throat, and it is much used for that, either in powder or in solution as a gargle. The powder may be blown into the throat through a quill, or, sometimes, put on the sore place with the end of one's finger. A gargle is made by dissolving a piece as large as a thumb in half a tumblerful of water. It is used by taking a mouthful of it and throwing the head back without swallowing it, letting it go as far down into the throat as it can without being swallowed.

Alum should not be employed in mouth-washes, because, when left long in contact with the teeth, the Sulphurie Acid in it acts somewhat upon their enamel. A solution of alum in pure water makes a good astringent eye-water, for inflammation of the eyes: an even teaspoonful

of alum in a tumblerful of water will be strong enough.

Volatile Alkali and Hartshorn are other names for this Ammonia. substance. When pure, it is a gas; but it is used either in the form of the Solid Carbonate of Ammonium, or in solution in Water (Aqua Ammoniæ), or in Alcohol. Smelling salts consist usually of the Carbonate. Druggists keep a stronger and a weaker watery solution of Ammonia. The medicinal form most used is the Aromatic Spirit of Ammonia (a solution in Alcohol, with Spices). This is a stimulant and antacid preparation. Its dose is from ten to twenty-five or thirty drops, in water. Aqua Ammonia (Water of Ammonia) is used to make Volatile Liniment, by mixing it with an equal quantity of Olive or Lard Oil. This liniment is a very warming thing to rub into the skin of the throat for a sore throat, as a counterirritant.

Amyl Nitrite. See Nitrite of Amyl.

Anise-seed is a mild aromatic or spicy article, warming and agreeable to the stomach. It is hardly ever used by itself, but is employed sometimes to flavor medicines. It gives the peculiar odor and taste to Paregoric.

Apollinaris Water is an effervescing "mineral-water," having no marked property or action beyond that of the Carbonic Acid gas which makes it sparkling and pungent to the taste. Travellers in Europe often take it at their meals, so as to avoid the usual drinking-water at doubtful places. In this country, also, it is getting to be a popular table-water. (St. John's champagne!)

The Tincture of the flowers (or of the whole plant) is a popular application for bruises and sprains. It is a warming application, and not suitable where the skin is broken. Being poisonous when swallowed in large doses, it should be kept so labelled, and so used as to prevent mistakes with it.

Arsenic. A metal whose compounds are poisonous. Ratsbane is the White Oxide of Arsenic (Arsenious Acid). Paris Green, a good exterminator of potato-bugs, is an Arsenical preparation, with Copper. The medicinal form in which Arsenic is generally prescribed by physicians is the Solution of Arsenite of Potassium (Fowler's Solution). Dose, from three to ten drops, twice daily; often given for chronic diseases of the skin. It should never be taken by an unprofessional person, without medical advice.

Artificial Respiration. See Drowning, later, under Accidents and Injuries.

Assafætida. A gum-resin, of very disagreeable odor and taste; a good, mild, and safe composing medicine for disturbed nerves. Assafætida pills, of three grains each, may be given now and then to hysterical people. This drug is also good for flatulence. Milk of Assafætida is a very serviceable medicine for babies' colic. Dose, a teaspoonful, sweetened.

Atomization. See Inhalations.

Bark, Peruvian. See Cinchona and Quinine.

Baths. Enough has been said under Hygiene concerning bathing

during halth.

In treatment of disease, the kinds of baths most used are the warm and the hot bath. We may call it warm from 90° to 96° Fahr., and hot from 96° to 100°. It never need be hotter than this last figure.

Warm baths are very often useful, for relaxing and tranquillizing the system. In croup, convulsions, and lockjaw, as examples, such effects

are often well obtained.

Hot baths, though less frequently called for, are sometimes very serviceable; especially in cold and low states of the system. rhenmatism is one of the affections likely to be beuefited by it.

Hot Dry Air Baths (Russian bath) are occasionally advised by phy-

sicians, in obstinate prolonged skin affections, etc.

Vapor or steam baths are occasionally used for the application of heat and moisture to the body. They are not safe beyond the temperature of 110°, or possibly, for a short time, 120°. Moisture conveys heat to the body much more rapidly than dry air at the same temperature. A steam bath may be given, by the patient being stripped of clothing, and seated in a chair, wrapped, chair and all, in a blanket; his head only projecting-above the latter. Then vapor may be generated by dropping very hot bricks into a pail of water placed between his feet. As above said, care must be taken about the temperature; and, on the whole, it will be hardly best to resort to a vapor bath without the advice of a physician.

Hot and Warm Springs, as those of Virginia, are medicated by the sulphurous and other contents of the waters. Sometimes they do much good (bathing in the waters) for chronic troubles of the liver,

kidneys, etc., and rheumatie joints.

Belladonna. This product of the Deadly Nightshade (Atropa Belladonna) is a powerful narcotic or brain stimulant drug. The Extract of the leaves is most used by physicians as a medicine, in neuralgia, etc. Atropia, a very strong alkaloid principle, is obtained from the root. Its solution is often dropped into the eyes by oculists, for the examination and treatment of affections of the eyes. It enlarges or dilates the pupils, giving them a more brilliant appearance. Ladies are said to take it sometimes before going into company, to make their eyes "brighter"; whence the name, from bella donna, fair lady.

Dose of the solid Extract, a quarter of a Grain to a Grain; of the Tincture, ten to fifteen drops. Solution of Atropia for the eyes, two to four grains to a Fluidounce of water. Neither should be used without

medical advice.

Benzoin. A resinous substance, from the Styrax, an East Indian tree. The Compound Tincture of Benzoin is a good medicine for bronchial cough. Dose, fifteen to twenty drops, on a lump of sugar, every three or four hours; or at the beginning of a spell of coughing. The same Tincture, applied with a camel's-hair pencil, is very healing to a sore nipple or a cracked lip, or even a fissure of the anus.

Bismuth Sabnitrate. A soothing stomachie medicine. Dose, 2 to 5 grains.

Blackberry Root. Country people generally know the astringent property of this; but some make a mistake in supposing the berries to have the same; which they do not. A tea made by cutting up a handful of the root and soaking it for two or three hours in boiling water (kept hot) will answer a good purpose in checking diarrhea, in tablespoonful doses.

Bleeding. An opinion concerning the occasional usefulness of this old-fashioned remedy having been expressed on a previous page, we have now only to say a few words about how it is done; although few people will want to try it before they have seen it done.

At the bend of the arm is the most convenient place for venesection (opening a vein); choosing a cross vein if there is one, as is generally the case. First, tie a bandage or handkerehief around the arm, above the elbow; not as tight as it could be, as that would stop the flew of blood into the arm through the artery. What we want is to check the return flow of blood towards the heart, in the veins, so that they may swell up and be easily seen and struck, and will then let out a good stream of blood. Of course the sleeve must be put out of the way for the operation. When the chosen vein becomes distended, it is opened by means of a lancet. There are two kinds of bleeding lancets. One is a simple small blade, tapering to a sharp point, which is dipped, so to speak, through the coat of the vein, nearly in the line of its direc-The other is a spring lancet; the small pointed blade going forcibly into the vein when a button at the side of its case is pressed upon. Either will answer. When the opening is made in the vein, the blood, commonly dark-blue or purple, spurts a little, and then flows in a steady stream. If there is high fever, its color may be bright red, like that of arterial blood. Now and then, if the vein cut be just over an artery, the pulsation of the latter may make the blood come in an interrupted jet, as if from a wounded artery. Unskilful bleeders have sometimes opened an artery along with the veia, an accident which may give serious after-trouble. (If it should happen, pressure on the wounded artery, at and above the wound, will be required to stop its bleeding.)

When enough blood has been taken, which may always be known to be the case if the patient becomes pale and faint from it, the bandage

should be removed. This alone will usually stop the bleeding at once, If not, pressure with a thumb or finger on the vein just below the cut, will certainly control it. Ten onnces will be a sufficient bleeding for most grown persons; much less of course for a child. The effect, however, is the best guide. No patient is to be drained of blood; we need merely to reduce excitement or remove oppression. In inflammation of the brain, lungs, larynx (as in severe croup), plcura, or peritoneum, the former is desirable. In congestive apoplexy, or poisoning from breathing coal or burning gas, the latter is the mode of relief.

Leeching and cupping will have most of the good effects of bleeding

from the arm; and in doubtful cases may be substituted for it.

Blisters. We use Mustard-Plasters not to blister, but only strongly to warm and stimulate the skin. For raising a blister, Cantharides is mostly resorted to. The oldest way is to spread the Ointment of Cantharides on a piece of buckskin, three or four or five inches square; cover this with a piece of gauze, and lay it on the part. This will draw a blister upon a grown person in four, five, or six hours; with a child, in two hours or less. Then nip (do not remove) the raised scarfskin with the point of a pair of seissors, and lay upon it a soft muslin rag thickly spread with Simple Cerate, as a healing dressing.

Cantharidal Collodion is a strong liquid preparation, which, when painted on a part with a small brush (camel's-hair pencil), and covered with oiled silk or rubber cloth, will draw a blister in from an hour

and a half to three hours generally.

Blisters are unpleasant things, but are sometimes very beneficial; especially at the middle stage of a serious inflammation, as of the brain, plcura, lungs, etc. In severe inflammation of the brain in a man, I have known great advantage to follow shaving the head and blistering

nearly the whole head at once.

Once in a while strangury (difficulty in passing water) will follow the application of a blister, from some of the Cantharides being absorbed into the blood, and so getting through the kidneys into the bladder. Flannel wrung out of hot water applied to the bladder and perineum (crotch, just between the thighs at the pelvis); Spirits of Camphor, taken in twenty-drop doses; and, if the difficulty lingers, a Laudanam injection into the bowels, are remedies for strangury.

Blue Pill, or Blue Mass. This is a preparation of Mcrcury, onethird of the strength of Calomel. It is a soft solid, easily made into Apothecaries usually keep on hand three-grain Blue Pills.

Much discussion and some change of opinion have taken place in the medical profession within twenty-five years about the use of Blue Mass and other Mercurial medicines. Their power over the liver has been disputed, and their control of inflammatory attacks is not confided in now as it formerly was. The doses of mercurials also have come to be much reduced. The late Dr. Joseph Hartshorne was one of the first to observe the necessity for this reduction. He gave two- and three-grain doses of Blue Pill, when many practitioners gave ten and twenty grains.

The best established usefulness of Blue Mass is in the relief of what is called "biliousness," when there is a bitter taste in the month, especially on awaking in the morning; with some degree of nausea (siek feeling at the stomach), and more or less yellowness of the tongue and of the whites of the eyes; perhaps of the face or the skin generally; the bowels also being constipated, or the stools slate-colored instead of brown or yellowish-brown, as is natural. One or two grains of Blue Pill at bedtime, and the same again in the morning or the next evening, taking in all from two to four grains, will do well, without any risk of salivation, at least in all but one case or so in a thousand.

Calomel is better for a similar purpose as a baby's medicine. Indigestion and commencing diarrhora in infants are often much helped by small doses of Calomel; powders, each of which contains one-twelfth of a grain of the medicine, with a grain or two of Soda (Sodium Bicarbonate) or Magnesia, or only Sugar; the last for taste, and to give substance to the small dose of the drug.

Borax. A very familiar article this is, in the nursery, for sore mouth. It is a mineral astringent, milder than Alum, and may be used more freely; either dissolved in water as a wash, or in powder with Sugar, put with the finger right on the sore spet in the mouth.

Bromide of Potassium, Bromide of Sodium, and Bromide of Lithium. These "Bromides" are nervous sedatives; tranquillizing an excited brain in a different way from Opium; having less sleep-compelling power than it. Bromide of Potassium is largely prescribed by physicians for epilepsy and some less serious but obstinate troubles of the nervous system. Bromide of Sodium has the same sort of effect, but perhaps is more agreeable to the stomach; and the same is true of Bromide of Lithium. Bromide of Ammonium is less often used for similar effects. Bromo-cuffcinc often helps nervous headaches.

Dose, of either, five to fifteen or twenty grains, in water. The largest doses are best borne when taken at bedtime. Long use of large doses of either of the Bromides sometimes causes an eruption on the skin, and some other unpleasant symptoms, called bromism, by physicians. For any one who suffers greatly from the sting of a bee, or other insect, twenty-grain doses of Bromide of Potassium may be advised.

Cajuput Oil. An aromatic greenish (or, when old, reddish) oil, from the leaves of an East Indian tree; one of the best remedies for flatulent colic, especially when "gouty;" and also for flying gout and chronic rheumatism.

Dose, from four to ten Drops, on a lump of sugar, followed by a

driuk of water. Calomel. Chloride of Mercury. See above, under Blue Pill. Calomel is a white powder. Dose, from one-twelfth of a grain, for an infant, to one-half grain, one grain, or sometimes possibly more, for an adult. Not to be used as a domestic medicine; unless, after experience, the very small calomel powders, for indigestion of infants.

Camphor. A most useful gum, from an evergreen tree native to the south and east of Asia. Every one knows its white or colorless transparency, its peculiar odor, and pungent and yet cooling taste. It is volatile; that is, if left in the air it will slowly go off in vapor. Very little of it will dissolve in water. Camphor-water is a very mild preparation. Spirit of Camphor, made with Alcohol, is much stronger.

Camphor is a camposing medicine to the nerves; somewhat more stimulant than Assafœtida. In very large doses it is narcotic (stupe-

fying).

Camphor-water is an excellent tranquillizer for restless babies; being also, like the spices, warming to the stomach, and somewhat anodyne, it is excellent in colic. Spirit of Camphor is best when an anodyne effect is specially needed; as in colic of grown people.







CANTHARIS VESICATORIA

Dose of Cumphor-water, from a teaspoonful (an infant dose) to a tablespoonful. Of Spirit of Camphor, from ten to thirty Drops; on sugar, and stirred in water, or in a thick syrup, as Spiced Syrup of Rhubarb. When dropped into water, the Alcohol unites with the water and "throws down" the Camphor in little white flakes.

Paregoric is a Camphorated Tincture of Opium.

Cantharides. Powdered "Spanish Flies." These are insects; really beetles, not flies. They are rather pretty, having shining green backs; and are native to the south of Europe From their powder Blistering Ointment (Cantharidal Cerate) is made. See Blisters.

Carbolic Acid. This (also called *Phenic* and *Phenylic* Acid, and *Phenol*) is a product of coal-tar, as Creasote is of wood-tar. It is not really an acid, chemically, though so called. When pure, and entirely dry, it is in nearly colorless crystals; but it easily absorbs water and becomes liquid (deliquesees) when exposed to the air. Crude, impure Carbolic Acid has a brownish color. Its odor is disagreeable; its taste hot, followed by tingling and perhaps numbness of the tongue. It



burns, like Creasote, when dropped upon the skin; but this is immediately followed by loss of feeling in the part.

Carbolic Acid has no proper place as a domestic medicine. It has had great popularity as a disinfectant; more than it deserves, in comparison with several other less unpleasant things. Surgeons often employ it in "antiseptic" dressings and lotions.

Cardamom Seeds, Compound Tincture of. A warming aromatic preparation, often added to Soda, etc., for sickness of the stomach. Dose, a Teaspoonful. in Water.

Castor-Oil. Expressed from the beans or seeds of the Palma Christi, a handsome plant, originally from Asia. It is musty, decidedly; but is a good, effective, and yet mild purgative medicine. It is the best cathartic, even for babies, when any irritation of the boucels is present; as in threatening of dysentery, and in some cases of colic.

Dose, from a Teaspoonful to a Tablespoonful. The best way to give it is to stir it well with twice the quantity of Spiced Syrup of Rhubarb. So mixed, I have had putients to take it without finding out what it

WAS.

An Extract from the wood of an Oriental tree. It is astringent, and is very useful in diarrhora. Tineture of Catecha is the best preparation. Dose, Half a Teaspoonful to a Teaspoonful, in water. An excellent medicine to check troublesome diarrhea consists of equal parts of Tincture of Catechu and Paregorie; of this mixture, the dose is a Teaspoonful, repeated according to the argency of the case.

Cathartic Pills (Compound). These are made of three strong purgative medicines, with a little Calomel. They are too active to be used for ordinary constipation of the bowels; but are very convenient when

a decided purgation is needed.

Catheter. A tubular instrument for drawing the urine from the bladder, when the patient cannot pass it. The one for the male is long and curved; that for the female, short, and with only a slight bend near the end. It is made either of silver or of prepared gum-clastic; the latter being flexible, the former firm. Both are open at one end, and closed at the other, which is rounded and smooth; but just above the closed end (which is introduced into the bladder) are several holes, to admit the water. Skill and care are needed for the use of the catheter. The difficulty is greatest with the male. Of course the instrument must be well oiled before being introduced.

Caustics. Several of these are used by physicians. We may name here a few of them. Lunar Caustic is Nitrate of Silver. It is less destructive than the Vegetable Caustie (so-called) Potassa. Strong Acids are caustic; as Nitric and Chronic Acids. All of these, when moistened, will burn the skin, or any other portion of the body. Lunar Caustic, if very lightly touched upon a part, will not exactly burn it, but will change the condition of the surface in a way often beneficial, especially in chronic inflammations; also, in destroying the specific character of an inflammation, as of the throat in diphtheria or in scarlet fever.

Warts are often destroyed by the stronger caustics. Care must be used to act only on the wart, and not on the parts around it. If any of the caustic runs over, it should be at once washed away; best, with

an antidote to it in solution. For Potassa, Vinegar is an opposite or antidote; for either of the Acids, Soda.

Cerate. This word means something made with wax. Simple Cerate is made of Spermaceti, White Wax, and Oil of Almonds. It is a very soothing and healing application to sore places of any kind, as after a blister, etc. It is harder than Cold Cream (Ointment of Rose Water), and this is sometimes a decided advantage.

Chalk Mixture. A convenient medicine for common distribus, made of Prepared Chalk, Gum-Arabic, Glycerin, and Cinnamon Water. Dose, a Tablespoonful for a grown person. Most frequently something is added to make it more "binding" or astringent, as Catecha, Paregorie, etc.

Chamomile. This is a plant (Anthemis nobilis), a native of Europe, but naturalized in parts of this country. The flowers are bitter and aromatic. Of these a ten is made with boiling water. It may be taken, half a pint daily, as a simple appetizer and tonic in weak digestion or general want of strength. It is not, however, one of the strongest tonics.

Charcoal. Powdered charcoal is a good "sweetener" of a stomach oppressed with flatulence from indigestion. Dose, half a teaspoonful to a teaspoonful. It is often given with an equal quantity of Magnesia.

Very finely powdered charcoal is also a useful ingredient in toothpowders; on account of its clemsing action.

Chloral (Chloral Hydrate). One of the medicines that promote sleep. It is less powerful than Opinm, although a very large amount of it taken will poison fatally. It gets its name from its being made from Chlorine and Alcohol. It is a white crystalline substance, of a pungent taste and odor.

Dose, from ten to thirty Grains for an adult; for a child, one Grain for each year of its age. It should be taken or given only as prescribed by a physician; and when so advised, left off as soon as his judgment will allow. The same sort of danger attends its use as does that of Opium, of forming a Chloral habit, depending upon it for sleep, and requiring larger and larger closes, with at last great injury to the health.

Chloramine pastilles. Contain Chloride of Ammonium, &c. Useful in loosening cough.

Chlorate of Potassium (Chlorate of Potash, commonly called). A favorite medicine with physicians and others, for sore mow'h and sore throat. It often does more good to sore mouths, in babies especially, than anything else. But it must not be swallowed without limitation. While safe in doses of a few grains, half-ounce doses of it are dangerous; sometimes even producing death.

Dose, for a grown person, from ten to twenty Grains; for a child, three

or four years old, five Grains; dissolved in water. Its solution also

makes a very good gargle for sore throat.

Chloride of Ammonium (Muriate of Ammonia, old name); sometimes also called Sal Ammoniac. A medicine of value in a variety of cases; in chronic bronchial cough; in torpor of the liver; and in some cases of neuralgia. Not well adapted, however, for use without some medical knowledge and experience. Dose, ten to twenty grains.

Chloride of Lime. Chlorinated Lime is a more correct name for this white powdery substance. It is used as a disinfectant, chiefly on account of the free chlorine gas which it contains when fresh, and gives off slowly into the air. While it does, no doubt, something towards destroying foulness in the air of a place, when laid about in saucers, etc., this must not be considered as amounting to very much. It requires a great deal of Chlorine to really disinfect a room or building in which there has been contagious disease, or accumulated foulness. Chlorinated Lime dissolved in water is an excellent disinfectant of privies, etc. An objection to its being so used in water-closets and bathpipes is, that the Chlorine it contains corrodes lead and iron.

Chloroform. The most prompt and powerful, but also least safe, of the articles used by surgeons as anæsthetics; that is, for patients to breathe before and during operations, in order to prevent them from suffering pain. It may be taken into the stomach in larger quantity than by the lungs, without danger. In flatulent colic, it is often very relieving; but no more so than Camphor and Cuajuput, as well as Opium. Dose, by the mouth, ten to forty or fifty Drops; in a large draught of water, as it is very pungent. A teaspoonful holds more

than 200 drops of Chloroform.

I have given it to a number of patients in teaspoonful doses, without any bad effect; only sleepiness, like that produced by opiates. A Chloroform Liniment may be safely used as an outward application for rheu-

matic or neuralgie pains.

Cinchonia. One of the alkaloids of Peruvian Bark. See Quinine. Chlorohydric Acid. The name preferred by chemists for what was formerly called Muriatic Acid. It is not often given as a medicine; but is present in Nitro-Chlorohydric or Nitro-Muriatic Acid, a good appetizer and liver-tonic.

Cinnamon Water. Made from the aromatic bark of the Cinnamontree of the East. It is a pleasant spicy solution, slightly astringent; good with other things in mixtures for diarrhea. Dose, for a child, a

Teaspoonful.

Citrate of Magnesium. Commonly taken in effervescent solution. It is about the least disagreeable of all purgative medicines. Apoth-

ecaries mostly keep it already dissolved, in tightly corked and wired bottles. More convenient for keeping in a family is the solid Granular Citrate of Magnesium; which is to be dissolved when taken. Dose, of the bottled solution, a Wineglassful (more, or less, according to the amount of purging needed). Of the Granular Citrate, from a Teaspoonful to a Tablespoouful. In the latter dose, it is quite an active cathartic; although not so rapid in its operation as some other medicines; and all persons are not alike susceptible to its action.

Citrate of Potassium. Like the Citrate just mentioned, this has for one ingredient Citric Acid, obtained from Lemon or Lime Juice. This is uentralized by Potassium (an alkaline metal) as it may be also by

Magnesium; in each case making what chemists call a salt.

Citrate of Potassium aets very slightly, if at all, on the bowels. It is used in solution to cool the system and promote secretion from the skin and kidneys in fever. One way of taking it is in Neutral Mixture (one Drachm of this citrate in four Fluidonnees of water); of which the dose is a Tablespoonful every two or three hours. Another way is in effervescent solution. (See Effervescing Draught.)

Cloves, Oil of. A strong, warming aromatic, from the flower-buds of the Caryophyllus Aromaticus of the East Indies. A hot tea is

sometimes made of Cloves, to be given in eholera-morbus.

If the Oil should be taken, for colie, its dose would be not more than a drop or two, on a lump of sugar, followed by a drink of cold water. The tea may be made by pouring a Teacupful of boiling water on Half a Teaspoonful of Cloves, covering and leaving it to stand for a few minutes. Dose, a Dessertspoonful (two teaspoonfuls, or Half a Tablespoonful).

Oil of Cloves is a good remedy for toothache in a hollow tooth. Wet a pledget of cotton well with it, and push it into the cavity of the tooth

with the end of a bodkin or knitting-needle.

Cocoa Butter. Cacao is the botanical name of the tree (Theobroma Cacao) from which this comes; out of the same nuts or seeds of which Cocoa and Chocolate are made. Cocoa Butter is a good soothing application for bruises of any part of the body. It is well always to have it in the house.

Cod-Liver Oil. Obtained, as its name indicates, from the livers of codfish. It is very nourishing and fattening to wasted and wasting bodies, sometimes checking the progress even of pulmonary consumption. Its taste is quite disagreeable. Dose, from a Teaspoonful to a Tablespoonful (the latter best) thrice daily, for a grown person. Many ways have been tried to make it less unpleasant to take; following it with strong Mint-Drops, mixing it in Coffee, rinsing the mouth first with Brandy or Whisky, pouring it into the froth of Ale, etc. I doubt

whether any way (unless it is put up in gelatin capsules, as some apothecaries do it) is better than to salt and pepper it, as if it was (!) a fishy delicacy, and then bolt it down; afterwards rinsing the mouth with Tincture of Myrrh and Water. Children generally do not mind taking it, unless their fears have been aroused by talking about it.

Colchicum. A bulbous (cormous) plant, whose root and seeds are both used medicinally. The Wine of the Root is the best preparation.





COLCHICUM.

In large dose it acts on the bowels; sometimes irritating the stomach also. It is a diuretic, and influences the nervous system in a way not very well defined. It was formerly the favorite medicine in gout; and probably does as much as any medicine towards curing or mitigating gouty attacks. Dose of the Wine of the Root of Colchicum, ten to thirty Drops, in water.

Cold Cream. This is the Unguentum Aquæ Rosæ (Ointment of Rose-water) of the apothecaries. It is a soft, easily melted, and very soothing application for sore places, chapped hands or lips, etc. It becomes rancid when long kept exposed to the air.

Collodion. This is a solution of Gun-Cotton (Pyroxylon or Colloxylon) in Ether. When it is painted upon any

surface the Ether evaporates, leaving a thin cottony film. Flexible Collodion, made a little differently, is less apt to shrink together in drying. It is a convenient article to cover a part whose skin is broken or ulcerated, as sore nipples, cracked lips, etc.

Cantharidal Collodion has been mentioned already, as a blistering

liquid.

Columbo (Calumba, root of an African plant) is one of the simple vegetable bitters. Like the rest of its class, it is a tonic to the stomach. It is given sometimes for dyspepsia.

Convallaria. See Lily of the Valley.

Corrosive Sublimate. Bichloride of Mercury this is, or Mercuric Chloride. Calomel is the Mild Chloride, or Mercurous Chloride of Mercury. The Sublimate is a deadly poison, used often to kill bugs, etc. Physicians sometimes prescribe it in very small doses (one-twelfth to one-eighth of a grain) internally, and of late a Solution of it (one part

to 1000 or 2000 of Water) is a good deal employed externally as a purifier and to destroy supposed disease-germs. It is certainly one of the most powerful disinfectants.

Coxe's Hive Syrup. A medicine not suitable for family use, though once so employed, because it contains Tartar Emclic, a violentlyacting medicine, not safe except in skilful hands. "Hives" is an old name for croup. No doubt this Syrup may relieve cases of croup, but the same kind of effect may be usually obtained with Ipecacuanha, which is milder and quite safe. An overdose of Tartar Emetie (Tartrate of Antimony and Potassium) may kill an infant; not so with Ipecac.; it is just vomited and purged away without damage.

Cream of Tartar (Bitartrate of Potassium). This is a cooling, mild purgative salt, which also increases the flow of nrine (diuretic). It is very often given in dropsy. Dose, one or two Teaspoonfuls, stirred in water. Very little of it will dissolve.

Creasote. A product of Tar. A hot-tasting, sor'v-smelling liquid; poisonous if swallowed in moderately large quantity; burning the mouth or skin which it touches. Physicians advise it in one-drop doses for sick stomach, ulcer of the stomach, etc.

In domestic practice it should be on hand as the most effective remedy for toothache in a hollow tooth. The end of a bodkin or knitting-needle should be wrapped around with a little piece of cotton, and this be dipped into Creasote. Then, carefully, the cotton should be pressed into the hollow of the aching tooth. (It won't hurt, as it at ouce kills the sensibility of the exposed nerve-end in the tooth.) If any spills over and burns the gums or lips, rinse at once with cold water. Creasote, so used, does no harm to the teeth.

Croton Oil. Taken from the seeds of an East Indian plant, this is one of the most violent of purgative medicines; a single drop will act like a large dose of salts. It is only used by physicians in rare cases, when other cathartics fail to act, or where it is impossible to get the patient to swallow anything in larger quantity.

On the skin, Croton Oil, when rubbed in (a drop or two only), will cause a sore pimply or pustular cruption. It is thus used sometimes as a powerful counter-irritant in ehronie spinal troubles, chrouie bronchitis, etc. It is very important not to get any of it rubbed into one's

Cupping. See Bleeding; and also, Taking Blood, page 535.

Digitalis. Foxglore is the common name of the pretty plant whose leaves furnish this medicine. The Tincture is most used. Physicians give it often when the action of the heart is too rapid, and perhaps irregular. It has also been given in large doses in delirium tremens. Its common dose is ten Drops, twice or thrice a day. Being diuretic, it is sometimes prescribed in dropsy. Its very powerful active principle is Digitalin. Of this, if taken as a medicine, the dose is one-fiftieth of a Grain.



DIGITALIS PURPUREA.

Dover's Powder. Made of Ipecacuanha, Opium, and a cooling salt (Sulphate of Potassium, or some similar compound), this medicine is composing and diaphoretic. Some persons find it agree with them at the beginning of a severe cold, taking it just before going to bed, after a warm mustard foot-bath. Dose, ten Grains; containing one Grain of Opium and one Grain of Ipecacuanha. As this is a full regular dose of Opium, it needs to be slept, as well as sweated, off. Better not take Dover's Powder without the advice of a physician; at least the first time.

Effervescing Draught. This is a cooling medicine for fever; the Carbonie Acid gas in it also makes it acceptable to the stomach. It is composed on the following recipe:

Dissolve two Drachus and a half of Bicarbonate of Potassium in four Fluidounces of Water. To make a draught, pour out a Tablespoonful of this solution, and add to it a Tablespoonful of Water. Then pour into these a Tablespoonful of fresh Lemon-juice. It will effervesce, and should be drunk at once. If Lemon-juice cannot be had, an apothecary may furnish instead a solution containing two Drachms of Citric Acid in four Fluidounces of Water. A tablespoonful of this, with one of water, may take the place of Lemon-juice.

Elaterium. A substance from the juice of the Squirting Cucumber, so called from the way in which the pod of the plant throws out its seeds when ripe. It resembles Croton Oil in being a harsh and powerful purgative, causing copious watery passages. It is seldom used by physicians except in certain cases of dropsy.

Electricity. Physicians often advise (or themselves personally apply) different forms of electricity for the treatment especially of paralysis; also, for neuralgia, chronic rheumatism, old sprains, suppressed menstruation, lead colic, and many other affections. Powerfu' currents or shocks are frequently used to revive persons almost dead from drowning, suffocation, or narcotic poisoning.

Referring to medical works * for a more extended account, the general principles only can be here considered. Three kinds of electricity are used: frictional, of the machine of glass with a rubber; voltaic (galvanie), the current obtained from a "battery," composed of metals with acid solutions, etc.; and faradization, by "induced" and inter-

rupted currents, electro-magnetie or magneto-electric.

The constant current produced by chemical action, in a battery or by the simpler arrangement of a "pile," of pieces of metal with a material between them moistened with acid, is the more penetrating of these methods; in chronic cases needing perseverance in alterative treatment. The interrupted current is most used to stimulate weak muscles and nerves, as in paralysis. It is the general opinion of physicians, that electricity is not likely to do good at an early stage of palsy, or while there is anything at all inflammatory about the attack which

For domestie use, when recommended by a physician, the most convenient apparatus is the magneto-electric arrangement. In this, as com-

^{*}See "Essentials of Practical Medicine," fifth edition, p. 171, for a brief summary on this subject.

monly made, the interrupted current is generated by a "keeper" (a small piece of iron) revolving, when a handle is turned, so as alternately to approach and recede from a magnet. A very strong and rapidly successive series of shocks may thus be produced, controlled, however, by the sliding in or out, at will, of a rod provided for the purpose. In order to take effect upon any part, a "circuit" must be made, by each "pole" of the apparatus being brought in contact with the body (that is, both at once). For this handles are arranged, usually with soft sponges at the ends, to be moistened when applied.

Too strong currents or shocks of electricity may do considerable harm. The application should never be allowed to be painful or distressing, or be continued so long as to produce positive fatigue or ex-

haustion.

Various patent contrivances are sold to maintain constant currents of electricity when they are worn about the person. While it is not impossible for an appreciable current thus to be kept up for some time, it is seldom the case that such instruments act otherwise than through the imagination. That faculty, however, is very powerful in its influence upon the bodily conditions of many people. Perhaps it ought even to have a section among remedies by itself.

Elixir of Vitriol. Aromatic Sulphuric Acid is another name for this, which is often prescribed as an appetizer; sometimes also for diarrhoea, and occasionally for hemorrhages. Dose, ten to fifteen drops, in water; best taken through a glass tube, to prevent its touching the teeth; also, for the same reason, washing the mouth out well with water after it.

Elixir Proprietatis (Elixir Pro). This is an old name for Tincture of Aloes and Myrrh; which has a popular reputation as a medicine to bring on the monthly courses when delayed or suppressed. Dose, a teaspoonful, in water, twice daily.

Emetics. Articles which cause vomiting. The most important occasion for their use is when poison is known to have been swallowed. Then the quicker and the more thoroughly the stomach is emptied, the better.

Handy emetics in every house are Mustard, a teaspoonful, or Salt, a tablespoonful, in a teacupful of warm, not hot, Water. Let it all be swallowed at once; and follow it in ten minutes with another teacupful of Warm Water, if it has not in that time taken effect.

Among emetic medicines, Ipecacuanha is the mildest and safest, and it is usually active enough. In bad cases of croup, with formation of membrane in the throat, Alum may be added to it. Of powdered Ipecae, a teaspoonful will usually produce vomiting; of the Syrup, a teaspoonful, perhaps needing to be repeated; of the Fluid Extract, half a teaspoonful.

Tartar Emetic (Tartrate of Antimony and Potassium) has already been spoken of as too severe and prostrating an emetic for use, at least as a domestic medicine. There are other mineral emetics (Sulphate of Zinc, Sulphate of Copper, etc.) which ought never to be used except under medical advice.

Epsom Salts. Sulphate of Magnesium. A very unpleasant medicine to the taste; an active, cooling cathartic. It is (its nastiness apart) useful as a purgative in some inflammatory affections of strong people; for delicate patients, milder medicines are better. Dose, from a Teaspoonful to a Tablespoonful, dissolved in Water.

Ergot: Spurred Rye. A growth on grains of diseased rye plants. When taken into the stomach, it has a tendency to promote contraction of the womb and of the blood-vessels. On account of the first of these effects, it is given after child-birth, to aid in the expulsion of the placenta (after-birth), and to check hemorrhage. Its causing contraction of the blood-vessels is a reason for its being prescribed for various hemorrhages, and also in chronic inflammations; especially of the spinal marrow. The Wine of Ergot is the preparation most employed. Dose, of it or of the Fluid Extract, from Half a Teaspoonful to two Teaspoonfuls, in Water.

Ether. A very volatile and inflammable liquid, colorless, and with a warm, strong taste. It is a quick stimulant when swallowed, or when injected under the skin by means of a hypodermie syringe. Its most important use is as an anæsthetic, breathed before surgical operations, to render them painless. It is, for this, much safer than Chloroform. The usual way of administering it is to fold a towel into the shape of a hollow cone (a chimney-sweep's hat, or sugar-loaf), in the bottom of which is placed a sponge, on which Ether is poured. This is then held over the patient's mouth and nose, for him to breathe, until he "goes to sleep," breathing hard, and dropping his hands, when they are held up, in unconsciousness. Then the Ether is removed. If an operation takes a great while, it may be necessary for the ether to be breathed again, to keep up the insensibility throughout. The pulse must be felt, however, constantly, besides watching the breathing; so that fatal narcotism shall not be brought on. With Ether, this will not happen, if due care be taken; with Chloroform, it is not certain always to be avoided, even

Eucalyptus. From the leaves of this Australian tree a tincture is made, as well as a solid extract, and the essential oil, eucalyptol. Lozenges of this drug are serviceable as a warming expectorant, in bronchial catarrh. Eucalyptus is also useful in chronic irritability of the bladder. Dose of the tincture, a teaspoonful; extract, one to ten grains; of eucalyptol, ten to twenty drops, in capsules or a mixture.

Fennel-Seed. A very mild aromatic; sometimes made into a tea for babies' colie; more often added to Senna Tea, or Fluid Extract of Senna, to keep that purgative medicine from griping the bowels.

Flaxseed. This makes a good soothing drink, Flaxseed Tea, for sore throat. Pour Half a Pint of boiling Water upon a Tablespoonful of whole Flaxseed, and stir it up for a few minutes. Then let it stand covered for a few minutes more; but do not put it on the fire to boil, as that would bring out the oil (Linseed Oil), which is not good to drink. What is wanted in the tea is only the mucilage of the seeds. Lemonjuice and sngar added will make Flaxseed Tea more agreeable.

Flaxseed Meal makes a good warm and soft poultice. Mix a sufficient portion of the meal with hot water, into a mushy mass. Spread this with a tablespoon on a piece of thin flannel or old muslin; then double in half an inch of the edge all around, to keep the poultice from oozing out. The best way to have a poultice warm when put on, is to spread it on a hot plate, close by the person to whom it is to be applied. When it is on, cover it at once with a piece of Oiled Silk, Oiled Paper, or thin Rubber Cloth, to keep the moisture in. Without this it will dry up very soon.

A very little Sweet Oil or fresh Lard put over the surface of a poultice before applying it will make it more soothing and more easily removed. For the latter purpose a piece of tarletan or gauze may be laid over it before it is applied. When pain in the part is severe, a Teaspoonful or

two of Laudanum may be poured over the poultice before putting it on.

Fly-Blister. A plaster of the ointment of Spanish Flies (Cantha-

rides), applied to draw a blister upon some part of the surface of the body. Such a remedy is only required for a rather severe case of internal inflammation, or for that of an eye or an ear; in either instance, not during the first day or two of the attack. In serious inflammation of the brain, a blister to the back of the neck, or even over a large part of

the shaven scalp, is sometimes one of the best of remedies.

A blister is usually made by spreading a piece of buckskin, three or four inches square, with Cantharides ointment, covering this with a piece of thin gauze, and laying it upon the part. After from two to five or six hours (according to age and delicacy of the skin) the skin will feel very sore, and on taking the plaster off, the outer skin will be found to be raised in a blister. This may be tapped with the points of a pair of scissors, and the part may then be covered with a rag spread thickly with Simple Cerate. It will heal in a few days.

For inflamed eyes, the back of the neck is the best place for a blister; for severe inflammation of an ear, just behind that ear; the plaster

being cut to fit there,

Gentian. Poets as well as botanists are familiar with this European flowering plant, whose root is used in medicine. Its Extract is made into tonic pills (Compound Gentian Pills) for indigestion, and its Compound Tincture is one of the best tonic preparations given for weakness of the stomach. Gentian is a pure and simple bitter stomachic tonic. Dose of the Compound Tineture, a Teaspoonful, in a little Water. As an appetizer it is best taken just before each meal. If given on account of slowness and discomfort in digesting food, shortly after the meal will be the best time for it. (See page 544.)

Geranium. Our native plant of that name, Geranium maculatum of the botanists, a common herb of American woods, has a root which





is astringent. A tea may be made by boiling an Ounce (about two Tablespoonfuls) in a pint and a Half of Water down to a Pint. Of this the dose is from a Tablespoonful to a Wineglassful, given as a country remedy for diarrhaa.

Ginger. A fine spice for culinary as well as medicinal use. Like the other aromatics, it is a product of tropical lands; a native of Asia, but now much cultivated in the West Indies. Jamaica Ginger is the most used with us. It is the root of a many-stemmed plant, three or

Essence of Ginger is a very good medicine to have in the house. It is a warming stimulant to the stomach, and aids greatly in relief of ordinary flatulent colic. Dose of a strong preparation of it (as Brown's

Essence of Jamaica Ginger), ten to thirty Drops, in Water. It may also be applied outside, over the stomach and bowels; wetting a piece of thin flannel well with it, laying it on, and covering it with Oiled Silk

to prevent too quick evaporation.

Ginger Tea is an old favorite stomach-warmer. A Tablespoonful or two of the bruised root may have a Pint of boiling Water poured on it, then leaving it to stand covered for an hour or so. We don't boil. aromatic teas or other preparations, because that would drive off their volatile Oils, which are their active principles. Of Ginger Tea, the dose is one or two Tablespoonfuls at a time.

Glycerin. A sweet, transparent liquid, obtained from fatty zulstances. Only pure Glycerin (Bower's or Pr' e's) should be used. Its principal employment is as an external application; to chapped hands, sore lips, etc. To a very delicate skin it is, when pure, somewhat irritating. Adding the same amount of Rose-Water makes a very nice preparation. Glycerin and Borax mixed make a good paste to put upon sores in the mouth.

In Teaspoonful doses, Glycerin is gently laxative to the bowels.

It is given sometimes for this purpose to children.

Glycerin is antiseptic; that is, it tends to keep dead animal matter (meats, etc.) from putrefaction; and to ward off the effects of decaypoison upon or within surfaces of the body. It is therefore a good

ingredient in washes for the parts involved after child-birth.

Glycerin with Tannin makes a very good astringent lotion for frosted feet, also for enlarged tonsils, sore nipples, running from the ears, and fissure of the anus (of which an account will be hereafter giv. For the Glycerole of Tannin, rub together one ounce of Tannin, l'annic Acid) and four fluidounces of Glycerin, in a mortar; heat t'as mixture gently (best in a porcelain dish) until a perfect solution is made.

Gum-Arabic. A soothing (not nourishing) material for a drink, in cases of irritation of the throat, or cough. It is simply dissolved in water, a Tablespoonful to a Half Pint. Some persons like to chew and dissolve the gum in the mouth for the same purpose, instead of Licorice

or Candy.

[Compound Gentian Pills, mentioned on page 573, have in each pill one Grain : Extract of Gentian, one Grain of Rhubarb, one quarter of a Grain of Blue Mass, and a quarter of a Drop of Oil of Cloves.

Hamamells Virginiana is the Witch Hazel; principal ingredient in Pond's Extract. Tincture of Hamamelis is much used by some physicians in England for spitting blood; if the blood comes from the stonuch, one drop of the Tincture, in water, every ten or fifteen minutes at first; after a few doses, at longer intervals until relief is afforded. If it be hemorrhage from the lungs, the dose of the same Tineture may be one drop every hour or two. Larger doses will cause throbbing headache with some persons. It is also given for bleeding from the bowels or from piles.

Hoffmann's Anodyne. A strong warning stimulant to the nervous system, with some anodyne or pain-relieving power. It is useful in attacks of gout in the stomach or heart, pulpitation from or with weakness, angina pectoris (which see, hereafter), asthma, etc. Dose, a Teaspoonful, in water.

Hops. Familiar to many people as present in some kinds of beer; the product of the Hop vine, cultivated in many places.

A Hop-pillow is sometimes used for sleeplessness. To prepare it, fill a small pillow-case with Hops, which have been sprinkled with alcohol to bring out the active principle.

Tincture of Hops, dose a Teaspoonful, is a mild hypnotic or sleepproducer. Tincture of Lupulin (the active principle of Hops) has more power of the same kind; but both are far weaker in this action than Opium or Chloral and their preparations.

Hot Water. Once in a while something becomes, in popular medicine, and even with physicians, "the rage." A few years ago, it was Blue Glass; a craze which added many tons to the importation of that transparent medium of delusion into this country. Now (1885) it is, with a large number of people, Hot Water. What is called the "Salisbury treatment" of chronic disorders (which ones? well, any that occur in imaginative patients; or, seriously taken, in low and sluggish states of the system), is about as follows: Three times a day, an hour before each meal, you must swallow a gobletful and a half of water at from 110° to 120° Fahr.; sipping it, if you wish, from a teaspoon, so as to occupy ten or fifteen minutes in swallowing it. This is to be kept up, in order for full effect, for six months. Its advocates claim that by this treatment obstinate cases of nervous affections, etc., have been cured. which had resisted all other management. When a case of chronic disease does resist all ordinary management, it will be safe and reasonable to try this practice for it. No more need be said on this subject here, except the remark that Hot Water, as a means of conveying heat to the interior of the body, is a stimulant to the stomach, to the great nerve centres back of the stomach, and to the general blood-circulation.

Like rubbing, mustard-plasters, or other stimulants applied to the outside of the body, such internal excitation may make a powerful and often serviceable alterative impression.

Hot Water is now much used by surgeons and obstetricians for the arrest of bleeding, from injured surfaces, from the womb after labor, etc. For this purpose, it should have a temperature of about 120° Fahr.

Hunyadi Janos Water. A laxative (mildly purgative) mineral

water, sold in bottles. . Dose, a Wineglassful.

Huxham's Tincture of Peruvian Bark. A good tonic in feeble conditions of the body, as in slow convalescence from an illness, running down with work in summer time, etc. Dose, s caspoonful, three times

a day, in Water; best, a short time before each meal.

Hydrochlorate of Cocains. A preparation of the active principle of the leaves of the South American Erythroxylon Coca. It has been found, when applied (a few drops of a four per cent. Solution in water) to the eyeball, throat, etc., to render the part insensible to pain; so as to greatly facilitate some surgical operations. Its uses as an internal medicine are just beginning to be investigated. Dose, five to ten Drops of a four per cent. Solution.

Hyoscyamus. From the leaves of this plant (Henbane) are made

u solid Extract, a Fluid Extract, and a Tincture.

Hyosoyamus is an anodyne; a good deal like Opium in its effects on the system, but weaker; and, instead of constipating, tending to act

gently on the bowels..

Of the Extract (solid), the dose is two or three Grains. Of the Fluid Extract, from two to ten or fifteen Drops. This last is a very good quieting medicine for the violent coughing spells of severe whooping-

cough.

Hypophosphites. Compounds containing phosphorus, in a peculiar state of combination with other medicinal substances. Much used as an effective tonic, in low states of the system, is the preparation called Fellows' Hypophosphites. Dose, a Tenspoonful, in water, after each meal.

Ingluvin. An extractive obtained from the gizzard of the common fowl, and, like pepsin, used as a tonic to the digestive organs. Some physicians report it to be very effectual in relieving vomiting; especially the "morning sickness" of pregnancy. Dose, from three to ten grains. Inhalation. This is breathing in vapor of some kind; which is

Fig. 188.



considerably employed in the treatment of diseases, especially of the throat and lungs; as well as (by the use of ether, chloroform, and nitrous oxide), to prevent pain during surgical or dental operations.

Smoking is a simple method of inhalation, acting most powerfully

when long pipes (narghileli, chibouk) are used, requiring chest-breathing to draw the smoke through the pipe. Chinese opium-smokers, however, actually inhale the vapor of the narcotic into their lungs.

Pure steam is soothing to an irritated throat. It may be inhaled by placing a towel, or a paper funnel, over a kettle which is kept boiling,

and breathing the vapor which emerges

from the spout.



CROUP-KETTLE.

A simple inhaler may be made of a wide-mouthed bottle or jar, through whose cork two glass tubes are passed, one straight, the other bent in the mid-The liquid to be inhaled from should not more than half fill the bottle. The straight tube should reach down a little below the surface of the liquid; the end of the bent one should stop an inch or so above it. Thus, when the patient draws a breath from the latter, the air which he receives has to pass through the medicated liquid. creasote, indine, hops, laudanum, etc., may be thus inhaled. A volatile material, like ammonia or nitrite of amyl, may be inhaled directly from a bottle, small or large. The former of these is

a potent stimulant in cases of fainting; the latter (nitrite of amyl), often

gives relief in attacks of angina pectoris.

Instead of vapor, fine powders are sometimes blown into the throat. For sore-throat in children, alum powder may be thus blown in with a glass tube or a long quill; or with one of the powder-squirts sold by apothecaries for blowing borax, etc., into cracks to destroy insects.

Atomization is the introduction of a very fine spray of liquid into the throat and air passages. Such a spray is made by the odorators which are used to spread cologne or other perfumes in the air. Instruments are made for atomizing in cases of irritated throat, with which solutions of ipecac., chloride of ammonium, etc., can be applied.

A cigarette for medicinal inhalation may be made by the use of a glass tube, six or eight inches long. Near one end of the tube put in a piece of fine soft sponge. Drop into the tube, from the other end, the material to be inhaled; tar, creasote, tincture of iodine, gum camphor, etc. Then insert a second piece of sponge near the upper end of the tube; through this the patient is to breathe for the inhalation. Cotton or tissue-paper will do instead of sponge for the purpose.

Injections (enema, enemata). These are used for various purposes. Most commonly, into the bowels, to empty the lower bowel, when this is considered more prompt and convenient than medicine by the mouth. The old-fashioned way was with a large syringe, holding about a pint. Now, gum-elastic ball-and-tube arrangements are employed, which one can use himself. Only common sense is necessary for the introduction of the oiled end of the tube of either kind; and gradual moderate force to cause the material to enter. It should then be kept by the patient for five or ten minutes, for an effectual operation. Smaller syringes, of course, half or quarter pints, are suitable for children. For a child, warm Water alone will sometimes suffice. A common mixture for opening injections is made by mixing well together a Pint (nearly) of



ENEMA SYRINGE.

Soapsuds (Castile-soap, at least for delicate persons), a Tablespoonful of Salt, a Tablespoonful of Molasses, and a Tablespoonful of Oil, either Sweet or Castor-Oil, according to the case.

Injections are used sometimes to relieve severe pain, or to check obstinate diarrhea. Of the former, the most extreme kind of colic, passing a gravel-stone from the kidney to the bladder, or of a gall-stone through the gall-duct, or strangury, or threatened abortion (miscarriage during pregnancy) are examples. In dysentery, as well as in diarrhea, such injections may be called for; Laudanum being most frequently (in all the above-mentioned cases) so employed.

For a grown person, the smallest amount likely to do good in such a way is thirty or forty Drops of Laudanum. It is best to mix it, for injection, with a small amount of Starch (prepared as for the laundry,

only thin enough to pass through a syringe), and then to use a small syringe—holding from Half an Ounce to two Onnees only. The object here is to have the material injected to remain in the bowel, as long as it will; so that the anodyne (Laudauum) may have time to take effect. Sometimes great suffering will justify sixty-drop injections of Laudanum, or even more; but such had better be used only under the advice of a physician. Other medicines also are occasionally presented for administration in the same way. Now and then four-Ounce enemata of Flaxseed-tea are employed in dysentery.

Nourishing enemata are often resorted to, when, for various reasons, food cannot be taken by the mouth. Half or a quarter of a pint will be enough at a time for this purpose; as it is important for it to remain and be absorbed. Beef-tea, Milk, or raw Eggs beaten up with Milk, will be the best materials. Sometimes pure fresh beef's blood is so used. An example of a nourishing injection may be the following:

To five ounces of finely scraped meat, and five and a half ounces of finely chopped sweethread freed from fat, add three or four fluidounces of lukewarm water. Stir together into a pulp. It will be well to wash out the lower bowel with an injection of warm water, about an hour before introducing a nourishing enema.

Injections into the nostrils, vagina, and urethra, as well as the use of a syringe for the ear, had better be left, with rare exceptions, to be advised professionally, and carried out under careful direction. The same may be said of Hypodermic injections (into or under the skin).

It may be just mentioned, in view of a possible emergency in the absence of a physician, that the instrument used for Hypodermic injection is a small glass syringe made for the purpose, ending in a tube of steel or silver to puncture the skin and introduce the liquid. Having drawn into the syringe the amount to be used, the skin of the part selected (an arm, the back, abdomen, a thigh, or the calf of one of the legs) is drawn up with the forefinger and thumb of the left hand. With the right hand, the point of the tube (after being oiled) is pushed almost horizontally through the skin, and then the fluid is rather slowly pressed out of the syringe. The latter is to be withdrawn without twisting it; all must be done so as to cause as little irritation as possible. From onethird to one-half of the dose by the mouth is the quantity of any drug employed in this way. Arolyne and stimulant medicines are, more than any others, used hypodermically. Sometimes the habit of taking hypodermic injections of morphia is acquired, and is as hard to break as smoking opium or laudanum drinking.

Iodine. Lugol's Iodine Solution, the Tincture of Iodine, and Iodide of Potassium all have medical uses; but not as a rule, in domestic

practice. We may except, perhaps, the outward application of Tincture of Iodine, which may be painted upon the chest (with a large camel'shair pencil) for a continued cough (chronic bronchitis), or may be used as a counter-irritant in several other kinds of cases.

Physicians prescribe Iodine in Lugol's Solution as an alterative in scrofula and in goitre (which see hereafter). Dose, ten Drops, twice or thrice daily, in water. Iodide of Potassium is a very important medicine in a number of diseases; most particularly and certainly useful in constitutional syphilis, and especially of all in syphilitic rheumatism; also, in aneurism of the aorta. Dose, from five to twenty grains, dissolved in water, thrice daily.

Iodoform. A powerful drug, kept in the apothecary shops in the form of a powder. Sometimes prescribed as an internal medicine in scrofula, ulcer of the stomach, etc., in one-grain doses; but it is much more often used as an outward application. It is very healing to foul ulcers, wounds not doing well, syphilitic sorcs, etc.; being antiseptic; that is, corrective and preventive of decay and putrefaction. While, however, a little of the powder of Iodoform may be safely sprinkled now and then over a foul sore, to promote its cleansing and healing, it is not safe to use it without limit; as a large amount of it absorbed may be even poisonous. A bottle or box of it ought, when kept, to be

Ipecacuanha. This has been already several times mentioned. It is an active but mild emetic in large dose. In smaller quantities, it is an excellent loosener of cough (expectorant), and also a promoter of perspiration (diaphoretic). It is one of the best of remedies in dysentery, in a way not exactly explained. Used in Powder (chiefly as an emetic, except when made into pills), Syrup, and Wine. The Syrup of Ipecac. ought to be in every family medicine chest. It is the best first medicine in croup and in bronchitis (a heavy cold on the chest, with cough at first dry, and needing to be loosened). Also, it will answer as an emetic. Dose, to cause vomiting, a Teaspoonful, repeated in ten or fifteen minutes if it does not take effect. As a cough-loosener (expectorant), five to ten Drops for an infant, a Quarter to a Half Teaspoonful for a grown person. While moving about, a Quarter Teaspoonful will usually be enough; Haif a Teaspoonful will not often sicken the stomach if taken lying down, or just before going to bed. The Wine of Ipecae. is very similar in effect to the Syrup, but is rather stronger; and the form of Syrup has some advantage for use as an

Iron. There is iron in the blood of every man, woman, and child. Whether we ever have too much of it is not certain; but, without doubt,

many thin, pale, and weak people have too little of it. Then, to add some of it to our diet is really to improve our food. Iron is a medicinal food. Its common designation in the books is "mineral The condition of poverty of blood is called, medically, "anæmia."

Several preparations of Iron are used. Only a few chief ones need to be here mentioned. The strongest, and also the most convenient to . keep and use, is the Tincture of the Chloride of Iron. Dose, ten to thirty Drops, in Water. The only objection to it is that it has a disposition to stain the teeth brown or yellow. This may be prevented by taking it through a tube, of glass, or of two quills put together. All druggists keep glass tubes for such purposes. The Tincture of Chloride of Iron is somewhat astringent; and therefore is useful in hemorrhages.

Syrup of Iodide of Iron unites the properties and influences of Iron and Iodine. It is, therefore, an alterative tonic, good in many cases of scrofula and in some other chronic complaints. An alterative medicine is one which tends to change the condition of an organ, or of the whole constitution; setting up its own innocent and transitory action instead of the disturbing and life-shortening action of the disease. Dose of the Syrup of Iodide of Iron, ten to thirty Drops, in Water, two or

three times daily.

Pill of Carbonate of Iron (Vallet's Mass) is a very good form to make up with Quinine in treating obstinate cases of chills (intermittent fever). Three Grains of the Pill of the Carbonate of Iron with one Grain of Quinine, three times a day, taken for a month, after "breaking" the chills, will cure ninety-nine cases in a hundred of that troublesome

affection.

Other "chalybeates," as preparations of Iron used to be called (Iron springs are still called chalybeate waters), are: Citrate of iron, a pretty red salt, not unpleasant to the taste, dose, five to ten grains; Phosphate, a green solid, dose five to ten grains; Solution (Liquor) of the Nitrate of Iron, the most astringent of these preparations, and beneficial in chronic diarrhea; dose, ten Drops, in water, thrice daily; Solution (Liquor) of Subsulphate of Iron, generally called Monsel's Solution; a good strong astringent for outward application, to aid in stopping bleeding from any part. For the rest of the compounds of Iron (Ferrum) the reader may be best referred to works on Materia Medica ("U. S. Dispensatory," "National Dispensatory," etc.).

Jalap. The tuberous root of a vine, native of Mexico and cultivated in India. It belongs to the same family with the Morning Glory. It is a very active purgative; too much so for common use, but sometimes valuable in particular cases. In dropsy it is occasionally prescribed, along with Cream of Tartar, or with Squills. I remember its excellent effect in a very bad case of scarlet fever, with stupor and constipation. Dose, ten to twenty Grains.

Juniper. The berries of the Juniper tree or shrub. They are round, dark-purple in color, and have a sweet and somewhat spicy taste. Their use in medicine is as a diuretic in dropsy. A tea may be made by pouring a Pint of boiling Water upon Half an Ounce of bruised Juniper berries, stirring and then leaving it to stand for half an hour before pouring it off or straining it. A Tablespoonful of Cream of Tartar may be added; and at least Half a Pint of this tea may be drunk (a little at a time) in twenty-four liours, for dropsy.

Compound Spirit of Juniper is what pharmacists call an "elegant" It has the advantage of being given in small dose, a Teaspoonful or two, in Water; and is also, from its stimulant property,

best suited to feeble patients, or those with delicate stomachs.

Lactucarium. An extract from the common Garden Lettuca (Lactuca). It is mildly narcotic and anodyne; promoting sleep like opium, but with much less power. The Syrup of Lactucarium (named Aubergier's Syrup), is the most convenient preparation. Dose, one or two

Teaspoonfuls.

Lady Webster's Pills. The important thing in these is Aloes. They are purgative, and, like other aloetic preparations, have some effect in promoting a tendency of blood towards the pelvic region of the body. They have much reputation as aiding to bring on delayed or suppressed menstruation. This is called by physicians an emmenagogue action. Dose, one pill, at night. Some persons find half a pill enough to operate on the bowels quite as much as is best. A few will need to take a second pill for such an effect. It may be here repeated, that there is no certain emmenagogue medicine. We can only promote the restoration of the absent uterine flow, and succeed in a considerable number, but not in all cases.

Laudanum. Tineture of Opium. One of the strongest of the Opiate Medicines. It is therefore a powerful anodyne and hypnotic

(sleep-producer).

Dose, for a grown person, from fifteen to thirty Drops. In diarrheea, however, as small a dose as ten Drops will often answer. Children are more affected by opiates, in proportion to their age, than by any other kind of medicine. One drop will be more than enough for an infant less than a year old; at least to begin with.

Laudanum is often applied externally to relieve pain. On a sound part of the skin, in a grown person, Half a Teaspoonful may be so applied with safety; but only a few Drops at a time, even externally,

in the case of a young child.

Anodyne injections into the bowels are most frequently made of Laudanum and Starch. (See Injections.) For Hypodermic injection

(under the skin) Solution of Morphia is preferred.

In keeping Laudanum, it should be remembered that it strengthens with age, by evaporation of some of its Alcohol. (All tinctures are made with Alcohol.) What is left at the bottom of an old bottle of Laudanum may be two or three times as strong as a fresh article would be.

McMunn's Elixir of Opium is a preparation of still greater opiate strength than Laudanum. It has no very certain advantages over it. The same may be said of Black Drop (Vinegar of Opium), except that both of these are less disagreeable than Laudanum, and agree better with some stomachs.

Lavender. Aromatic flowers, well known for their pleasing per-

fume. The only preparation used as a medicine is the Compound Spirit of Lavender. It is an agreeable warming, gently stimulant article; good in colic, sometimes for nausea (sickness of stomach), and for dysmenorrhoa (painful menstruation). Dose, a Teaspoonful, in Water;

Lead, Sugar of. Acetate of Lead. Sweet, but poisonous. A powerful mineral astringent. Physicians prescribe it in some cases of dysentery, after the first stage is over; and occasionally in obstinate diarrhæa, in hemorrhages, in aneurism of the aorta, and in enlargement (hypertrophy) of the heart. But it is not suited for internal use as a domestic medicine. Dose, half a Grain to a Grain, in pill or solution.

Outside, Sugar of Lead is a cooling (sedative) application, often used for inflammations. Lead-water may be made by dissolving it in Water; but with greater convenience by adding to Water the Solution of Subacctate of Lead (Goulard's Extract), which is a very strong liquid preparation. Of this last one Drop to four Tablespoonfuls of Water will be generally strong enough for Lead-water. It may be applied to a much-inflamed joint, or (outside) of the eyeball or eyelids. For the eyes, the best way to use it is with a camel's-hair pencil, painting the outside of the closed lids frequently with it.

Like Lime-water, Lead-water, when exposed to the air, absorbs Carbonic Acid gas, and forms a white Curbonate. This gives a milky appearance to it, but does not impair its cooling action upon the sur-

All preparations of Lead are poisonous. Care must be taken with them accordingly, that none be swallowed unawares.

Leeching. See Taking Blood, page 278.

Licorice. See Liquorice.

Lily of the Valley. Convallaria Maialis of botanists. This charming wild-flower is considerably employed by physicians as a tonic to the heart. It had better not be taken, however, without medical advice. Dose, of the Fluid Extract, five to fifteen drops.

Lime-water. Simply a Solution of Lime in Water. Anybody can make it, by putting pure, clean, unslaked Lime in pure Water. Take a large bottle, and press into it enough Lime to fill about one-fourth of its depth. Pour in Water enough to fill it full, then cork and shake it awhile. On standing, the clear Lime-water will be ready for use. If all the Lime is dissolved, add a little more, so as to be sure that the Water is saturated; that is, contains as much as it will dissolve.

Lime-water is the main stand-by as a domestic remedy for vomiting, or for nausea threatening it. Dose, from a Teaspoonful to a Tablespoonful. When nourishment is needed, a Tablespoonful of Milk may

be added to one of Lime-water. Otherwise, it may be diluted with an

equal amount of Water, or Cinnamon-water.

Lime-water is often added with great advantage to Milk for babies, when they have sour stomach or diarrhaa, as it is antacid and somewhat astringent. A Tablespoonful of it may be put in every Half Pint of the child's food, so long as such an occasion exists for it. No harm will be done if it should be taken in that way for days, or even weeks, together.

Liquorice, also spelled Licorice. The root of an herb growing on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea. The Extract is chiefly used. It is black, hard, and sweet. There is also a Fluid Extract. Neither has any important property except some soothing influence over the lining



LOBELIA INFLATA

membrane of the throat. By "sympathy of contiguity" this influence extends from the gullet into the windpipe, and thus Liquorice helps to soften and loosen cough. It is the largest (though not the strongest) ingredient in Wistar's Cough Lozenges, which contain also a little Opium; and it is used to flavor cough mixtures and other medicines.

Lithia may be just mentioned here, as one of the alkalies, like Soda and Potassa. It is considered by physicians a useful medicine for gout. The carbonate is employed in one- to three-grain doses. It has no place in domestic practice.

Lobelia. A common weed, Lobelia inflata. The cardinal flower of the swamps is another, more beautiful, species of the same genus, not used in medicine.

The leaves and tops of this passed are employed best in the form Tincture. It is a powerful sedative medicine; capable, like tobacco, in large doses, of producing fatal prostration. Its most important use is for asthma. It is often very relieving

in attacks of that affection. It may be safely given (watching its effects,

and stopping it at once if vomiting or great faintness result) in Half-Teaspoonful doses, every half hour or hour, until three or four doses, if necessary, have been given. Another way is to give twenty Drops of Tincture of Lobelia, with twenty Drops of Syrup of Ipecac., every twenty minutes, for three or four doses.

Logwood. The reddish heartwood of a Central American tree. It was once more used than now, as a mild astringent for diarrheea. A tea may be made of it by boiling an Onnee of it, with a Drachm of Cinnamon, in a Pint of Water, for ten minutes. Dose, a Wineglassful

Magnesia. A valuable home medicine, as an antacid laxative. It is particularly good when there is constipation, with sick stomach and headache. Even at the beginning of diarrhaa and cholera morbus, it is many times the best corrective medicine. Culcined Magnesia is the preferred form, and, in Philadelphia at least, Husband's is the best. It has almost no taste, but causes a gritty feeling on the tongue that is not pleasant. Water does not dissolve it; so it must be stirred well in a little Water when taken. Dose, a full Teaspoonful for a grown person, if designed to operate on the bowels. Much less will do to relieve acidity and nausea. Magnesia is not a good medicine to take when one has piles; as it sometimes produces a burning in operating freely. It is not, however, a powerful cathartic. Citrate of Magnesium has been spoken of on a previous page.

Malt Extract. Especially in Germany, large use is made of preparations under this name. As sold in this country, some of them are too sweet to agree well with the stomach. The best is Johann Hoff's "Malz-Extract;" made in Berlin, and imported in short thick bottles. The use of this extract is as a tonic, particularly when digestion is weak. It may be taken at meals, a quarter of a tumblerful at once.

When taken at bed-time, it is promotive of sleep.

Manna. A sweet substance obtained from the trunk of the flowering ash tree, in the countries bordering on the Mediterranean. Its only important use is to open the bowels of children and delicate people, including women during pregnancy. It may be eaten like sugar. The dose is not very definite; a little experience will show how much is required for the desired effect.

Massage (rubbing). See later, under Nursing.

Mineral Waters. A volume would be required to treat fully of these; and such volumes have been written." They may be classified simply as: 1. Alkaline. 2. Salinc. 3. Sulphurous. 4. Chalybeate, containing Iron. 5. Purgative. 6. Limestone or Calcareous. 7. Thermal, i.e., Warm or Hot Springs. While some special properties and effects upon the system in states of disease belong to each of these classes of waters, with differences also among the members of each class, they all agree in exerting an alterative influence, which is especially likely to be beneficial in chronic disorders. Very much is added, also, to this effect by the pure atmosphere of the localities of mineral springs, with rest, change of scene, social enjoyment, etc. Still, something important may be ascribed in certain cases to the action of the mineral waters them-

^{*} See Walton, on the Mineral Springs of the United States and Canada: D. Appleton & Co., New York.

selves; although many of them fail to exhibit the same virtues when bottled up and sent to the city homes of invalids, as they do when these go and take them from their natural sources, or resort to the warm or hot natural medicated buths. Some particular waters are largely supplied for particular remedial uses; as the Apollinaris, an agreeable table curbonated (effervescent) drink; Hunyadi Janos, Püllan, and Friedrichshalle, for purgative action; Vichy water (containing soda), to relieve acidity, etc. The most famons mineral waters in our country are those of Saratoga (several kinds, all more or less saline; with more or less sulphur also, or iron, iodine, brounine, etc.), Sharon (suline and sulphurous, with some iron), Richfield (sulphurous)—all these in the State of New York; Bedford (chalybeate, i. e., containing iron, and purgative), in Pennsylvania; and a remarkable variety of mineral springs among the mountains of Virginia-White and Red Sulphur, Warm Springs, Hot Springs, etc. In chronic rheumatism, liver and kidney disorders, obstinate affections of the skin, and nervous troubles of some standing, the best alterative effects from using mineral waters, internally or in baths; may be hoped for. A physician's advice had better always be obtained before they are resorted to in cases of serious disease of any kind.

Morphia. The principal alkaloid or active principle of Opium. Its sulphate and other salts (chemically so called) are used in medicine. They are powerfully anodyne and hypnotic (sleep-producing). What is commonly called "Solution of Morphia" in this country is Solution of Sulphate of Morphia, one Grain to an Ounce of Water. Done, a Teaspoonful, containing one-eighth of a Grain of the Morphia Salt. Sometimes we meet with Magendic's Solution of Morphia, which contains sixteen Grains to the Ounce; sixteen times as strong, therefore, as the other. If using either, then, we must be very careful to know which it is. It is not necessary to have Morphia in the family medicine ehest; Laudanum and Paregorie will do for Opiates under almost all

Muriatic Acid. See Chlorohydric Acid.

Musk. A very strongly odorous substance, secreted by the nuskdeer of the Himalaya Mountain region, in Asia. It is antispasmodic, that is, composing to disturbed nerves. Prescribed sometimes for whooping-cough and for convulsions. Dose, five to ten Grains, in pill

Mustard-Plaster. One of the most frequently useful of all domestic remedies. When anybody is suffering pain, or, indeed, illness of any kind, if you do not know what to do, put on a Mustard-Plaster, near the seat of the trouble. Should you not find where that is, put the

mustard-plaster on the middle of the back. If properly attended to, it can do no harm; and in ninety-nine cases in a hundred it will do

some good; sometimes a great deal of good.

To make one, mix from one to three or four Tablespoonfuls of Mustard (either white or black, so called) with the same amount of Wheat or Indian Flour. Mix these with enough hot water to make a paste. Then, on a hot plate, near the person who is to have it on, lay a piece of soft old muslin, or thin flannel, twice as large as the plaster is to be; but spread the Mustard and Flour paste only on half of the rag. This done, double the other half over it, and stitch the edges together, all around; or, turn the edges over instead, to keep the stuff in. It may be put on at once, while warm, and left on until it is felt to burn quite smartly, if the patient is conscious. If not, it must be looked under, in a quarter of an hour or so, and, if the skin is decidedly red, take it off. As soon as it is removed, Lard, Tallow, Cold Cream, or Vaseline should be gently rubbed over it, or a fresh rag spread with one of them may be laid upon the part. We never intend to raise a blister with Mustard, it is too severe. The aim is just to heat the skin very actively, mostly for its use as a counter-irritant, to relieve some irritation of an internal organ.

Ready-made Mustard-Plasters can be had now of Pharmacists, and are very convenient. One of them has only to be dipped for a moment or two in hot water, and it is ready to apply at once. It is well always

to have a supply of these in the house.

Mush and Mustard Poultices are often very useful in inflammatory and other painful affections. They are made with one part of Mustard to four parts of Mush (of Indian meal) mixed, and applied hot on the chest or abdomen, as required, and covered with Oiled Silk, or Oiled Paper, or Rubber Cloth, to retain the moisture. Such a poultice may stay on for hours, keeping up a moderate and bearable excitement of the skin (warming and counter-irritant) much longer than could be borne with a strong Mustard-Plaster.

Myrrh. A gum-resinous substance, obtained from one or more trees in Africa and Arabia. From ancient times it has been known ("frank-incense and myrrh") for its aromatic properties. Internally given, it is stimulant and tonic, and is an ingredient in some preparations intended

to act upon the bowels or to restore suspended menstruation.

For home use, the Tincture of Myrrh is very serviceable in the care of the mouth. A few Drops of it in a little water, say about twenty Drops in a quarter of a Tumblerful, used as a mouth-wash, will correct a bad odor in the breath. Such a wash may be used with advantage twice daily, in cleaning the teeth. When the teeth begin to decay, a

PRINCIPAL MEDICINES, AND OTHER REMEDIES. 233

strong myrrh wash, often used, will check or retard their destated on. If a hollow tooth becomes tender, and begins to ache, pure Tineture of Myrrh put into it will sometimes stop the trouble at the beginning. If, however, it does not at once give relief, the stronger application of Cre-

Nitrate of Silver, or Luna: Caustic. Physicians often use this as an alterative application to the throat, eyes, or ulcerated skin, in certain states and stages of inflammation. It is also sometimes given in pill as a medicine; most beneficially in chronic (gastritis) inflammation of the stomach. Dose, internally, a quarter of a Grain (usually with as much of Opium), thrice daily, gradually increased, when it does good, to nearly or quite a Grain. It was formerly much employed in the treatment of epilepsy. When long continued, it has sometimes dyed the skin, making the face almost as black as ink.

Nitre. A name for Saltpetre; called by chemists Nitrate of Potassium. It is a cooling, sedative salt, when taken internally. In ten-Grain doses it is a useful medicine in acute bronchial inflammation (bronehitis), and might be added with advantage more often than it is,

to cough-mixtures of the loosening kind.

Sweet Spirit of Nitre (Spirit of Nitrous Ether) is a liquid preparation ration, whose properties are gently stimulating, diaphoretic, diuretic, and composing to the nerves. It has long been one of the most popular of domestic medicines for fever. It does the most good, however, in the least inflammatory conditions, and, when fever is high, its dose should not be large. Half a Teaspoonful of it in a Tumblerful of cold Water, drunk, a little at a time, as thirst possents, through the night, will be more likely to relieve a hot fever, with the coming of perspiration, than a whole Teaspoonful taken at onco. This is because the large doses "stimulate the circulation above the secreting point," to use an old but true medical phrase.

To increase the action of the kidneys, as a diuretic, Sweet Spirit of Nitre is very often useful. For this purpose, in the absence of high fever, larger doses will suit than when that condition is present. From Half a Teaspoonful to a Teaspoonful, well diluted with water, will be a diuretic dose for an adult; to be repeated in a few hours, if needful.

Nitrite of Amyl is a powerful agent, used by inhalation, from one to four or five drops only at a time, as a remedy for the attacks or paroxysms of angina pectoris. It commonly causes immediate flushing of the face. If used, it should be as soon as the attack (with distress and pain about the heart, and along the left arm) begins.

Nitroglycerin, the explosive, from which dynamite is made, is occasioually used as a medicine for angina pectoris, etc., by physicians. Dose, one-hundredth of a drop. It is too strong to be employed as a

domestie medieine.

Nitro-muriatic Acid. Called Nitro-chlorohydric Acid by chemists. It is a mixture of Nitric and Chlorohydric (Muriatic) Acids, and contains some free Chlorine gas. It is important in the arts, as the only thing

that will dissolve gold. As a medicine, it is an appetizer, and a mild tonic to the liver. "Bilious attacks," in persons subject to them, may be treated first with Blue Pill, and afterwards with Nitromuriatic Acid. Dose, three or four Drops, in Water. It is best taken through a glass tube, as it will act on the enamel of the teeth if left long in contact with them. Also, a silver spoon should not be allowed to touch it, as it dissolves silver as well as gold.

Nitrous Oxide. Formerly called "laughing-gas," because of its exhilarating quality when breathed mixed with air. It is now the favorite material for dentists to use so as to draw teeth without pain. It is, thus, one of the anæsthetics, so called, and, when breathed for only a short time, it is probably the safest of them. It must, however, be pure for such use, and skill and care are necessary on the part of the dentist who employs it. Otherwise, it would be quite possible for a person to be anæsthetized to death, even with Nitrons Oxide. Horace Wells, the dentist, who first proved that this property belongs to it, is said to have at last become a vietim to its over-use.

Nux Vomica. A poisonous seed or nut ("dog-button" of country people) from a tree called Strychnos Nux Vomica, growing in the East. Its active principle is the alkaloid Strychnia.

Nux (as the homoeopaths call it) is best used in Extract or in Tineture. Both are bitter tonics, with a powerful action on the nervous system, especially the spinal marrow. Leaving what we have to say about this last action until we come to Strychnia, it may be mentioned that physicians often find Extract of Nux Vomica a good addition, in small dose (a quarter to half a Grain), to tonic pills for continued debility. The Tincture, in ten-Drop doses, in water, is an excellent medieine for great weakness of stomach, with flaiulence. Larger doses (if even these) should not be ventured upon without medical advice; on account of the very powerful nature of the active principle of this drug. The Tincture of Nux Vomica should be marked Poison.

Olive Oil. Probably the gentlest of all laxatives; in Teaspoonful to Tablespoonful doses. For a delicate infant, needing to have the bowels acted upon, a Teaspoonful is very good. The imitation of true Olive Oil, sold under its name, or as "Sweet Oil," is less bland, but will answer if the genuine European article cannot be obtained.

Sweet Oil, saturated with Camphor (Camphorated Oil), makes an excellent application for more or less inflammatory swellings; as, for example, a mother's breast threatening to become inflamed while she is nursing; or, more often, when her infant ceases to draw milk, as from illness or the death of the child.



POPPY FLOWER

Sweet Oil, with an equal quantity of Aqua Anmoniæ (water of Ammonia) or Aromatic Spirit of Ammonia, makes Volatile Liniment; an excellent outward application for sore throat.



SEED CAPSULES OF THE POPPY.

Opium. If all the medicines in the world were to be destroyed, except three, and we could choose the three, they should be Quinine, Opium, and Iron. The first cures the greatest number of cases of illness; the second gives the happiest relief to severe pain; and the last does the most to build up a debilitated body.

Under the heading of anodyne medication, on a previous page, enough has been said on the general subject of the action of Opium and its preparations. Of these, also, Laudanum and Morphia have been mentioned. The dose of Opium in substance (got from the seed-capsule of the whit have deep plant of the East) is one Grain; equal to thirty Drops of Laudanum, or a full Teaspoonful of Solution of Morphia (not Magendie's Solution).

Paregoric is the Camphorated Tincture of Opium. Its odor and taste are partly due to the Oil of Anise-seed with which it is flavored. It contains only one Grain of Opium in a Tablespoonful of Paregoric; being therefore a much weaker Opiate than Landanna; which has about four Grains of Opium in each Teaspoonful. Dose of Paregoric, a Teaspoonful, more or less, according to the occasion for its use. In diarrhea, for example, quarter-teaspoonful doses will often answer the purpose. Smaller doses, of course, are suitable to give to children.

Pepper. Of the two kinds used with food, Red Pepper (Capsicum) is the more stimulating. It is sometimes given by physicians as a stimulant, in five-grain pills. A much more common use for it is to excite the circulation of the skin, as a rubefacient; a power which it shares (though in less degree) with Mustard. In cholera, when the skin is cold, rubbing with Whisky and Red Pepper is one of the best things to restore the circulation. It may be employed for the same purpose in any analogous, low and cold, condition.

Peppermint. Essence of Peppermint is a pleasant, warm aromatic; given as good for colic and sick slomuch. Dose, ten Drops for a grown need one Drop to a Drops down to Half a drop (that is, spoonful at once).

Pepsin. Hard to get pure. Given for weak digestion. Dose, h

Permanganate of Potassium. This "salt," which gives a beautiful red julor to Water, has a remarkable action on all drauble failural or vegetable) matter. It is one of the best disinfectants. Five Grains of it in a Pint of Water will make a solution saltable to wash out vessels used in the sick room with patients having contagious or infectious diseases.

Internally, Permanganate of Potassium is highly recommended (in two-Grain doses, dissolved in distilled Water, twice daily) by some physicians in amenorrhæa (delay or suppression of the monthly courses). As it sometimes disagrees with the stomach, it must be used with care, and can hardly be placed among the domestic medicines.

Phosphorus. Too dangerons for use as a domestic medicine, this is sometimes given by physicians as a powerful nerve-stimulant. Dose, one-thirtieth of a Grain. Phosphates are safe compounds, often used. Parrish's and Horsford's are very popular tonic preparations. Of the latter (Acid Phosphates), the dose is Half a Teaspoonful, in water, just Pink-Root. This American

Pink-Root. This American plant (Spigelia Marylandica) is a very good medicine for worms (vermifuge). It may be made into a Tea thus: Put together Half on Ounce of broken and bruised Pink-root; Senna

Leaves and Fennel Seed, each two Drachms; Manna, one Ounce; and boiling Water, one Pint. Let it stand (after stirring) covered for an hour. Dose, a Wineglassful for an adult, Half a Wineglassful for a child two or three years old, thrice daily. It is best not to go beyond these doses; as, in very large amount, Spigelia acts poisonously.



SPIGELIA MARYLANDICA.

There is a Fluid Extract of Spigelia, also, a convenient preparation; dose, a Teaspoonful; and still better (because the Senna makes it more sure to pass off by the bowels), the Fluid Extract of Spigelia and Senna; dose of this also, a Teaspoonful, repeated every two or three hours until it operates.

Podophyllin, or Resina Podophylli. This is an active principle obtained from the root of the common May-apple (Podophyllum peltatum). The powdered root itself may be taken in doses of ten to twenty Grains. Of Podophyllin, the dose is but from one-sixth to onehalf or three-fourths of a Grain. It is a powerful, though slowly acting, cathartic; believed also to act more than most purgative medicines on the liver.

Potassa (Potash). Solution of Potassa is sometimes given as a



MAY-APPLE (PODOPHYLLUM PELTATUM).

medicine by physicians. Caustic Potassa (vegetable caustic) is the solid stick, which, with care, may be used to destroy warts. More often, Bicartonate of Potassium is employed as an antacid, in ten or twenty-Grain doses; and as an ingredient in Effervescing Draught (which sec). This Bicarbonate is also the Sal Acratus (gaseous salt) of the bakery; as, like Bicarbonate of Sodium, it gives off Carbonic Acid gas when an acid, such as Tartaric Acid, is added to it.

Poultices. These are used to warm and soften the skin, when applied to inflamed parts of the surface of the body; particularly when

n gathering (suppuration, abscess) is expected. Also, they often do good in cases of internal inflammation (pneumonia, for example) by favoring the return of blood to the skin, and thus unloading the part troubled with excess of blood.

Fig. 196.



POULTICE, COVERED WITH GAUZE.

Flaxseed (Linseed), Bran, Bread, Mush, Slippery-Elm Bark, Charcoal, Chopped Carrots, and Lye are among the materials most used for poultices.

Flaxsecd meal, mixed with hot Water, makes a good, soft, convenient poultice for common use in "gatherings" of different parts of the body. Mix the meal well with enough hot water to make it hold together and spread easily, and yet not too soft to stay where it is put; a poultice should never run. For use, it should be spread upon a

piece of fiannel or muslin laid on a hot plate or hot waiter; something hot, near the patient, so that it will be warm when applied. The edges of the rag should be turned over, to the width of about an inch, to keep the stuff in, and upon it may be laid a piece of thin and soft gauze or tarletan. The latter makes the poultice easier to remove, but is not otherwise necessary. A few drops of Sweet Oil (or Lard Oil) may with a least page of the pain is great, Half a Teaspoonful to a Teaspoor all of Laudanum may be poured upon it. As soon as the poultice is put on the part, it should be covered with a piece of Oiled Silk, Oiled Paper, or thin Rubber cloth, to prevent evaporation, and thus keep it moist. Without this, it will dry and become hard and cold in a little while. Bran will do as a substitute for Flaxseed meal, when the latter cannot be obtained.

Bread and Mush poultices are made and applied in the same way. One made with crumbs of moderately stale bread and hot Water (better this always than milk, which may sour unpleasantly) is as soothing to the part as any poultice can be. Powder or slips of Slippery-Elm Bark are also very soft, and perhaps more cooling to an irritated skin.

A Mush poultice (of Indian meal) is the warmest kind; very suitable for application in internal inflammations, as pneumonia, pleurisy, dysentery, etc. It may be made by using hot mush, prepared just as if it were to be eaten; spread, applied, and covered in the same way as a Flaxseed poultice.

In changing or renewing a poultice, be sure to have the fresh one warm, close by the patient, so that the part will not remain for a moment uncovered. Should it do so, the chill caused might more than undo all the good effected by the poultice.

A Charcoal poultice is only suitable for a nasty, and especially a mortifying (gangrenous), part suffering from disease or injury. Finely dian mush. Warmth is not important for this kind of poultice unless to be changed often. Yeast poultices are sometimes employed, but I am quite doubtful of their beneficial action.

Lye (Ley) poultices may be made by mixing common lye from ashes, or a druggist's Solution of Potassa, with Flaxseed or Indian Meal. They are not often used nowadays, being formerly applied to punctured and torn (lacerated) wounds, as a means of preventing lock-jaw (tetanus). Better, for this purpose, is Laudanum, applied directly to the part. If a Lye poultice is so used, Laudanum should be added to it.

Püllna Water. A strong, bitter German purgative Mineral Water. It, as well as Friedericshalle and Hunyadi Janos waters, are sold by druggists, in bottles, everywhere. Dose of Püllna water, one or two Tablespoonfuls.

Pumpkin Seeds. These have a deserved reputation, as capable of driving a tapeworm out of the bowels. For such use, an ounce (about two Tablespoonfuls) of the fresh seeds should, after removal of their outer skin, be beaten, with a Tablespoonful of Sugar, into a paste, then mixed in milk or water, and drunk, either at once or in two dranghts twelve to twenty-four hours, and should be taken after fasting for from a Tablespoonful dose of Castor-Oil.

a

Quassia. The wood of a West Indian tree. It is bitter, and a good, simple stomachic tonic, suitable for dyspepsia. It is best taken in the form of a Tea. Half an Ounce of it may be boiled for an hour or two in a Pint of Water. Dose, Half a Wineglassful, two or three times daily.



CINCHONA CALISAYA.

Quinine. What is commonly so called and used in medicine is the Sulphate of Quinia. The alkaloid Quinia is the most valuable of several obtained from Peruvian Bark; that is, the bark of different species of Cinchona tree. These are native to the Andes of Peru, growing naturally as evergreens, upon high ground, from nearly 400 to over 10,000 feet above the level of the sea. The Cinchona tree has, however,

been found to be capable of cultivation in similar regions of the Himalaya mountains of India. The trees are from forty to eighty feet in height, with laurel-like leaves and fragrant rosy-white flowers. Expeditions lasting several months are made by the natives of Peru, to collect bark from trees which they fell for transportation. Having been known for a long time in Peru to be capable of curing chills and fever, the Countess of Cinchon, more than a hundred years ago, took some of it, with that knowledge, to Europe, and thus her name has been given to the tree.

Yellow Culisaya Bark is the richest in Quinia; next to it come the Pale and the Red Barks. The most important alkaloids got from them are Quinia, Cinchonia, Quinidia, and Cinchonidia. Quinoidin is an extractive containing two ar more of them. All of these have similar properties to Quinia, but require rather larger doses to produce the same effects.

Because water dissolves very little of either of these pure alkaloids, they are chemically combined, for use, with acids, especially Sulphurie Acid—making Sulphutes. Sulphate of Quinia, as already said, is Quinia. It is not very soluble in water; a little Aromatic Sulphuric Acid (Elixir of Vitriol), about two Drops to a Grain, is added in making a solution of it.

Quinine is a bitter tonic, but not a stomach tonic only; it acts decidedly, also, on the nervous system. When this is debilitated, it will do as much good as any medicine, unless in cases where Iron or Strychnia is suitable, to improve its tone. But the heroic value of Quinine is in the treatment of malarial fevers; that is, intermittent, remittent, and pernicious (or congestive) fevers. All of these prevail most in the autumn, although considerably also in the spring of the year. All of them are characterized by periodicity; that is, more or less regular spells, following each other at intervals or periods. Chills occur either once a day, or every other day, or on the first and fourth days (quartan agne); sometimes, only once in seven days. Each chill, also, is followed by a fever, and that by a swent. Remittent fever does not go off during the interval, but only remits (slacks up, so to speak) its violence; hence its name. [More about these hereafter.]

So marked is the power of Pernvian Bark and its alkaloids, especially Quinia, to stop chicis, and to cure remittent fever, that it may be well called a specific remedy, even an antidote for them.

Dose of Quinine, as a simple tonic in cases of weakness, one or two Grains every four hours, until from six to eight Grains are taken daily. The form of pills is most convenient for this use; one-grain or two-grain pills. For the eure of intermittent (chills, ague), more is needed;

from twelve to fifteen Grains daily for about three days, and then lessening gradually, to ten, eight, and six grains a day, continuing the latter for two weeks. In pernicious intermittent, in the Southern States, yet larger doses are required. Remittent fever will be spoken of, and the principles of its management mentioned, hereafter; it may just be said here, that it needs the knowledge and judgment of a physician to deal safely with it.

Cinchonia (Sulphate) agrees with some persons better than Quinine. The latter, in doses amounting to over eight Grains daily, makes many people's ears ring, or hum, or roar. Cinchonia hardly ever does this; at least, in moderate doses. Quinidia and Cinchonidia also suit certain

patients the best.

The popular idea that Quinine injures the health, especially when long taken, is entirely mistaken. If prescribed only in ordinary doses (not more than fifteen or twenty Grains in twenty-four hours), it does no harm, and, in malarial cases, may often save life, as well as shorten the time of siekness very much. In over-doses, it may cause temporary, or possibly permanent, deafness. Extreme doses might even kill, by poisonous action on the brain; but such amounts are never given by physicians. I have known Quinine to be taken, as much as from six to eight, or occasionally ten, Grains daily, by a delicate person, for years together, with good action as a tonic, and no disadvantage.

Quinine may be taken in malarial cases, whether there be fever or not; for example, in periodic attacks of neuralgia. Other diseases, also, in certain localities, take on the periodic form: but for these we

must refer to larger medical works.

Respiration, Artificial. See Drowning, later, under Accidents and Injuries.

Rhatany. This is the root of Krameria, a South American shrula It is astringent; its Tincture is the best preparation. Dose, a Tenapoonful, in water. Used especially for diarrhoea.

Rhubarb. The root of an Asiatic and European plant. Our pieplant, whose leaves have such a pleasant fruity tartness, is another species of the same genus. Rhubarh is a gentle purgative, with also some tonic property, which makes it especially adapted to dyspeptic persons, and others disposed to constipution. Dose, for such a use, from three to six or eight Grains. Many people buy the root in pieces, as it comes in the shops, and cut off daily what, on trial, they find to suffice for them. Less trouble attends the use of Simple Rhubarb Pills; one or more as





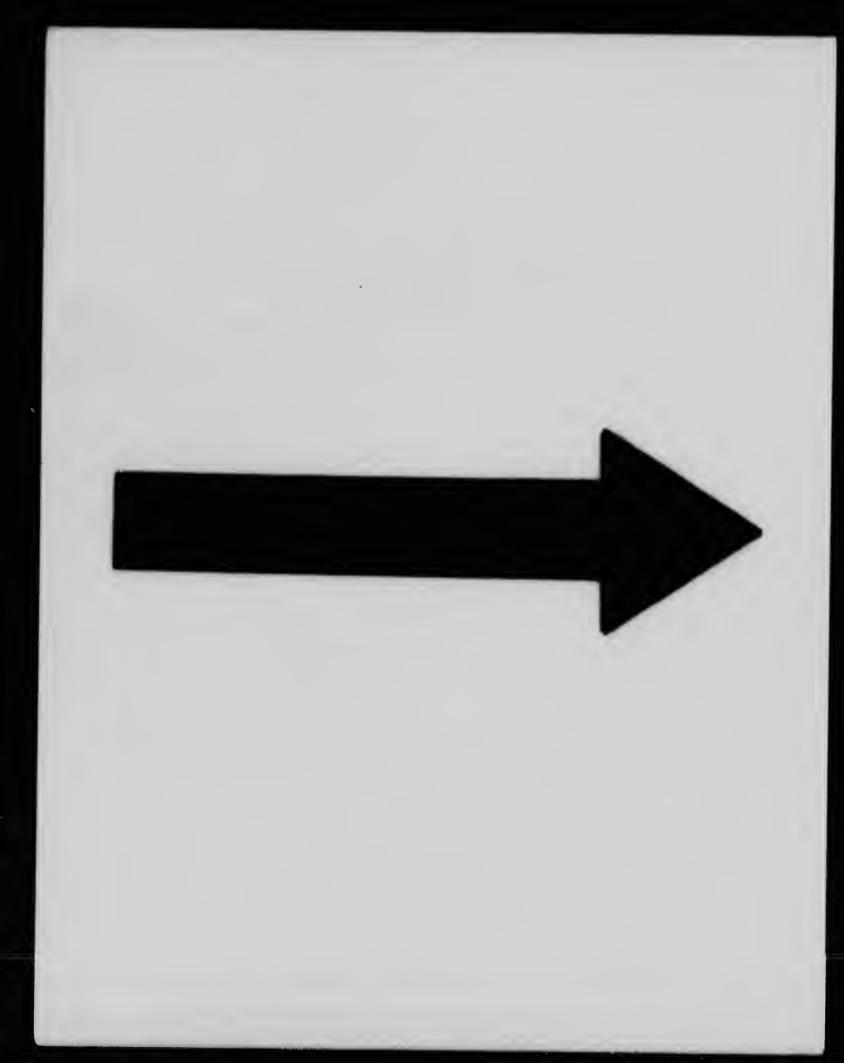
RHUBARB (RHEUM PALMATUM).

may be necessary; if only one, bedtime will be the best time to take it; if two, one at night and one in the morning.

Compound Rhubarb Pills contain also Scammony and Aloes (both strong cathartics), as well as Myrrh. They are at least twice as active as Simple Rhubarb Pills.

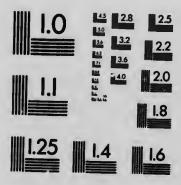
Simple Syrup of Rhubarb is a very good opening medicine for infants. Dose, for a babe, about a Teaspoonful.

Spiced Syrup of Rhubarb is one of the oftenest useful of all domestic medicines. It contains, besides Rhubarb, Cloves, Cinnamon, Nutmeg, Alcohol, Sugar, and Water. It is therefore aromatic and gently stimulant, as well as promotive of action of the bowels. This last effect, that of a purgative, is so slight, that it is generally useful in correcting irregular intestinal secretion, and thus curing diarrhoa, if given at an early stage. It is also very relieving to colicky pain with diarrhoa; and is an excellent "vehicle" with which to mix other medicines of



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1653 East Main Street Rochester, New York 14609 USA (716) 482 - 0300 - Phone (716) 288 - 5989 - Fox nasty taste, as Castor-Oil; or those which do not readily dissolve in pure Water.

The dose of Spiced Syrup of Rhubarb is from a Teaspoonful to a Tablespoonful; not as a purgative, for which effect the Simple Syrup of Rhubarb is better; but to correct and relieve diarrhea, especially when

accompanied with pain, at an early stage.

Rochelle Salts: Tartrate of Sodium and Potassium. A not very disagreeable, moderately active, purgative medicine; one of the most convenient and suitable at the beginning of an inflammatory or febrile illness; such as bronchitis, pneumonia, measles, scarlet fever, remittent fever, etc. Dose, from a Teaspoonful to a Tablespoonful, dissolved in a fourth or a third part of a Tumblerful of Water.

Rubbing (massage). See later, under Nursing.

Salicylic Acid. This powerful medicine has been found, within a few years, to be very efficacious in relieving and shortening attacks of inflammatory rheumatism. It generally causes free perspiration and flow of saliva. In large doses it produces ringing in the ears, head-ache, and trembling; sometimes vomiting. Physicians prescribe it in doses of ten Grains or more, several times a day; but more often now the Salicylate of Sodium is given; from one to two Drachms in the course of twenty-four hours for a few days, and then smaller amounts until recovery of the patient. It is not a medicine adapted for domestic employment; but is sometimes used externally as an antiseptic by surgeons.

Santonin. One of the most effectual vermifuges; that is, medicines which either kill or drive out worms. It must be used with care, as excessive doses are violent in their action; we may say poisonous. For lumbricoid worms, the commonest kind, one Grain will be a dose for an adult; a quarter of a Grain, or less, for a child. For seat-worms (those small ones which inhabit the lower bowel, and cause annoying itching of the anus or outlet) Suppositories of Santonin are the best Santonin in each; one being inserted into the bowel at bedtime.

Sassafras Pith. A very soft material, which gives a soothing (demulcent) property to Water in which it is placed. It is often used in this way for inflammation of the cure

Seidlitz Powders. Made by mixing Bicarbonate of Sodium, and Tartrate of Potassium and Sodium (Rochelle Salt), in powder together, for one paper. For another paper, Tartarie Acid is put up, in proportionate quantity. When administered, each powder is dissolved in Water, and the two Solutions are poured together. It is a mild but prompt effervescing purgative, much in use before the invention of the effervescing solution of Citrate of Magnesium. Each saline powder contains forty Grains of Bicarbonate of Sodium (soda) and two Drachms of Rochelle Salt. Each Acid powder consists of thirty-five Grains of Tartarie Acid.

Senna. The leaves of an Eastern plant; an active purgative, with a disposition to give some griping pain in its operation. This may be prevented by adding Fennel Secd (an aromatic) or Oil of Fennel to it when given. In my days of childhood, Senna Tea, in wineglassful draughts, was the domestic medicine for headache or a bad cold. We hated it much. Sometimes Epsom Salts was given instead, and that was a good deal worse. We would rather "creep unwillingly" to school than swallow either of them. My worst early experience of medicine, however, was in the country. The farmer's wife believed in "Thom-

sonianism." One day, for a cold, she kindly mixed for me a pint bowlful of "No. 6." After smelling and tasting it, I asked her to leave it for me to finish by degrees. The first and last degree, when her household chores took her from the room, was right out of the window. I trust that most people have thrown Thomsonianism, with its hot red pepper draughts and hotter steam-baths, out of the window, a good while ago.

Fluid Extract of Senna is a neat and not very unpleasant preparation; with a drop of Oil of Fennel to each Ounce, it is a very good laxative for infants or older children. Fluid Extract of Spigelia and Senna has

been mentioned already.

Slippery-Elm Bark has a demulcent property which makes it soothing to an inflamed or irritated part of the body; in erysipelas, for example. It is rather heavy to the stomach for internal use to ad-

vantage.

Soap. Castile Soap is the kind preferred when nicety is particularly desired. This is used by some people to elean their teeth. It is an ingredient, also, in some purgative pills, and is commonly employed for laxative suppositories, and to make warm suds for opening injections.

A lather of Soap, made as for shaving, and applied with a shavingbrush, is one of the most relieving applications for itching; for exam-

ple, in poison-vine eruption, or other affections of the skin.

Soap Liniment. Camphorated Tincture of Soap. An excellent bathing material, so-called; that is, for rubbing a part, to warm and stimulate the movement of blood at and near the surface. It is good

for sore-throat, sprains, etc., in this way.

Soda. Bicarbonate of Sodium is the chemical name of the article which is used in baking and washing, as well as in medicine. It is an excellent and not disagreeable antacid, relieving sourness of stomach, and often nausea (siekness of stomach) better than anything else. For such a use it may be taken, in small quantities. What would cover a little-finger nail, if it would hold it—a pinch, we may say—is an ordinary antacid dose, although twice as much may be taken for a single time. It is often prescribed by physicians for gravel.

Socia Water, or mineral water, has no soda in it, but is made by forcing into common Water Carbonic Acid Gas, given off by the Bicarbonate of Sodium in solution, upon the addition of an Acid to it, as

Sulphuric or Chlorohydric Acid.

Chlorinated Soda is a liquid disinfectant, containing some free Chlorine gas. It is strong, a little going a great ways towards deodorizing foul vessels, etc. It will not do to pour it often into water-closets, on account of the Chlorine corroding the iron or lead pipes.

Spice-plasters. When a child's stomach is sick, or it is obstinately colicky, one of the most helpful things is a Spice-plaster. Take of Ginger, Cinnamon, and Cloves, all powdered, each one or two Teaspoonfuls; of Wheat Flour, the same amount. Mix all up together on a hot plate, with enough Whisky or Brandy to make a pasty mass. Spread this (not too thickly, on account of its weight) on a piece of thin flannel, with the edges turned in over it all round. When applied to the abdomen (it had better be large enough to cover the whole belly), it should have laid over it a piece of Oiled Silk, to prevent evaporation. Then it can stay on several hours, and, when dry, may be freshened up again by adding a little more Brandy or Whisky.

Like the Spice-plaster in action, is the application of a piece of flannel wet with Essence of Ginger, and covered with Oiled Silk. This will be somewhat more irritating to the skin of young and delicate ehildren than the Spice-plaster.

Spiced Syrup of Rhubarb. Enough has been said of this under Rhubarb; which see.

Squills. The bulb of an onion-like plant, of which the Syrup is. most used. It is an excellent cough-medicine (expectorant); rather less loosening than Ipecae., and therefore suited to a later stage in a bronehial attack. Dose, from a Half-teaspoonful to a Teaspoonful. This Syrup should be in every medicine-chest.

In Pill, Squill is often given as a diuretic (increasing the flow of urine). Dose for this use, one or two Grains, three times daily.

Staphy-agria. Stavesacre. A drug used in powder as an effective parasiticide; especially to destroy the eggs or "nits" of lice.

Strychnia. The alkaloid principle of Nux Vomica. It is a deadly poison, in even so small a quantity as half a grain. One-sixteenth of a grain has kill a child three years old. A special effect of its poisonous action is, stiffening the muscles like lockjaw (tetanus). Of course it is not suitable to be kept and used as a family medicine.

Physici - o prescribe Strychnia (or rather its Sulphate), especially for certain c .. of Paralysis (palsy). Also, in very small dose, it is a powerful general tonic to the nervous system in prolonged debility. Dose, from one-thirtieth to one-twentieth of a Grain; sometimes cantiously increased. Extreme restlessness is a sign of its having an excessive effect upon the nervous system.

Sublimate, Corrosive. A very powerful poison; the Bichloride of Mercury. The most frequent family use of it is to kill bedbugs; painting or squirting a strong solution of it in and over cracks and holes in bedsteads, etc. It must not be kept in the medicine-chest, for

Puysicians value Corrosive Sublimate for its antiseptic property; arresting putrefactive decay, and destroying "germs" of every kind, some of which are supposed to produce diseases. It is, for this effect, employed as a wash, one set to a thousand of Water for the skin, and one part to two thousand the vagina, etc. It is also given internally, sometimes, in syphilis; and latterly, attention has been drawn to its apparent usefulness in diphtheria. Dose, from one-eighth to one-half a Grain, twice daily, under medical advice.

Sulphide of Calcium, in quarter-grain doses or less, has the confidence of many physicians as a remedy for boils, when one boil keeps following another. A fresh-made solution, of one Grain in a Pint of water will answer; two Teaspoonfuls being taken every hour or two for a few days at a time.

Sulphites and Hyposulphites. These are "salts" or compounds of Sulphurous (not Sulphnric) Acid. Their power to arrest or prevent fermentation has suggested their employment as medicines in what have been called "zymotie" diseases; but the results have been, on the whole, less beneficial than was expected. Sulphite of Sodium, in doses of from five to fifteen grains, does good in some cases of indigestion, and perhaps in some of boils or carbuneles.

Sulphur. Brimstone, the popular name of this, is a corruption of burnstone; given on account of its combustibility. It is a mild and good laxative; particularly suitable for piles, and for those persons who are often troubled with colic. Dose, a Teaspoonful; in molasses or milk. In recent cases of skin-disease, it is often given with an equal quantity of Cream of Tartar.

Externally, Sulphur is the specific remedy for itch; not the only one, but the most convenient and frequently used. It is applied in the form of ointment, rubbed well into the seat of the cruption, where it kills the acarus or itch-mite, which keeps up the disease.

Sulphur, when burned, gives off fumes of Sulphurous Acid, which is a potent disinfectant. A pound or two of it burned in a large room (with all the people out of it, of course, as the gas cannot be breathed), with the doors and windows closed for two or three hours, will do more to purify it of any contagion or infection than anything else that can be done.

Sulphuric Acid. Oil of Vitriol is the commercial name for this very strong acid. It burns (corrodes) any part of the body which it touches; being destructive of organic matter by means of its intense affinity for water. When swallowed, it is a terrible poison. A boy nnder my care as a patient drank a mouthful of it by mistake, and very narrowly escaped death in consequence. His throat, including the

upper part of the windpipe, was so burned that he could scarcely breathe or swallow for three or four days.

Pure Sulphurie Acid is not used in medicine. Aromatic Sulphurie Acid is the Elixir of Vitriol. This is a good appetizer in ten- or twelve-Drop doses, in water. It is also sometimes given for diarrhea; and drink made of it is recommended to workers in lead or lead paint, to prevent the poisonous action of that metal; as the Sulphate of Lead with Sulphurie Acid) is insoluble in water, and without much if any poisonous influence upon the body.

Suppositories are small, soft solids, made for introduction into the lower bowel. Brown Soap is sometimes so used instead of an opening injection (enema). A piece of it or of Castile Soap may be ent of about the size and shape of the last joint of the little finger, and dipped in Oil (Castor-Oil or Sweet-Oil) for easy introduction. It must be pressed upwards gently until fully within the bowel, and retained for a little of anatomists).

Cocoa (Cacao) Butter is a very common and convenient material for suppositories, with which are mixed medicinal agents so to be used. Opium may be thus employed, the dose being twice as large as when taken by the mouth. A suppository may therefore contain two Grains of Opium. Santonin suppositories (with three Grains of this drug in each) may be used with great advantage for seat-worms.

Tannin or Tannic Acid. This is the astringent principle of Oak Bark, of Nut Galls, and of many other vegetable materials. Its presence in Tea-leaves accounts for iron spoons being blackened when left in Tea. Catechu and other vegetable astringent medicines contain Taunic Acid, some of them also the very similar Gallic Acid.

Tannin is often given as a medicine in pill for diarrhea and for hemorrhages. A good astringent pill is made with three Grains of Tannin and a little Opium, from one-twelfth to one-half a Grain of the latter,

according to the case.

Tannin is also frequently made part of au astringent gargle, particu-

larly in rather chronic (prolonged) cases of sore throat.

Tar. An old-time remedy for chronic bronchial trouble; especially likely to do good by inhalation. A tin cup containing Tar may le kept over a slow flame, in the room with the invalid, so as to give off Tar vapor into the air. A good way is to have the cup of Tar in a vessel of hot Water; the heat acting upon the Water, so that it never heats the Tar so much as to decompose it. Or it may be used with a simple inhaler. (See Inhalation.)

Tar Ointment is a valuable preparation in some skin diseases. It will generally cure ringworm. For this purpose, it should be rubbed gently but thoroughly over the ringworm at night (the part being, if practicable, the covered with a soft light rag, over which is oiled silk), and cleaned off carefully with warm water and Castile Soap in the

morning.

Taraxacum. Everybody knows the Dandelion plant (Dent-de-lion, French, fo. lion's tooth, from the form of the leaf). Taraxacum Densleonis is its botanical name. The leaves are liked by some people as a kind of "greens" for the table. The root has long been known, when chewed or drunk in the form of a tea, to act upon the kidneys, increasing the flow of water. Besides this diuretic action, it appears also to aid in relieving torpor of the liver.

Extract of Taraxacum is the most convenient preparation. In tenor twenty-Grain doses it may be taken by those who have symptoms threatening bilious colic, or who, from nausea, dizziness, a bitter taste, and yellow eyes and tongue, appear to suffer from imperfect removal of bile from the system. It is thus a mild and safe assistant to, or perhaps

substitute for, Blue Mass.

Tarrant's Powders. A moderately active and not unpleasant cooling purgative. Dose, from a Teaspoonful to a Table poonful according

to the amount of effect desired.

Tartar Emetic. A very harsh drug in its effects upon the human body, unless it be given in very small doses. Other emetics are always

to be preferred when vomiting is to be produced. Its greatest value is in small doses as a sedative and expectorant in highly inflammatory cases of pneumonia or acute bronchitis. Once, in these affections, and in pleurisy, it was given (first in Italy) in one-Grain doses. This practice is not now followed. From one-sixteenth to one-fourth of a Grain for an adult will be enough, every two or three hours. For children, Tartar Emetic is too prostrating to be used unless for quite exceptional reasons. Coxe's Hive Syrup, formerly a common medicine for croup, should be excluded from the family medicine-chest, on account of its containing Tartar Emetic. Antimonial Wine is open to the same objection; Wine of Ipecac. is similar in effect, but much safer.

Tartar Emetic Ointment is occasionally employed as a powerful counter-irritant, applied to the chest or spine. It causes a sore pustular eruption, more severe even than that made by Croton Oil used in the same way.

Tobacco. Boys with their "first cigar" find out the siekening and depressing action of this narcotic weed. Under Hygiene we have discussed its injurious effects as an indulgence, whether smoked or chewed. Country people sometimes relieve spasmodic croup by laying upon the throat and chest of the child a Tobacco leaf, sprinkled with hot water or whisky to bring out its strength. If left on long in this way, it is said in a few instances to have had enough nicotin absorbed through the child's skin to cause death. Physicians now and then inject a solution of Tobacco into the bowels to relax the muscles for the reduction of a strangulated hernia. (See Rupture, hereafter.)

Turpentine, Oil or Spirit of. Used occasionally by physicians as a medicine internally, in ten-drop doses, in typhoid fever (as an alterative to the diseased bowel), and in chronic rheumatism; in larger quantities, even a teaspoonful or more, in cases of tapeworm, and as an antidote for phosphorus poisoning. Oil of Turpentine is a very heating, stimulating article, and had better not be taken internally without medical advice. It excites the kidneys, although not always producing an increased flow of urine.

Externally, it is a good warming application (half and half with sweet oil, if the skin of the patient be delicate) for sore throat, pain in the side or back, etc. It may cause some soreness and a slight eruption,

Valerian. The root of an herb native to the Old World, of which the Tincture and Fluid Extract are most used. It is a mild nervous



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stimulant and antispasmodic (composing agent). In hysterical cases, and in some cases of delirium tremens, it is very serviceable. Dose of the Tincture, a Teaspoonful; of the Fluid Extract, the same; either being diluted with Wnter when taken.

Valerianate of Ammonia is often given, in the form of an *Elixir*, in teaspoonful doses, to promote sleep in cases of restlessness at night. Valerianate of Zinc is a nerve-tonic; sometimes prescribed by physicians, in one-Grain doses, for *epilepsy*.

Veratria. A vegetable alkaloid of great power to affect the nervous system. Like Aconite, when applied to part it causes a prickling sensation and numbers. In the strength of twenty Grains to an Ounce of Lard, it makes an ointment which may be applied to the sent of pain in severe neuralgia. It is rarely given internally as a malicine.

Veratrum Viride (American Hellebore). A very powerful sedative; too much so for domestic practice, without medical advice. It is given by physicians in inflammator, febrile attacks, and also in the prolonged over-action of the heart and blood-vessels belonging to exophthalmic goitre and eneuring of the aorta (which see). Dose, from three to six Drops every three or four hours; the effect being closely watched, lest, with nausea and voniting, it produce dangerous prostration.

Vichy Water. An alkaline (antacid) Mineral Water of France, more agreeable because of its containing some free Carbonic Acid gas. It is recommended for dyspepsia with som stomach; for gravel, and for gout; especially when the last named affects the stomach and digestion. Vichy lozenges are sold by ap. "ecaries, being intended to imitate Vichy Water when dissolved. They are often found serviceable to persons subject to source s of stomach after eating.

Warner's Cordial. Tincture of Rhubarh and Senna this is, by composition. It is a warming, stimulating laxative to the bowels; good in gouty cases, and many others. Dose, one or two Tenspoonfuls, in water.

Watermelon-Seed Tea is an old remedy for dropsy. It is a diuretic, of considerable pawer, and quite safe, if it does not always cure. A couple of Tublespoonfuls of the seeds may be infused in a Pint of hot water, and left covered for an hour or two. It is least disagreeable when taken cold; dose, a Wineglassful (or less, if the stomach be weak) three or four times a day.

Wild Cherry Bark. One of our native American medicines, of real value. Like the fruit and leaves of the Wild Cherry tree, and like Peach leaves and fruit-stones, this bark contains principles which, when water is added, make small quantity of Prussie (Cyanohydric or Hydrocyanie) Acid. This is a decided sedative to the blood-circulation, while Wild Cherry Bark has also somewhat of the tonic property which is more largely possessed by the vegetable bitters. It is, therefore, a Sedative tonic. It is adapted to cases of bronchial inflammation, especially in rather feeble persons. I have known it to do good even in consumption of the lungs. A cold infusion (ten) may be made by soaking pieces of the Bark in cold water over night. This may be drunk freely, so long as the stomech is not oppressed by it. But more convenient are the Syrup and Fluid Extract of Wild Cherry Bark. The Syrup is an excellent cough-medicine, at any stage of a cough, having a particularly soothing and quieting influence upon the air-passages. It may be taken at first with Syrup of Ipecae,, to loosen the cough; then with Syrup of Squills, to hasten the cure; and afterward, if need be, when it is well loosened and yet troublesome, with a little Puregoric also. Dose, a Teaspoonful. Much more at time will sieken some persons.

Fluid Extract of Wild Cherry Bark is more of a simple appetizing toric, for general debility. Dose, a Teaspoonfed, thrice daily.

'Wistar's Lozenges. These are made of Liquorice, Gum-Arabic, Sugar, Oil of Anise, and a little Opium. They are very quieting to a cough, but, as Opium tends to eleck expectoration, they are not suitable for the early, tight stage; their ting is when cough is loosened thoroughly, but is annoying and interferes with sleep rt night. From one to four Lozenges may be dissolved slowly in the meanth in the course of a night if required.

Many more drugs might be here named, and their properties and uses described. But I think it best to confine our attention to those best tried and known to the medical profession. Others may be read about in medical works.

DOSES OF PRINCIPAL MEDICINES.

Acetate of Ammoniu a Solution	CIPAL MEDICINES.
Aromatic Spirit of Assuration	1 Tablespoonful.
and continue in Ivili	10 to 30 Drops
Assafcetida, Mill.	3 to 5 Grains.
Blue Pill	Teaspoonful to Tablespoonful.
Bronide of Potassium on S. 1	d Grain . 3 Grains.

Bromide of	Potassium	or Sodium	d Grain of 3 Grains.
Cainput Oil			o to 20 Granis, .

	o to 20 Grains.
Cajuput Oil .	
Caloniel	* to o Drong.
Camphor, Spirit	Ta Grain to 2 or 3 Contact
Camphor Water	- 10 00 TMODS
Curdanioni, Compound Tincture	Teaspoonful to Table
Custor-Oil	- constatility
Catecliu, Tincture	Teaspoonful to Table
Cathartic Pills, Compound	Half-Teaspoenful to Tablespoonful. 1 Pill.
Chalk Mixture	
Chloral Hydrate	Teaspoonful to Tablespoonful.
Chlorate of Potassium	5 to 30 Grains.
Chloride of Ammonium (Muria of Ammonia)	5 to 20 Grains.
Chloroform internal	5 to 20 Grains

Chlorate of Potassium	o to so Grains.
Chloride of Ammonium (1	5 to 20 Grains.
A. STRIMONIST	niuriate
Chloroform, internally	· 5 to 20 Grains.
Cinchonia, Sulphato	· 5 to 50 Drops.
Citrate of Magnasian C.	2 to 3 Grains
Citrate of Magnesium Com	tion 1 or 2 Wineglassfuls. Tellespoonful to Tablespoonful.
Cod-Liver Oil	reaspoonful to Tablemen 6.1
Colchienm Wine Co	· 1 Tallespoonful

Cod-Liver Oil	manated	1 Tallement to Tablespoonful
Colchicum, Wine of Root		* Taviespoonful
Cream of Tartar	•	10 to 20 Drops
Creasote	•	Teaspoonful to Tablespoonful.
Croton Oil, internally	•	1 Drop.
on, internally		170

Croton Oil, internally	•	•	1 Drop.
on, internally	•	•	1 Drop.
Digitalia Tingtun			

Digitalis, Tincture. Dover's Powders	•	•	10 to 15 Drops.
Flatent		•	10 Grains, at night.

		an uight.
•	•	it of a Grain.
•	•	10 to 15 Drops.
•		1 or 2 Teaspoonfule
•	•	Teaspoonful to Table
• ,	•	Half Teaspoonful to 2 Teaspoonfula
	•	

Gentian, Compound Tincture .	1 or 2 Teaspoonfuls.
Ginger, Essence of	10 to 30 Drops.
Glycerin, internally	1 or 2 Teaspoonfuls.
diyeein, mee-	
Hoffmann's Anodyne	1 or 2 Teaspoonfuls.
Hops, Tincture of	1 or 2 Teaspoonfuls.
Hunyadi Janos Water	1 Wineglassful.
Huxham's Tincture • •	1 Teaspoonful.
AIGENIA DE LA CONTRACTOR DE LA CONTRACTO	
Iodide of Potassium	5 to 10 Grains.
Iodine, Lugol's Solution	10 to 15 Drops.
Iodoform, internally	1 Grain.
Inecacuanha, Syrup or Wine .	10 Drops to 1 Tenspoonful.
Iron, Pill of Carbonate (Vallet's	3 to 5 Grains.
Iron, Tincture of Chloride .	10 to 20 Drops.
2200,	# . 40 Chains
Jalap	5 to 10 Grains.
	1 or 2 Teaspoonfuls.
Lactucarium, Syrup	10 to 30 Drops.
Laudanum	1 or 2 Teaspoonfuls.
Lavender, Compound Spirit .	Dessertspoonful to Tablespoonful
Lime-water	20 Drops to a Teaspoonful.
Lobelia, Tincture	1 or 2 Teaspoonfuls.
Lupulin, Tincture of	1 of 2 rempositions
as all Calained	1 Teaspoonful.
Magnesia, Calcined	4 or 5 Drops.
Morphia, Magendie's Solution	1 Teaspoonful.
Morphia, Solution	3 to 5 Grains.
Musk · · · ·	
Nux Vomica, Extract	1 to 1 Grain.
Nux Vomica, Tincture	10 to 20 Drops.
Nux vomica, Timetare	
Opium · · · ·	1 Grain.
Op	- m
Paregoric · · · ·	1 Teaspoonful.
Peppermint, Essence	1 to 10 Drops.
Permanganate of Potassium, in	nter-
n'ally .	. 1 or z Grains.
Pink Root, Fluid Extract	1 Teaspoonful.
Pink Root and Senna, Extract	1 Teaspoonful.
Podophyllin	drain.
Püllna Water	1 Tablespoonful.

UF	KINCIPAL MEDERAL
Quinine	PRINCIPAL MEDICINES 359
	· 1 or 2 Grains.
Rochelle Salt.	
Rhubarb, in Pill	Teaspoonful to Tablespoonful.
Rhubarh St. 1	· 3 to 5 Grains.
Rhubarb, Simple Syrup	Teaspoonful
Rhubarb, Spiced Syrup.	Teaspoonful to Tablespoonful.
Santonin	· Teaspoonful to Tablespoonful.
Senna, Fluid Extract	· 1 to 3 Grains.
Sode Pinet	· Teaspoonful to man
Soda, Bicarbonate	 Teaspoonful to Tablespoonful. 2 to 20 Grains.
Squills, Syrup	Half Toom
	· Half Teaspoonful to Teaspoonful.
Tannic Acid	3 Grains.
Taravague	o Grains.
Taraxacum, Extract	10 to 20 Grains.
Tarrant's Powders .	Torons 6.1
Vont	Teaspoonful to Tablespoonful.
Veratrum Viride, Tincture .	
	3 to 6 Drops.
Warner's Cordial	1 - 0 =
WILL Unerry Ross C	1 or 2 Teaspoonfuls.
Wild Cherry Bark, Fluid E-	1 Teaspoonful.
Wild Cherry Bark, Fluid Extra	ect I Teaspoonful.
[On Administration of Medici	

[On Administration of Medicines, see Nursing.]





MEDICINE CHEST

HOUSEHOLD MEDICINES.

From the author's "Family Adviser and Guide to the Medicine Chest" is taken the following list of the most useful and desirable remedies needed. They may be adapted for every size of Medicine Chest, whether for Plantations, Ships, Families, or Travellers:

LIQUIDS IN BOTTLES.

Castor-Oil, Essen of Ginger, Laudanum, Paregoric, Spirits of Hartshorn, Spirits of Camphor, Sweet Spirits of Nitre, Hoffmann's Anodyne, Tincture of Arnica, Soap Liniment, Syrup of Squills, Aromatic Syrup of Rhubarb, Simple Syrup of Rhubarb, Compound Spirits of Lavender, Chloroform Liniment, Syrup of Ipecacuanha, Tincture of Chloride of Iron, Fluid Extract of Valerian, Chalk Mixture, Solution of Persulphate of Iron,

Washed Ether. Aromatic Spirits of Hartshorn, Collodion, Diarrhœa and Cholera Mixture, Wine of Ipecacuanha, Wine of Ergot, Wine of Colchicum, Essence of Peppermint, Glycerin, Tincture of Myrrh, Tincture of Catechu, Warner's Cordial, Tincture of Aloes and Myrrh, Fluid Extract of Spigelia and Senna, Tincture of Lobelia, Aromatic Sulphuric Acid, Syrup of Senega, Tincture of Capsicum, Chloroform, Spirits of Turpentine.

PILLS, POWDERS, ETC.,

From which selections can be made and adapted to any of the Chesta furnished by druggists.

Rhubarb Pills,
Compound Cathartic Pills,
Blue Pills,
Compound Gentian Pills,
Tannin and Opium Pills,
Quinine Pills,
Opium Pills, 1 gr.,

Assafœtida Pills, 3 gr., Lady Webster's Pills.

POWDERS.

Alum,
Borax,
Chlorate of Potash,
Cream of Tartar,
Sugar of Lead,

Husband's Magnesia, Tarrant's Aperient, Bicarbonate of Sodium, Citrate of Potassium, Gum-Arabic, Rochelle Salts, Calomel, 1 gr., Dover's, 10 gr.

SUNDRIES.

Opium Suppositories, 2 gr., Santonin Suppositories, 3 gr., Santouin Dragees, Wistar's Cough Lozenges, Simple Cerate, Cold Cream, Blistering Cerate, Cocoa Butter, Camphor Tablet, Adhesive Plaster,

Court Plaster, Camel-Hair Pencils, Lint, Oiled Silk, Enema Syringe, Scales and Weights, Mortar and Pestle, Spatulas,

Bandages, Tweezers, Medicine Measure, Scissors, Castile Soap, Sponge, Thread, Cork-Screws, Lancet, Wax. Eye-Glass, Ear Syringe.

MEDICINE CHEST, No. 1.

Containing 28 Bottles-10 four-ounce, 12 two-ounce, and \$ balfounce. With Drawers, Jars, etc. Price, \$30.

Castor-Oil, Essence of Ginger, Spiced Syrup of Rhubarb, Simple Syrup of Rhubarb, Camphor-water, Lime-water, Cinnamon-water, Paregoric, Spirits of Camphor, Spirits of Hartshorn, Laudanum, Syrup of Ipecacuanha, Syrup of Squills, Sweet Spirits of Nitre, Hoffmann's Anodyne,

Chalk Mixture Powder, Compound Spirits of Lavender, Anodyne Carminative (Cholers Mixture,) Tincture of Arnica, Soap Liniment, Essence of Peppermint, Spirits of Turpentine, Collodion, Aromatic Spirits of Ammonia, Tincture of Capsicum, Aromatic Sulphuric Acid, Wine of Colchicum, Glycerin.

PART III.

NURSING.

In many kinds of illness, especially continued fevers, and other attacks attended by great debility, good nursing is well known to be as important as good doctoring. A careful physician will direct not only the medicines of the patient, but also his food, and all other matters concerning him—as his covering, changes of clothing, air in his room, etc. But the carrying out of such directions must be left to those immediately in charge of the sick person from hour to hour; and questions will occur in the doctor's absence, sometimes of much importance, which those who nurse the patient must answer and act upon at the moment, from their own knowledge. Moreover, the manner of doing things in the care of a sick person makes an immense difference in his comfort. In critical cases it may even decide between recovery and death.

What are the qualities that make a good nurse? They are kindness, good common sense, carefulness, quietness, neatness, handiness, cheerfulness.

Kind a nurse must be, or mere professional skill and obligation will fail to effect all that is needed for the best welfare of a patient. Sympathy is worth much to a sufferer. It is to the mind what warmth is to the body; and the absence of it, shown in face and manner, will aet like a draught of cold, damp air or a wet blanket. Patience is often called for in attendance upon the sick, and selfish people do not have a large stock of this, which can be bought with money; it must come from love, or, at least, from genuine kindness of heart.

Common sense, that is, intelligence such as most people, not particularly deficient, possess, will enable any one to *learn* what is necessary in nursing, and to do it respectably, at least. Of course, really superior intelligence is a very good thing in nursing; and will bring the best results in this, as in anything else. But most people can become good nurses, if they try, with the help and advice of those who have had experience.

Carefulness is indispensable. One who will give a dose of medi-363 cine wi:hout looking at the label on the bottle; or will spill out twenty drops when ten were ordered; or will upset a breakfast tray on the bed; or leave a vessel under the bed for hours uncovered; or sleep six hours when the patient should have food or medicine every two hours; or let the fire go out when the room without it is cold; such an one is entirely unfit to have charge of a sick person under any circumstances.

Exactness in carrying out the orders of the physician is the first duty of a nurse. The doctor is responsible for the treatment of the e, and the patient and family are responsible for the choice of the doctor. He is chosen because he is believed to have the knowledge and skill required. If the family thought they knew enough to manage the illness, they would not send for the doctor. When they have sent for him, it is wise and right to accept and carry out his orders. The nurse, whether man or woman, who thinks he or she "knows better than the doctor," is a very dangerous and unsuitable person to have about the

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Sleeping heavily is a weakness from which some suffer when in care of ill patients at night. It is a good thing to learn to wake with a sound or a touch. By fixing it strongly on the mind, most people can do this. It is best, however, for those who are nursing to arrange to be relieved at certain hours, when they can be best done without, so as to get enough sleep, whenever possible, in every twenty-four hours. To oblige the same person to be at the bedside of an ill person day and night, for weeks together, is not only cruel to the one so overtasked, but it risks unfitting the nurse for good service. A break-down may come, just at a critical moment, and then the family is left under a calamity which might have been prevented by proper consideration from the start. It is wonderful how thoughtless some people are about such

Watchfulness in everything is the duty of a nurse. Without it, a patient may get out of bed in a delirium, and perhaps fall down stairs or out of the window. Or, the clothing may be thrown off, and a deadly chill will follow. Or the time for food may pass by, and nothing is ready; so that exhaustion comes, and all the symptoms are worse in consequence. In a thousand things the life of the sufferer may be in the hands of the nurse, as the safety of the passengers and cargo of a ship is in that of the pilot at the helm. (If, as we have suggested on a previous page, the doctor is the captain, the place of steersman may well be given to the nurse.)

When many doses of medicine or portions of food have to be given through the day and night, it is best that the times and quantities shall be written down, instead of trusting to memory. And then, a mark of record of some kind being made when each thing is given, this makes ready a report of the treatment for the doctor to see when he comes.

Quietness is very necessary in the siek-room. Stamping around in heavy or creaking shoes, talking in a loud voice or loud laughter, swinging in a rocking-chair, slamming doors or windows, or even much rustling of garments; all noises are utterly inadmissible and injurious. Yet whispering, and creeping on tiptoe in sight of the patient, are about as bad, because they attract his attention unpleasantly, and that is always to be avoided. Slippers or soft shoes should always be worn, and a wrapper or something that does not rustle. Rattling of spoons or dishes also must be prevented. Nothing should ever be cooked or washed in the sick-chamber. If coal is to be put on the fire, let it be wrapped in paper outside of the chamber, and put, paper and all, into the grate or stove.

Never ask a patient whether he would "like to eat or drink" suchand-such a thing. Prepare and bring, under the directions of the doctor, what wall be best and most likely to be taken, and offer it quietly. If not taken in a little while, remove it out of sight. Keep no food or medicine in sight of a sick person. The next room, or an entry near, may often be convenient for such things. When one room only is available, find a place out of his sight for them, or put up something as

a screen to conceal them.

Neatness is a very similar quality to quietness. Nothing should be allowed to be slovenly, much less dirty, around a sick person. Yet "fuss" and much movement in clearing up are to be avoided. A wet eloth will be better than a brush or broom in cleaning furniture and carpet (if there be a carpet, of which something presently). When the restlessness of a patient puts all his bedelothes out of order, gently straighten them up again; not for his comfort of body only, but for the

mental impression going with it.

Handiness is an excellent quality in doing all sorts of things, in the sick-room, as well as everywhere else. While it is not absolutely indispensable, its opposite, clumsiness or awkwardness, may cause much discomfort. I have known one or two men who, in a surgical ward of a hospital, could hardly go near to a patient without somehow hurting him. Such persons as are naturally and unavoidably clumsy had better be called upon to do outside errands rather than bodily service in mediately about the sick. Great kindness, however, will often conquer this infirmity. Very seldom will a mother handle her baby so elumsily as to hurt it; although examples have occurred of their "overlying" them, that is, turning over upon them and smothering them while asleep beside them in bed.

Cheerfulness is an excellent attribute in the sick-room. pleasant as sunshine, and wholesome like it, without any of its glare. A long face or a whining voice should never enter where there is suffering enough already. Let every one endeavor to make the best of all things, and the most of hope. Should we lie to patients, then, and tell them they are getting well, when they are about to die? I have known one physician who had the very bad habit of doing this. It is morally wrong, and inexcusable. It only causes the worse shock when the truth makes itself known. But hope is to be encouraged. When there is doubt, leaning toward the brighter side is well; and, as the proverb says, "while there is life there is hope."

Speaking of a patient's symptoms in his presence (unless when needful questions have to be asked) is to be avoided. Also, there must be no discussion or mention there of other people's illnesses or deaths. Much talking of any kind is out of place in the siek-chamber; it interferes with that rest of brain which, in all kinds of illness, is important.

So far, we have been considering the qualities requisite to adapt any one for the duty of ni sing. Now we may look at the particular needs of the sick, on their side, which have to be attended to by those in charge of them. These concern the room, its warmth, light, and wir; the bed, its pillows and covering, and the patient's clothing next his person; his washing or bathing; his food, medicine, excretions, sleep, and mental management. Rubbing, and the management of child-birth, will also afterwards receive our attention.

THE SICK-ROOM.

When it is possible to choose, the room should be on the sunny side of the house, and on the second floor. It should be as large as can be; that is, as chambers are in most dwelling-houses. There will be no advantage in its being more than twenty or thirty feet square, with twelve to fifteen feet of height to the ceiling. If a room is necessarily small, more contrivance will be required to meet all the conditions wanted in the care of an ill person.

Plenty of large windows are desirable in a sick-room. Should there unfortunately be only one window, it will be almost impossible to air the room properly, unless there be an open transom over the door, or the door be left open most of the time. When two rooms communicate, one of them may with advantage be given up to the patient, and the other to the nurse and to various appliances, which may thus be kept

out of the sick one's sight.

But little furniture should be in the sick-room. A few chairs and tables will suffice, one being a bedside table for frequent use. A bedchair (night-chair) or portable earth-closet will be very serviceable for a patient who is strong enough to get or be helped out of bed. No carpet should be on the floor, except movable pieces or rugs, placed where they are needed for warmth to the feet and to prevent noise in moving about.

No bed-curtains should be allowed; nor heavy window-curtains. Good blinds or shades are needful to regulate the admission or exclusion

of light.

WARMTH.

A sick-room should, generally, be kept at a temperature between 68° and 70° Fahr. In a few exceptional cases, physicians may wish to have a room much warmer, at particular times. When fuel is scarce, and the room is small, it will be best to secure good air to breathe, even at the loss of some degrees of temperature in the room; this being made up by sufficient covering for the patient. But, in most instances, air may be, with care, kept pure and sufficiently warm at the same time.

The best kind of fire for a sick-room is an open wood fire in the chimney-place. Next to that is an open coal-grate, with a good draught to secure it from escape of gas. If only a stove can be had, a woodburning stove should be preferred. With a stove which burns coal, the greatest care will be necessary to prevent coal-gas from getting out into the room, and also to keep the air moist enough by having water in a

pan always upon the stove.

Furnace-heated air is objectionable as a dependence in a sick-room, although very well to have within reach to supplement an open fire. The warmth of most furnaces is variable and nucertain; some of them allow gas to get into their air-chambers, and so to pass through the house; and, at the best, they require special pains to provide ventilation, which the heater itself does not furnish.

For the body of a sick patient to be kept warm enough to be comfortable, is one of the quite indispensable things. It should be ascertained from time to time, especially about the feet. Blankets and quilts will not always insure warmth; they only protect it when the body has it of Whenever a sick person's feet are cold, something warm should be at once put to them. A heated fire-stone, or a common brick, or a bottle, or pan of hot water, or a bag of hot salt, will do. Only never let your patient be chilled, for a single minute, when it can be helped.

LIGHT.

While the sunny side of the house is the best, and sunlight should be admitted (with few exceptiors only) every day into the room, the siek person's eyes should not be exposed to a direct glare. The bed may be so turned that the window is out of the patient's sight; or, if this cannot be, a screen of some kind should be so placed as to shield his eyes from it. At times, when sleep is desirable, the light should be almost all shut At night, no flame of a lamp, candle, or gas-burner should be exposed to the patient's view. Either should be shaded, or otherwise concealed. A gas-burner may, of course, be turned down; and, besides, a movable tin burner-shade attached to it is a great convenience. Some persons, even when well, cannot sleep with the flame of ever so lowturned a gas-burner in their sight. It is not safe, moreover, to turn a gas-burner very low. A change of pressure at the source of supply may put out the light, and allow a leakage of gas, dangerous to any one sleeping in the room.

AIR.

Under Hygiene, the principles of ventilation have been fully discussed. In the sick-room, the things to be done are, to have the air changed constantly, and at the same time to prevent direct draughts upon the patient's bed. If there are several windows, all but the one nearest the bed may be open a little at top and a little at bottom; more or less according to the weather. In really warm weather, of course, everything may be opened wide all the time.

With only one window in a room, as already said, there ought to be another outlet for air, such as a transom over a door; or, in the absence

of this, the door itself may be left open. This will require attention to the air of the room, or passage, communicating by that door with the room. If the air of the house is foul, that will hurt the condition of the sick-room, when the door of the latter is left open. Yet, symehow, both an inlet and an outlet are needed, to change the air of the room.

In very cold weather, when it is impossible safely to have (as is always best) a constant and considerable movement of air through the room, the next best thing will be to have chosen times of airing it thoroughly. Cover the patient with extra blankets or coverlids, protecting even the head and face for the time; and then open the window or windows and doors wide for a few minutes. Upon closing them, see that the patient keeps his extra cover until the room is warm enough

again.

Few people appreciate the value of pure air for the sick. During the Civil War, it was found that wounded soldiers, and those ill with fever, did better in the tent hospitals, or even out on the open field where sometimes, after a battle, they were unavoidably left for two or three days), than in the close wards of an ordinary hospital in a town. I remember two patients suffering with inflammation of the lungs, one of them a lad more than eighty years of age, who felt the need of pure cold air so much, that they insisted on having the windows in the rooms open all the time, though the thermometer stood at several degrees below the freezing-point.

THE SICK-BED.

What will be best? A wide and rather low bedstead, for case in getting in and out; a wire bed-bottom; next best to it, one on good springs, with a thick but soft mattress; if it be a slat bedstead, then with a feather bed upon the slats under the mattress. No curtains should be placed around the bed. Why? Because they check the free and abundant supply of air to the patient. If the bed were out of doors, in winter, curtains might be endurable. They were, no doubt, invented when houses were almost as cold at out-of-doors.

Pillows are often useful, to put in spaces, in propping a patient up, or to relieve some particular pressure. A sheet, as a rule, not a blanket, should be next to the body. The blanket first is only proper when the patient is very hard to keep warm, or when one quite ill is lifted into and ont of a bath. A down quilt is the nicest top-piece; its lightness is a great advantage. Some patients can hardly bear the pressure of the bedclothes. Over an inflamed or injured limb, it is often necessary to put a support to keep them off. This may be made by breaking a barrel-hoop in two, and placing the pieces across each other (fastened at the middle for steadiness) under the clothes.

Changing the bedclothes requires care, but it ought to be done often. When there is likely to be anything to soil the bed, a large piece of rubber-cloth or oil-cloth should be put upon the mattress, beneath the under sheet. In cases of labor, a second rubber- or oil-cloth had better be placed upon the lower sheet, and another sheet over it, so that the latter and the upper rubber-cloth may be removed, leaving the bed still protected.

Sheets, especially, ought to be changed often. When practicable, once in twenty-four hours will be desirable in a severe illness. To make the change, warm a sheet thoroughly (being sure first that it is entirely dry; a damp sheet may be deadly), and fold it, lengthwise. Then fold, also lengthwise, one side of the under-sheet on the bed, up against the patient's side. Push the fresh-warmed sheet along near him, and have some one to lift, first his head and shoulders, and afterwards his legs and feet. Then, while he is lifted, prover and sheet along near from under and beyond him, and roll out the fresh and of it) to take its place. It will then be easy to draw it smooth. To change the upper sheet, the fresh one, being first warmed, may be rolled either in its width or in its length, and passed under the sheet already over the

putient's body, into its place, without disturbing him at all. It requires

two persons, one on each side of the bed, to do this well.

Bedaores are very troublesome occasional results of continued pressure, while one is lying long in bed; they are especially apt to occur in very thin and weak persons. Most of a very are liable to happen when, from an injury or serious disease—some part, the patient carnot change his position from time to time. This is the case with fractures of the thigh or log. In such instances the utmost care must be taken to preserve the soundness of the skin where it is most present pan. It must be examined every day, and bathed gently with whisky or map limiment. When redness and tenderness of the skin begin to

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AIN- OR WATER-CUSHIOMS.

appear, a protection to it hast be supplied, by covering the part with a piece of soft, thick buckskin, upon which soap-plaster has been smoothly spread; or, if that is not at hand, two layers of adhesive plaster, very moothly adjusted to the surface, will do for the purpose. Small pillows, or air- or water-cushions, in rings or other shapes, are often employed to take the pressure off of tender parts. They may sometimes do good; but, in surgical practice, I have been repeatedly disappointed with them, especially with air- and water-cushions or pillows. When bedsores actually occur, it is necessary to relieve the sores from pressure; and, besides, they must be treated like open wounds or ulcera. (See Ulcera, later, under Accidents and Injuries, etc.)

SICK-GARMENTS.

As simple as possible these should be. One sufficiently warm and long night-shirt or night-gown will, as a rule, be enough; the less worn, the easier will it be to make changes. If the limbs incline to be cold, light drawers may be added; with the old and feeble, stockings also. Changes of garments worn constantly in bed should be frequent. One "robe" for the day and another for the night would be well, but for the fatigue of so many movements.

There should be no exposure to cold during such changes. There need be none, if the room is moderately warm at the time (70° Fahr.) and the fresh garment is well warmed near the bed. One arm should be taken out of the sleeve it is in, and put in the new one; then the old shirt should be lifted off over the head, and the new one put in its place; leatly, the other arm should be changed and the shirt drawn down. When a long gown is ready to put down over the head and shoulders, the old one can be drawn off at the feet.

If any garment becomes soiled, it must be removed as soon as possible. There are, of course, some states of extreme debility in which it is not safe to move the patient so often as above said. But, by having garments made loose, and cut or ripped if necessary to facilitate removal, the refrashment of such changes may be obtained in more cases of themse than many people suppose.

When the disease from which a patient suffers is contagious, as small-pox, learlet fever, messles or typhus fever, every article of clothing worn, as well as the sheets, blankets and bedding, must be (for mafety to others) either boiled or burned. In malignant cases, or those attended by much soiling of the clothes, they had better be burned. In other instances they may be thoroughly bailed, and then spread out in the sun to dry.

WASHING AND BATHING.

Every morning, at least, a sick person's face should be freshened up by washing, in whatever manner his strength best allows. One really ill must have it done by another person. A soft "wash-rag" may be used. The water may be cold, if there is fever, or if there is not prostration with a tendency to chilliness. In the latter case, warm water is better, even for the face. Warm water should be used also to wash the arms and legs and other parts of the body. In weak conditions, whisky may be added to warm water for bathing the limbs, and pure whisky or soap liniment should be used to bathe any parts of the skin which are subject to pressure. This is often important to prevent bed-sores. If the skin is quit or almost broken, a piece of buckskin spread smoothly with soap-plaster, or a piece of elastic adhesive plaster, or even common adhesive plaster (two thicknesses) may be, as already said, put on to make an artificial protective cutticle.

When fever is hot and high, cool washing of the body is of great value. Some physicians now advise even cold baths for typhoid fever. I do not think well of this practice; unless, at all events, the patient is put in water which is at first warm or tepid, and cooled down gradually; also, without exposure to a low temperature for many minutes at a time. But cool sponging, in scarlet fever as well as in typhoid, is, without doubt, not only relieving but useful. It may be repeated two or three times daily.

In cases of *low* fever, and other cases in which restlessness at night is a symptom, bathing the arms and legs (one at a time, so as not to chill by exposure) with whisky and hot water (equal parts) often gives much comfort and promotes sleep.

Warm baths are frequently very beneficial in states of nervous excitement; as in the convulsions of children. Prolonged warm baths are also advised sometimes for tetanus (lock-jaw), and to promote the reduction of hernia (rupture). In spasmodic croup in children, a warm bath is often helpful. Hot baths do good in cold or depressed conditions of the system; as in chronic rheumatism or neuralgia; and when the eruption does not come out or stay out well in scarlet fever, measles, or small-pox. (See pages 342 and 556 on Bathing.)

FOOD OF THE SICK.

Appetite almost disappears in severe illness, especially when there is fever; and the capacity to digest food is then nearly lost. Yet, in acute febrile attacks of disease, as well as in prolonged maladies like consumption, the waste of the substance of the body goes on faster than during health. How, then, are we to make it up? Evidently, by giving strong, concentrated food, in the liquid form, in small quantities, at short intervals.

A young and robust person may, at the beginning of an illness, be better for a day or two with almost no food. After that, even such an one will gain by taking frequently small portions of liquid nourishment. Feeble patients need, as a rule, to be so fed from the start.

The main staple article of diet for the sick is the same as for infants; namely, milk. And for the same reasons; that it contains all that is

essential for the system, in a form easy of digestion and appropriation. In typhoid fever, for example, almost from the beginning, a patient may be fed with two tablespoonfuls of milk every two or three hours, day and night. Another concentrated article is beef-tea; and stronger yet, beef-essence. As was remarked under Hygiene, the mistake has been very often made, and is encouraged in many books on such subjects, of straining or filtering beef-tea, after it has been subjected to a boiling heat. Its most nourishing part is thus left behind. It ought to



BED-TABLE (WITH RACK).

be brown with finely divided particles (not solid pieces, of course) of the meat. The same is true also of *essence* of beef, made without the addition of water. (More about these preparations presently.)

Next to these articles of food, come broths or teas of other meats; as mutton and chicken soups. They should, for the sick, be made strong, not watery; but should be thoroughly rid of their fat, by skimming. This can be most effectually done when they have stood and become cool; but, except in the warmest weather, they should be heated again to be taken.

Prepared extracts of beef are much in use, to save trouble in getting the fresh article. Liebig's has been the most famous; but, as it is prepared with heat and then filtered, it leaves out most of the nourishing part of the meat, and is rather a untritive stimulant than a food.

Valentine's beef-juice is prepared without boiling, and has the substance

of the beef in a very concentrated state. Most people can take it very well. Two teaspoonfuls of it may be added to about a quarter of a tumblerful of water (hot or cold, as preferred), this being given two tablespoonfuls, more or less, at a time.

Johnson's fluid beef is agreeable to some persons, and, when so, answers a very good purpose. To my taste, it is unpleasant. Many physicians recommend it, and use it largely. Beef peptonoids are much used.

Jellies are weak food; good only for variety, or to hold something stronger, as a matter of taste.

Fruits are commonly pleasant during fever, but they are most of them rather too hard to digest. Malaga grapes will almost always agree well. Orange juice (without swallowing the pulp) does so also, and is often very refreshing to the sick. Lemonade is pleasant and cooling, but requires consideration of the condition of the stomach and bowels at the time. One of the best things to clean a foul tongue during fever, is half a lemon, passed slowly over it now and then.

Stimulants are often added to the diet of the siek, when patients are much prostrated or exhausted. Their use requires great caution and judgment. As a rule, they should not be employed without the advice of a physician. Wine-whey and whisky-punch are most frequently advised. They are most apt to be appropriate in typhus fever, in the weakest cases of typhoid fever, and in the late stages of severe acute diseases. Also, they may be called for in cholera, and in certain conditions which are met with in advanced or advancing consumption of the lungs.



BED-REST.

Convalescence is generally attended by the return of a good appetite and digestive power. The system has to make up for what it has lost during illness. Care is necessary that the patient does not venture too soon upon a varied diet, or the use of things hard of digestion. After typhoid fever, this is particularly necessary. From the special condition of the intestinal canal in that disease, life may be endangered at that time by a single imprudence in diet. Gradually, however, after most diseases, recovery is

marked by ability to eat all ordinary wholesome food, and a variety of digestible dishes may be indulged in, always, of course, avoiding excess.

We will now give directions for preparing a number of articles especially suited for the food of the sick; those, that is, who cannot properly take ordinary solid meals.* Different things are required for different cases. Of this the physician must judge, when one is in attendance. In his absence, those in charge must be guided by the symptoms and conditions present.

BEEF-TEA.

Chop a pound of good lean round of beef into very small pieces. Pour over it a pint, or less (never more) of cold water. Cover it, and let it stand for two hours near the fire, or on a part of the range or stove where it will not become very hot. Then put it right on the fire, and bring it to the boil. As soon as it is fairly boiling, remove it, and take off all the seum from the top. Pour it off from the pieces of meat at the bottom, but do not filter or strain it, unless through a coarse sieve. Straining robs it of much of its nourishment. The fat must be carefully removed, which can be done best with a clean piece of blotting-paper, or a small (salt) spoon. Salt may be added according to taste; when the stomach is weak, also black or red pepper. In the extreme weakness of delirium tremens, red pepper may be freely added; a little of it is suitable in nearly every case where beef-tea is needed. Beef-tea should be stirred just before using it, so as to get a rich brown color.

BEEF-TEA, COLD-MADE.

Chop finely a pound of good beef. Add to it a pint of cold water, in which have been put fifteen drops of chlorohydrie (narratie) acid, and a pinch of salt. Let it stand an hour, and then drain off the liquid. Pour another half-pint of cold water over the beef that is left, and add it to the first quantity. All may be then strained through a coarse sieve, and used cold.

FROZEN BEEF-TEA.

Put a suitable portion of Beef-Tea, made as above first directed, in a convenient vessel, within an ice-cream freezer. Let it then be frozen as if it were cream. This is particularly suitable in the summer complaint (cholera infantum) of children; also in some other cases in hot weather.

^{*} To show that fluid food may suffice even for a length of time, I have just read an account of a man who died at the age of eighty-five years, who, when seven years old, swallowed by mistake some strong lye, the effect of which was to contract his cesophagus (lower gullet) so much, that he never afterwards could swallow solid food.

BEEF ESSENCE.

Cut np a pound of good lean beef into small pieces, and put it into a pint bottle (or other handy receptacle), without any water. Cork the bottle loosely and place it up to its neck in water in a stewpan. Then boil the water in the pan for three or four hours. This will bring out the jnice (essence) of the meat, which should be poured off, not strained. The fat must be removed as with beef-tea. This is the most concentrated of all articles of food. It is often of the greatest value in conditions of prostration; as a little of it goes a great way, while requiring almost no effort of digestion. Red pepper may usually be added to it in moderation, and salt according to taste.

BROILED BEEF JUICE.

Broil a pound of lean beef. Cut it into strips, and press out the juice with a lemon-squeezer or meat-press. A pound of meat will give about three tablespoonfuls of "gravy" or juice. When salted according to taste, it may be taken either hot or cold, as preferred.

RAW-BEEF EXTRACT.

Cut up good lean beef very fine, and put a pound of it with half a pint of cold water in a bottle. Let it soak for about twelve hours, skaking it well half a dozen times or more during that time. Then pour it off through a coarse sieve, and salt according to taste.

RAW-BEEF SCRAPINGS.

Take a piece of good tender beef, and, with a rather dull knife, scrape off all of it that will come, leaving the tough, gristly portions behind. The pasty meat thus obtained may be salted a little and used at once as it is, or it may be rubbed up with half its quantity of granulated white sugar. The latter plan will be likely to suit children best.

Good well-boiled ham (as well as dried beef) may be treated in the same manner. Infants recovering from summer complaint are sometimes very fond of such food.

CHICKEN BROTH.

Clean half a chicken and remove the skin. Pour on it a quart of cold water, and salt to taste. Add a tablespoonful of Carolina rice, and boil slowly for two or three hours. Then skim it well to get off all the fat, and add a little parsley. This is one of the most agreeable of dishes for many sick people.

OATMEAL GRUEL.

Boil a pint of water, and while boiling, mix with it two tablespoonfuls of (Canada, Bethlehem, or Ohio) catmeal, which has been first rubbed smooth in a little cold water; also, add half a pint of milk, and a little salt. Let all simmer together for half an hour, then strain it through a hair-sieve, sweeten, and add a little nutmeg. A few raisins may be added before the boiling.

INDIAN-MEAL GRUEL.

Stir a tablespoonful of Indian meal till it becomes smooth, in half a teaenpful of cold water. Then mix it well with a tenerupful of boiling water, and add half as much milk; then boil it until it is moderately thickened. Salt or sweeten according to taste. Raisins may be put in before boiling, if desired.

BARLEY WATER.

Wash well two ounces of pearl barley with cold water, throwing that water away. Put the barley into a pint and a half of fresh cold water, bring it to the boiling point, and boil for twenty minutes in a covered vessel. Strain, sweeten to taste, and flavor with lemon-jnice and a little lemon-peel. In certain cases, as in using it to feed infants, the lemon had best be omitted.

RICE WATER.

Boil an ounce of Carolina rice in a quart of water for an hour and a half. Pour off or strain, and add either salt or sugar and nutmeg, according to taste. Salt will generally be best.

TOAST WATER.

Cut a slice of stale bread half an inch thick, and toost it brown all over, without scorching. Pour over it a pint of boiling water; cover closely, and let it cool; then pour or strain it off for use as a drink. Some patients like it better when a slice from an apple, and a very little lemon-peel, are laid on the toast before the water is added.

BREAD-AND-BUTTER SOUP.

Spread a slice of well-baked bread with good fresh butter, and sprinkle it moderately with salt and black pepper. Pour a pint boiling water over it, and let it stand a few minutes before use. This will do for patients who mot very siek, a soft article of low diet.

PANADA.

Cut two slices of stale bread, without crust. Toast them brown, cut them up into squares about two inches across, lay them in a bowl, and sprinkle with salt and a little nutmeg. Pour on a pint of boiling water, and let it stand to cool.

VEGETABLE SOUP.

This may be made, of course, in many different ways. The following is about the simplest: put two potatoes, a handful of peas, one ripe tomato, and a piece of bread, into a quart of water, and boil it down to a pint. Then throw in a little chopped celery or parsley, and salt. Cover, and remove from the fire. A delicate stomach may require it to be strained for use.

BOILED FLOUR.

Tie up a quart of wheat flour in a pudding-bag, tightly. Put it into a pot of boiling water, and keep this boiling for several hours (all day or all night will not be too long). Then take out the flour and dry it near the fire. Peel off and throw away the thin outer portion, and grate down the mass, with a nutmeg-grater, into a powder, for use as wanted. One or two teaspoonfuls of this may be rubbed into a paste with a little milk, and then stirred into a pint of milk, which is to be sealded; that is, just brought to the boiling-point, without being boiled. This is often beneficial in the diarrheas of infants or older persons.

ARROW-ROOT.

Mix a tablespoonful or rather more with a little cold water, till it becomes smooth and pasty. Boil a pint of water, stir in the arrow-root, and boil it for a few minutes, until it thickens sufficiently. Sweeten to taste with white sugar, unless salt be preferred. A little lemon-peel or orange-peel added before boiling will improve the flavor.

TAPIOCA.

Cover two tablespoonfuls of tapioca with a full teacupful of cold water, and let it soak for several hours. Put it then into a pint of boiling water, and boil it until it is clear and as thick as is wanted. Sugar, nutmeg, lemon, etc., may be used to season it.

SAGO JELLY.

Mix well together four tablespoonfuls of sago, the juice and rind of one lemon, and a quart of water. Sweeten to taste, let it stand half an hour, and then boil it, stirring constantly, until clear.

FARINA GRUEL.

Mix two tablespoonfuls of farina with a quart of water, and let it boil long enough to become thick. Add a pint of milk and a little salt, and then boil again for a quarter of an Lour. Sweeten according to taste.

RICE MILK.

Boil a tablespoonful of rice for an hour and a half in a pint of fresh milk, then rub it through a fine sieve. Add a tablespoonful of fine (granulated) white sugar, and boil again for two or three minutes.

OATMEAL WITH BEEF-TEA.

Mix a tablespoonful of oatmeal quite smoothly with two tablespoonfuls of cold water. Add this to a pint of strong beef-tea, and heat to the boiling-point, stirring all the time. Boil for five minutes. Then remove from the fire, skim off all the fat, and serve for use.

Other occasional additions to beef-tea, which will agree with all except the most delicate stomachs, are (though not both at once) raw egg and cream.

DR. J. F. MEIGS' GELATIN FOOD.

Soak for a short time in cold water a piece of prepared gelatin two inches square. Boil it, then, in half a pint of water until it dissolves, which will take ten or fifteen minutes. Rub a teaspoonful of arrowroot into a paste with a little cold water, and stir it into the gelatin water at the end of its boiling. Add also from six to twelve table-spoonfuls (according to the child's age) of milk, from one to four table-spoonfuls of cream, and a moderate amount of loaf-sugar.

IMITATION OF MOTHER'S MILK (DR. A. V. MEIGS).

Obtain from a druggist packages of pure milk-sugar containing, each, seventeen and three-quarter drachms. Dissolve one package in a pint of hot water. Mix together two tablespoonfuls of cream, one of milk, two of lime-water, and three of the milk-sugar water. Warm this mixture, and add it to the pint of solution of milk-sugar in hot water. It is then ready for use.

The packages of milk-sugar, while dry, will keep for a long time. The solution of it should not, in hot weather, be kept on hand for more than a day or two, at most.

EGG BROTH.

Mix two ounces of pearl sago in half a pint of cold water, and let it stand half an hour. Then boil it until it becomes smooth and suffi-

ciently thick. Beat the yolks of four fresh eggs with half a pint of cream; then mix with the sago, and stir the whole well with a quart of beef-tea, or ehicken-broth, just made and at boiling heat.

EGG WITH WINE.

Beat up a raw fresh egg, and stir with it one or two tablespoonfuls of Sherry wine. This, as well as the preparations that next follow, is only suitable where *stimulation* is required, under the advice of a physician.

CAUDLE.

Beat up a raw fresh egg with a wineglassful of Sherry wine, and add it to a half pint of hot oatmeal, Indian meal, or farina gruel. Flavor with lemon-peel, nutmeg, and sugar.

WINE WHEY.

Boil half a pint of milk, and while boiling add half a glass or a glass of Sherry or Madeira wine. Strain off the curd through muslin or a sieve. Sweeten the whey to taste, and grate upon it a little nutmeg.

MILK PUNCH.

Into a tumblerful of milk put one or two tablespoonfuls of whisky, brandy, or rum. Sweeten, and grate nutmeg upon it. In some very low states of the system, punch may be directed by physicians made still stronger than this, even as much as a tablespoonful of whisky to one of milk; but the use of such a powerful means of alcoholic stimulation needs great skill and judgment.

KOUMISS.

This mildly stimulant and somewhat nourishing Tartar and Russian drink is made by fermenting mare's milk. It may be quite well imitated, however, by adding to a quart of cow's milk a teaspoonful of granulated white sugar, and a teaspoonful of brewer's yeast, and leaving the mixture to ferment in a covered vessel or corked bottle. When this change has shown itself by the bubbles of effervescence, it is ready for use. If kept for any time, it should be in strong bottles tightly corked (the corks tied down) and in a cool place.

ROAST OYSTERS.

Convalescents can sometimes relish and digest these sooner than an other solid food. (I speak partly from a personal experience, after typhus fever.)

Place a dozen fresh oysters (that is, not long out of their native water)

in the shell (which is closed of itself if they are good) upon a moderately strong fire, and allow them to remain there until their shells open a little. Then take them from the fire, open them at once, retaining the juice if possible, and serve them hot, with perhaps a little black pepper, and salt if needed. If the "hard part" is at all tough, it had better not be eaten.

To KEEP ICE FOR THE SICK.

Cut a piece of clean flanuel about eight inches square. Put this (after making a small hole in its centre) over the top of a glass tumbler, pressing the flanuel down to half or more of the depth of the tumbler. Then bind the flanuel fast to the tumbler with a tape or cord. When ice is put into this flanuel cup, lay over it another piece of clean flanuel, three or four inches square. So covered, it will keep for hours, even in warm weather.

FLOUR FOOD FOR INFANTS.

Let from five to ten pounds of selected wheat flour be packed in a bag so as to form a ball, tied with a strong cord, and boiled with the water constantly covering it from four to seven days. The starch appears to be so changed that it is more soluble and more quickly and easily digested. It not necessary that the water be constantly boiled, provided that it remain hot or warm—the fire may go out at night. The same change may be effected by dry heat, the flour being placed in pans in the oven or on the stove, but it is very liable to be scorched by an excess of heat.

The flour removed from the bag and deprived of its external portion, which is wet, resembles a piece of chalk, but it has a yellowish tinge. The flour should be grated from it as it is required for use, and sifted to separate the small lumps which are likely to be broken off by the sieve. The infant will be better nonrished if instead of diluting the milk with which it is fed with plain water, a thin gruel prepared by boiling a few minutes this flour in water, be employed. Two heaped teaspoonfuls of the flour to a pint of water suffice for infants under the age of three mouths, three teaspoonfuls for infants between the ages of three and six months, and four teaspoonfuls to the pint of water after the age of six months. The proportion of the gruel to the milk should be the same as stated above when pure water is employed.

GIVING MEDICINES.

No one who cannot read should pour out a dose of mec. containing poisonous drugs should be labeled Poison, and such should, when practicable, be kept apart by themselves; and should, especially, never be left within the reach of children. Before powing out or otherwise preparing a dose of medicine, look carefully at the label. No medicine should ever be kept in a bottle or other receptacle without a label. If a bottle which has contained one medicine is wanted for another, let it be thoroughly washed with hot water; and, on putting something new into it, change the label at once. If there is any doubt about the medicine in a bottle, throw it away, do not venture to use it without being sure of its nature.

After ke ing well at the label, before beginning to pour from the bottle, turn ie labeled side away, so as not to pour over it; as some



MINIM GLASS.

GRADUATED MEDICINE GLASSES.

drops are apt to run down on the bottle, and might thus stain and obscure the label so that it could not be read.

Dropping medicine requires care and skill. To do it, moisten one edge of the top of the bottle with the contents of the bottle, and then, holding and tilting the latter in the right hand, with the left very slowly and cautiously withdraw the cork or stopper, until a drop rolls out. As this comes out, at once push the cork in, and then repeat the same process again and again, until the right number of drops has been obtained.

To give medicine (or liquid food) to a patient too ill to be lifted up in the bed, a bent glass tube is very convenient; and so are the halfcovered spoons and cups sold by apo" ries.

Glass vessels with the quantitiesrked on them are convenient

Some small ones are graded to minims; a minim is one-sixtieth part of a drachm. A drop of water is about a minim; two drops of laudanum make a minim; between three and four drops make a minim of chloroform. This is because the size of the drops of different liquids is so different.

APOTHECARIES' MEASURE.

			OLE WASTED IN	IN EUR		
8 fluidrachms			Make	one	fluidrachm,	f3.
	•	•	"	66	fluidounce,	13.
16 fluidounces	•	•	"	"	pint,	O.
8 pints	•	•	"	"	gallen,	C.

APCTHECARIES' WEIGHT.

20 grains (gr.)			Make	one	scruple,	Э.
3 scruples, o 8 drachms	r 60	grains	•	44	66	drachm,	3.
12 ounces	•	•	•	"	66	ounce,	5.
44 Ounces	•	•	•	46	66	pound,	· Ib.

COMMON MEASURES.

1 fluidrachm .	Fanala	about	1 4
2 fluidrachms.	Talmus	about	1 teaspoonful.
	66	"	1 dessertspoonful.
# fluidounce .	"	"	1 tablespoonful.
2 finidounces.	66		1 wineglassful.
4 fluidounces.	"		1 teacupful.*

METRICAL SYSTEM.

This is a decimal system; that is, all the divisions are reducible to tens, tenths, hundreds, hundredths, thousands, thousandths, etc. Beginning, first, to be used in France, its employment is now spreading (especially among scientific people) into all countries. The meter (about 1½ yard, or 40 inches) is the standard of length; the liter (about a quart), of bulk or capacity; the gram (about 15 grains), of weight. A kilogram (1000 grams) is about equal to 2½ pounds Troy, or 2½ Avoirdupois pounds. A millimeter is nearly ½ of an inch; a centimeter, nearly ½ of an inch; a decimeter, not quite 4 inches; a decameter, ten meters, or nearly eleven yards; a hectometer, a hundred meters; a kilometer, a thousand meters, or more than half a mile. A milliliter is a thousandth part of a liter; centiliter, a hundredth, and

^{*} Many teacups at present in use, however, are smaller than this; not holding more than two or three five ounces. Variation exists also in tea and table spoons; but not to so great an extern By a wineglassful is meant what will fill an old-fashioned Madeira-wine glass; not a hock or champagne glass.

deciliter a tenth part of a liter; a deciliter ten liters, hectoliter a hundred, and kiloliter or stere, a thousand liters. A milligram is the thousandth part of a gram; centigram one-hundredth, and decigram one-tenth part of a gram; a decogram ten, a centigram a hundred, and a kilogram one thousand grams. These measures and weights are not yet much in use in this country; but they will probably, some time, become universal.

Medicine bottles or similar fixtures should never be kept in sight of a patient; nor should the mixing, dropping, etc., be done where he can see it. If but one room is available, a screen had better be made (of a small clothes-horse, for example, with shawls, etc., hung over it) behind which such things may be attended to. When possible, the next room, or a table in the adjoining entry, will be better.

The times for the administration of medicines will, of course, be directed by the doctor. They had better, in all serious and continued illnesses, be written down as soon as ordered, to prevent mistakes. In the absence of a physician, no medicine should ever be given without a clear and good reason for it. The idea that somebody must "do something" always for sickness, whether anybody present knows what to do or not, is absurd. Such may turn out to be "deadly doing," indeed Better do nothing at all than risk harmful interference with nature.

EXCRETIONS: DISCHARGES.

Enough has been said under Hygiene, and Purgative Medicines. etc., upon the general subject of the necessary action of the skin, kidneys, and bowels. When a patient is ill enough to be confined to his room, care must be taken by those in charge that the air of the room be not tainted by his discharges. No vessel should ever be left for a moment uncovered; and none should remain in the room after being used longer than is mavoidable at the time. When it is important for the physician to examine the discharges, the vessel should be kept away from the chamber; out of doors if possible, or in a ventilated watercloset. As soon as the doctor has finished his inspection, let the vessel be at once emptied and washed with hot water. Hot soupsuds will be better. When the disease is contagions or infectious (or even is suspected of being so), the vessel should, every time, be disinfected by adding to the water with which it is washed a tablespoonful of a strong solution of permanganate of polassium, of corrosive sublimate, or of chlorinated



soda. (Carbolie acid has been much used in this way; but it is less effectual than the above articles, and is much more disagrecable.)

When a patient is strong enough to get into a bed-chair, it should be placed close to the side of his bed; and then he can be helped to it by one, or, if very heavy, two persons; one supporting the head and shoulders, and the other the lower limbs.

In most cases of typhoid fever, and in many other prostrating diseases, the patient has to remain in bed, and use a bed-pan; sometimes, a urinal. Either must be warmed before being placed under the patient. If his head and shoulders can be raised moderately, it will assist him. Some nervous patients cannot relieve themselves, especially the bladder, while any one is looking at them, or even is in the room.

In low states of fever, retention of urine, which the patient cannot evacuate, is not uncommon. As already said, this must be remembered

and watched for. If the amount passed is very small, or none, the lower part of the abdomen should be examined. A full bladder will make that region firm, perhaps a little swollen, and giving out a dull sound when lightly tapped (percussed) with the finger. In such a case, a catheter must be introduced; twice at least in twenty-four hours, to draw off the water. (See Catheter, on a previous page, under Remedies.) If nothing comes away through the catheter, there is suppres-

sion of urine, which is a very bad sign indeed. See page 304.

In persons who have had an injury of the spine, or who suffer from severe disease of the spinal marrow, the discharges from the bladder and bowels may come away involuntarily; perhaps without being felt by the patient. There must then be frequent inspection and attention by others, not only for the sake of cleanliness and comfort, but to prevent irritation of the skin, as well as contamination of the air of the room. Foul odors are always a sign of the presence of something unwholesome, making the air unfit to breathe. To prevent such odors is best. When they cannot be prevented, airing the room well (with care to protect the patient from cold draughts) is the next best thing. Disinfectants strong enough to have much influence upon its atmosphere can hardly be used in an occupied room. Burning grains of coffee on a licated shovel is the most agreeable way of concealing or modifying unpleasant odors in an occupied apartment.

SLEEP

As important as foot, it is for every sick person to get an abundance of sleep. Disease ofter conflicts with hightly rest; where there is delirium, it is more likely to be present at night than in the daytime.

Quietness, of course, is a prime necessity when sleep is sought; quietness of mind as well as of the body and of sights and sounds in and around the sick-chamber. The night-light had better be in the next room, with the door open, or in the passage outside; if in the room with the patient, the flame must be screened from his eyes, and the light must not be a bright one.

Bathing the arms and hands, legs and feet, with whisky and hot water (half and half) near the ordinary sleeping time, is a good tranquillizing measure. For remedies for sleeplessness, see on previous pages, what has been said of anodynes. Such should not, as a rule, be given without medical advice.

No siek person should ever be waked, when sleeping, if it can possibly be avoided. It becomes a question, in some cases of great prostration, which is most necessary—unbroken sleep or frequent nourishment. In typhoid and typhus fevers, there is mostly a drowsy habit; so that, after being awakened to take liquid food, the patient soon drops off to sleep again. In such cases, it is right to ronse him every hour or two to take something, lest he "slip through our fingers." I remember well, when going through an attack of typhus, the dreadful feeling of "goneness" on waking from an hour's sleep; relieved for the time by a tablespoonful or two of milk. In severe illness, the time of greatest weakness usually is between one and three o'clock in the morning.

When sleep or drowsiness follows a severe blow on the head, it should be indulged and encouraged. It is then very needful, to allow the brain to recover from the severe shock.

Quite otherwise is the case when stupor results from poisoning with opium (laudanum or morphia). Then profound sleep may end in death. The patient must be kept awake if possible, even by rough means; as slapping his back or limbs, or making him walk about. This is the only exception to the important rule, that sleep is nature's restorative, not only from fatigue, but also from sickness.

MENTAL MANAGEMENT.

In this, the nurse's judgment is shown as much as in anything else. A nurse must never be "gossipy"; must, indeed, seldom "talk" at all, beyond quietly asking and answering necessary questions. As few questions as possible should be asked of a patient. His wants should be anticipated and provided for. Never, for example, ask whether he would not like this or that article of food. Bring what is suitable, in as pleasant a way as can be; and, when it has been taken or refused, remove at once all dishes, etc., out of sight.

Of all things, do not tell a sick person about others who have lately died of the same complaint, or any other doleful news. As to his own case, encourage hope, without falsehoods; which are inexpedient as well as immoral. Wear a cheerful countenance, always, in the sick-chamber.

Yet the sufferer must know that he has your sympathy.

If there is delirium, do not contradict or argue against strange imaginings. Rather accept them, silently; or, if a reply be wanted, turn

them in the quietest way from anything disturbing.

Visitors often do much harm to siek people. One person in the room at a time should be the rule in serious illness, and that one as near as the mother, wife, sister, or murse; that is, one of these in turn with the others. It is intolerable ernelty, or else suicide, for one woman or man, alone, to be allowed to remain constantly, day and night, for weeks together, in charge of a very ill patient. But the general principle is, that patients having ferer, of any kind, and those having nervous symptoms, should see no company. Even near and dear friends should be excluded, and should only send kind words of inquiry and sympathy. This often seems hard, but it may turn the scale at critical times, and ought to be insisted on.

Chronic diseases, such as consumption, dropsy, etc., will often bear a moderate amount of company; but each ease should be judged of for itself by the medical attendant. Convalescent patients, whose fever has all gone, will often benefit by seeing new faces, at least those of old

friends, though even their visits should not be long.

Change* is generally a good thing during convalescence. If the room of the patient cannot be safely or conveniently changed, alter the

^{*} Change of position in bed, so far as to sit propped up, is refreshing, when strength allows it. For this, in the absence of a "bed-chair" or frame made for the purpose, a common chair may be used, placing it upside down behind the pillows, so that the back of the chair makes an inclined plane.

arrangement of the chairs in it, and of the pietures on the wall. Let flowers be put in sight. Somehow, make from time to time fresh and agreeable impressions, to remove those which illness has left. Yet much excitement or me tal effort must be guarded against, as the brain and nerves are often weak and sensitive for some time after illness with fever.

RUBBING: MASSAGE.

Systematic rubbing over the unscless and other parts of the body is now often used, as a means of quickening a slow circulation, and removing torpor of mutrition and other functions. Such rubbing and kneading is massage, or manipulation. A rubber is, in French, a masseur; if female, a masseuse. It is an ancient practice, even among savage peoples; the lomi-lomi of the natives of the Sandwich Islands is an example of it. It has been familiar to the Brahmius of India, and is traced back as far as to the Egyptian priests, before the time of Hippocrates. It is now employed chiefly in cases of general debility and nervousness, with patients who are not in a condition to use much, if any, muscular exerc

How it is done, old by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell, in his little book, "Fat and Blood, and How to Make Them":

"An hour is chosen midway between two meals, and the patient lying in bed, the manipulator starts at the feet and gently but firmly pinches up the skin, rolling it lightly between his fingers and going carefully over the whole foot; then the toes are bent and moved about in every direction; and next, with the thumbs and fingers, the little muscles of the foot are kneaded and pinched more largely, and the interesseous* groups worked at with the finger-tips between the bones. At last the ankles are dealt with in like fashion, all the crevices between the articulating bones being sought out and kneaded, while the joint is put in every possible position. The leg is next treated, first by surface-pinching and then by deeper grasping of the areolar tissue, and last by industrious and deeper pinching of the large muscular masses, which for this purpose are put in a position of the utmost relaxation. The grasp of the muscles is momentary, and for the large muscles of the calf and thigh both hands act, the one contracting as the other loosens the grip. In treating the firm muscles in front of the leg, the fingers are made to roll the muscles under the cushions of the finger-tips. At brief intervals the

^{*} Between the long bones of the foot.

manipulator seizes the limb in both hands, and lightly runs the grasp upwards, so as to favor the flow of venous blood-currents, and then returns to the kneading of the nuscles. The same process is carried on in every part of the body, and especial care is given to the muscles of the loin and spine, while usually the face is not touched."

At first this is continued for but half an hour at a time; gradually it may be increased, if it appears to agree with the patient, to an hour daily or every other day. Men who are very hairy had better have the limbs and breast shaved, to prevent the irritation of the skin from pulling the long hairs, which sometimes even causes sore pimples or boils. Every "rubbing" should be followed by at least an hour's entire repose.

Dr. Mitchell advises that, after the first few days, cocoa-oil or vascline shall be used to rub with. I believe this to be a very beneficial addition to massage, one not appreciated as highly as it deserves to be. Some oil is absorbed, with not only a soothing, but also even a nourishing effect. Cod-liver oil is sometimes thus employed, especially with feeble children.

When there is tenderness anywhere, rubbing should be practised all around the sensitive part, gradually approaching it. In this way, as over the spine, or on some part of the abdomen, it can be at least all included in the manipulation, removing the tenderness, to great adventers.

Whether rubbing will do good or not, depends largely on the judgment and skill of the masseur or masseuse. Dr. Mitchell's advice to disregard such effects as increased nervousness and loss of sleep, is, as I know from observation, not sound or safe. "Professional" rubbers sometimes think they must rub their hour through, if they risk rubbing out the patient's life; and thus they may do harm to feeble patients. If the patient "feels worse" after the hour's massage, the length of time given to it had better be lessened, and the interval between times increased.

Electric massage is practised by lightly passing over different muscles and other parts a metallic brush of fine wire, connected with a battery.*

* To show what refluement of procedure is brought int. "rubbing" by some practitioners, the following extract is taken from a medical journal:

[&]quot;THE TECHNIQUE OF MASSAGE.—Dr. Benster summarizes the method of practising massage, followed by the French, as follows: 1. Effeurage, gentle friction, consists in making long, gentle, centripetal strokes along the course of the veins and lymphatics with the oiled hand. The pressure is intermittently firm and gentle, so made as to produce a sort of passive peristalsis. 2. Massage à friction, the rubbing stroke. This is accomplished by making elliptical strokes perpendicularly to the long axis of the limb with the finger-tips of one hand, while the fingers of the other hand pass from above downwards, parallel to the axis of the extremity. A subdivision of this class is the massage par ordulation, as used by Laisne in lumbago. 3. Pstrisage, kneading, is

MANAGEMENT OF LABOR.

Before entering upon this, it will be well to go back so far as to consider the signs of pregnancy. First, usually, is the cessation of the menses. This may, of course, happen, in the married as well as the cumarried, from cold, mental disturbance, or other causes. But, with the married, in the absence of any such causation, it is to be noted as probably indicating what is to come. In the first month, marning sickness is generally a conspicuous sign; but it varies much in severity. Some scarcely feel it, while others are prostrated by it for months, only obtaining relief with parturition. Moderate nansea and vomiting, during the first and second months, are the rule. Quickening, toward the end of the fourth month, is the first feeling by the mother of the movements of her child. It is a popular error to suppose that the child only then begins to live; it is a living being from the time of conception.

In the first month, there is some sinking to be seen in the region of the navel, afterward, at least in two months more, that region begins to fill up and expand. Enlargement of the abdomen is not marked until at least the third month. It becomes conspicuous by the fifth or sixth. The breasts enlarge quite early. The "areola," or space around the nipple, often grows brown, with glandular lumps or tubercles in it. Physicians obtain other evidences of pregnancy by careful examination (especially hearing the sounds of the fatal heart on auscultation of the abdomen). But when those signs just mentioned are all present, there can be no doubt; quickening, of course, if certainly felt, being the most conclusive. Discolorations of the skin over the abdomen are frequently observable in the seventh and eighth months. Swelling of the veins of the feet and legs is not uncommon about the same time. In the ninth month, vomiting eccasionally returns; sometimes the pressure upwards causes difficulty of breathing. During the last week or two, however, before delivery, the abdomen often "goes down" perceptibly, relieving the breathing, but making walking mucomfortable. One who has piles, at such a time is apt to have them swollen and troublesome.

made always in a direction from the periphery toward the centre, and in such a way that the morbid tissues are seized by the hand, raised up and kneaded. This is employed in cedema of the skin, infiltrations into the subcutaneous connective tissues and on muscles which have lost their pliability through infiltration, inflammation, or contractures. 4. Tapotement consists in a tapping or beating of the diseased parts by the finger-tips, the hollow hand, the side of the hand, the fist, the percussion-hammer, or a little rubber ball fastened to a piece of whalebone. This is employed chiefly in neuralgia."—Wiener Medicinische Wochenschrift, October 27, 1883.

Constipation of the bowels is frequently present during pregnancy, with, in a certain number of cases, deficient secretion of water by the kidneys. Both of these are results of the pressure of the greatly enlarged womb upon the intestines, and upon the large blood-vessels, interfering more or less with their usual circulation and functional action.

Keeping the bowels open is important, all through; but gentle means must be used. Such are, oatmeal mush or gruel; fresh or stewed fruit, especially prunes; rhubarb; sulphur; and emall doses of mild salines, as Tarrant's Powder, or Püllna, Friederiekshalle, or Hunyadi Yanos waters. For scanty secretion of urine, eream of tartar is a safe medicine; a teaspoonful, diffused in a tumblerful of water, and stirred up

when taken, in the course of the day.

When headache is present during the latter part of pregnaney, it is especially important to keep the bowels and kidneys in a good state of action. If, at the same time, the face is flushed, and the pulse is strong and full, medical advice had better be obtained. One of the dangers then is of congestion of the brain and convulsions. Some women are helped, at such a time, by moderate bleeding from the arm. A vegetable diet is, as a rule, then suitable, if the patient has ordinary strength and appetite for food.

Nine months are commonly understood to complete the normal period. It may be more correctly said to be two hundred and eighty days. Still, not much error is likely to occur, if we count nine ordinary months from the time the patient was last unwell. A variation of a week or two, either way, may take place, without anything being seriously wrong. (Miscarriage, abortion, will be considered hereafter, in due place.)

When the anxionsly expected crisis, the most momentous in a woman's life, is near at hand, she commonly becomes uneasy and restless. Some vaginal discharge ("show"), more or less colored towards the last, with siekness of the stomach, and disposition to empty often the bladder and

bowels, are apt to precede or attend the first pains of labor.

Labor has three stages: 1. That of the opening of the os uteri; that is, the natural orifice at the lower part of the womb, through which, by the contraction of the uterine muscular fibres, the child is to be extruded.

2. The expulsion of the infant from the uterns and through the external (vaginal) passage, constituting birth. 3. The separation and expulsion from the contracting womb and external parts of the placenta or after-birth.

Timely preparation for labor is needful, to avoid confusion, which

might be disastrous at such a time.

The room should be in the quietest part of the house, well aired, and sufficiently warmed if it be winter; also, free from danger of any foul atmosphere, from a water-closet or any imperfect drain.

Appliances likely to be wanted are, a night-chair if obtainable; two chamber-vessels; a bed-pan; a saucer containing good fresh lard (vase-line is sometimes preferred); Castile Soap, a wash-basin or two, plenty of towels, and water for drinking, as well as washing (warm water must always be at hand); also, ice; a cruet of vinegar; several extra sheets; two oil-cloths or rubber-cloths, half as large as the surface of a bed; a number of soft, clean napkins; a band or towel large enough for the mother's abdonen; a small blanket to receive the infant; clothing for the infant; a small bath-tub, a soft sponge, a piece of tape or patent thread, and a pair of scissors. Many physicians will also require an antiseptic solution; as one made of equal parts (one or two tablespoonfuls) of carbolic acid and glycerin; or boroglyceride dissolved in glycerin; or corrosive sublimate, two grains in a pint of water; or whatever else may be directed.

The bed must not be a feather bed. It may be a wire or spring bed, covered with a firm, but not too hard, mattress. Over this should be put, first, a large piece of oil-cloth or rubber-cloth, covering the lower half of the bed. Next, a sheet. Then another oil-cloth or rubber-cloth, and on it a second sheet. After labor is over, the upper sheet and rubber-cloth can be removed, and the mattress will still be protected. If there is but one rubber-cloth or oil-cloth used, the sheet which is to remain after labor may be first doubled up above the edge of the rubber-cloth; so that, when labor is over, and all has been cleansed (for the time) below, the clean sheet may be brought down in place of the one removed. It will also be well to lay on the lower half of the bed an old quilt, comfortable, or blanket (which can be burned afterwards), to receive the discharges at the time of delivery.

The patient should, when labor is evidently approaching, have her hair well brushed (as this cannot be done again for two or three days or more), and, unless the bowels are spontaneously well opened, she should have an injection into the lower bowel of warm water, Castile soap, and a teaspoonful of castor-oil (or a tablespoonful of sweet oil), with a teaspoonful of salt, all mixed together. A clean night-gown should be put on, with a wrapper over it while walking about. When the bowels are moved near the expected time of labor, the patient must not use a water-closet, for obvious reasons. A night-chair or vessel must be used, if she is able, before labor, outside of the room in which she is to be confined, so as to maintain the purity of its atmosphere. It is also very important to have the bladder emptied of water before the second stage of labor begins. Most commonly, this happens freely of itself. When no water is passed for a number of hours, a catheter had best be used; unless the nurse can, by passing two fingers into the

vagina, press the child's head up and away from the Lladder, so as to remove the obstruction, and allow the nrine to be passed.

When the patient has to be fairly put to bed, her clean clothing should be turned up above her waist, and an old skirt, or a sheet folded of proper width, should be fastened around her hips and lower limbs; all of which can be taken away when delivery has been accomplished.

FIRST STAGE.

This is the longest of the three; it may vary from an hour to a day or so; commonly it takes three or four hours or more. It is marked by cutting and grinding pains, chiefly towards the back, with considerable intervals between them. As the dilatation of the os uteri comes to be nearly completed, these pains follow closer together, and are more severe.

If a physician is at hand, it is desirable that an examination should be made, during this stage, to know what part of the child is "presenting"-that is, coming down first. In normal (the most favorable) labor, this will always be the head. If no physician is at once procuruble, a nurse may ascertain the general nature of the presentation. Tho forefinger of the right hand is, between two pains (after being anointed with lard, oil, or vaseline), introduced,* knuckle first, and then unfolded so as to touch the descending, partly-opened, os uteri. Within this, when there is a hard, broad body, uncovered if the "waters have come away" (that is, if the natural membranous covering of the fœtus, containing fluid, has broken, as it does nearly always, during the first stage), or, if not, reachable by gentle pressure through the covering membrane-in such a case, the head is coming first; which is, so far, well. If a soft tumor, narrower and double, is felt, it is the breech. If a shoulder, hand, foot, or the cord comes down first, difficulty in the labor may be apprehended, and a skilful obstetrician must be summoned as soon as possible. In this work, it would be out of place to try to substitute, by specific directions, the knowledge and skill needful in emergencies of labor. Such knowledge and skill can only be obtained by study and professional training and practice. Our account of the subject is properly intended to afford such general information as will enable an intelligent person to do what may be safely done before the doctor comes, and to understand, appreciate, and assist or sustain the practitioner in whatever he or she finds necessary to be done.

^{*} No one should make such an examination without first cutting and cleaning the nails, and then washing the hand thoroughly in hot soap-water, adding to the water, if practicable, some antiseptic solution—as carbolic acid and glycerin (a teaspoonful of each), or a teaspoonful of Labarraque's solution of chlorinated sods, or a solution of corrosive sublimate, from two to five grains to a pint of water.

SECOND STAGE.

While only the cutting pains have been present, the patient may walk about, sit or lie down, as she prefers. She should not, during that stage, try to help the pains, by any voluntary effort. When real bearing-down pains, extending from the back through to the front, come on, she must go to bed. Mention has already been made of the proper preparation of the bed, and of her clothing.

What position in bed is the best? Here authorities and usages differ. I believe the most natural and favorable position to be on the back, with the knees bent, and the feet propped against the foot-board of the bed. It is quite as common, however, for the patient to lie on her left side, with the limbs bent up, near one edge of the bed.

It is a help to many women to have strong towels or sheets tied to the bed-posts, the ends of which she can draw upon, during the bearingdown pains of the second stage.

What happens in this second stage? As already said, the most "normal" or favorable position of the child is with its head presenting downwards.

In the mechanism of natural processes, nothing is more wonderful in adaptation of means to ends, than that by which the developing embryo is accommodated within the nterus, and provision is made for its safe transit and exit, when mature, into the outer world.

Obstetriciums speak,* in regard to head presentations, of several positions; according to the direction in which the back of the head Also, they describe, as occurring in the second stage of labor, the successive movements of the descending head: flexion at the neck; partial rotation; extension as it emerges; and lastly, restitution after it has escaped through the outlet. All of these have to become familiar to the practitioner who is prepared to meet all the possibilities of labor. It must be remembered that while perhaps ninety in a hundred infants are born without anything amiss, or any occasion for interference by a physician, the other ten cases may be attended with serious complications. In some of these, without skilful assistance, the life of the mother, or of the child, or both, may be lost. Hence the importance, not always appreciated, of having professional attendance at the time of delivery; even though, in most cases, the doctor may have very little to do but watch the case. Such watching often enables him or her to shorten greatly the suffering of the patient, and in certain cases (which cannot be anticipated before the labor comes on) to save life.

^{*} See "Mechanism of Labor," in Hartshorne's Conspectus of the Medical Sciences, p. 959, etc.; or any work on Obstetrics.

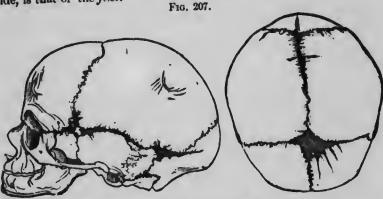
We may point out a few of the indications by which, on examination with the finger-tip, the practitioner recognizes the presentation and posi-

tion, during the second stage.

By its breadth, and hardness, the head itself is known; also, by its sutures and fontanelles. (See Anatomy.) The sutures are rough lines, easily felt; the fontanelles are spaces where the sutures meet. The posterior fontanelle is the one most desirable to find coming towards the central portion of the vaginal outlet. It is smaller than the other, and is made by the meeting of three suture-lines (see Fig. 207). The anterior fontanelle is larger, is on the top of the front part of the head, and has going out from it four suture-lines.

More unfavorable than the presentation of the occiput towards either

side, is that of the face.



SKULL AT BIRTH, SHOWING THE FORTANELLES.

Subject to much uncertainty as to its progress, and requiring skilful management, is presentation of the breech.

Sometimes the ...nees or feet present, or a shoulder, or a hand. All of these, and their treatment, are described and considered, with their

treatment, in professional works.

Through the second stage of labor, the nurse sheald promote the sufferer's comfort and encouragement, by all the attentions that intelligent sympathy will suggest. She may want her back to be firmly pressed during each pain. She had better not get out of bed during this stage, but she may find relief in occasional changes of position. Do not urge her to "bear down," as that will come of itself. Give her cold water to drink, if she wants it. If the labor is long, she may have a cup of hot tea for refreshment. It seldom lasts less than an hour, and may continue all day or all night.

When the end of the second stage is at Id, a critical part of it is

the stretching of the perineum; that is, the region just back of or beyoud the lower part of the vulva (vaginal outlet). This may be ruptured if the force of the final pains, with a large feetal head, be very violent; especially in a primipara, i. c. n mother in her first childbirth. Support may be, with great advantage, given to the perinenn at this time. To give this support, as soon as my bulging there shows that the child's head is approaching extrasion, part of it having already passed out, proceed as follows: if the murse (in the absence of a physician) has to act, without loss of time, let her choose such a position (according to that of the patient) as will enable her, with either the right or the left hand, to place the palm firmly upon the perineal space (including the anus or outlet from the bowel), her fingers being spread out over the distended vaginal ontlet. Now, with each pain, press, with a force as nearly as possible equal to that felt by the hand, upon the region covered by the palm. For what? To keep it from being burst open, or rent, an accident whieli, if unavoidably it does happen, causes the patient great inconvenience and distress, often enrable only by a surgical oper-

Another care must be taken by the nurse in the absence of the physician. Sometimes the umbilical (navel) cord is around the child's neck, while it is being born. When this is found so, by gently drawing upon it, it will mostly be easy to turn it off over the head. If this cannot be succeeded with, let the cord at least be loosened from the child's neck so of to strangle it; and then, the head being already delivered, it will proper to aid the delivery of the shoulders and trunk, during each pain; first by a finger in the nearest armpit, and afterwards by drawing gently upon both shoulders. Much the greatest difficulty and delay always belongs to the head delivery, whether it comes first or last to the birth.

When the child is actually born, it should be laid down in a convenient position, with the face nncovered and the body protected by some light covering at hand—not so far from the mother as to stretch the umbilical cord.

THIRD STAGE.

Now, the placenta (afterbirth) is to be detached from the nterus, as well as separated from the body of the infant. All through gestation it has been the means of communication, by which nourishing and aerated blood was given by the mother to the "feetus," which, surrounded by fluid, could neither eat nor breathe, but lived much like an oyster, or like a silkworm or butterfly-pupa in a cocoon. With the beginning of respiration, the child has no farther need of this direct connection; the cord may be cut, and soon the womb then throws out the afterbirth

by its own contraction. It is well to promote this, by the nurse placing a hand upon the abdomen, and gently compressing the upper portion of the uterus. If it rapidly shrinks in size, and at the same time feels hard, that is all right. If it does not, but, in spite of gentle rubbing with the finger-tips, remains large, loose, and flabby, the placenta may be slow to come away, or, worse, there may be "flooding," i. e. hemorrhage.

Suppose there is flooding, at the end of either the second or the third stage of labor, and the doctor has not come; what is to be done? Keep up gentle rubbing with the fingers over the womb upon the surface of the abdomen. Send for ice, and pass a piece of it as large as a walnut slowly over and around the place where the womb is felt under the hand. Raise the pelvis (region of the hips) of the patient by a pillow placed under it. Dip a sponge in iced viuegar, or cut a lemon in two, and squeeze it high up in the vagina. If these measures fail, try, instead, hot vinegar and water (equal parts of vinegar and water as hot as the hand can bear it) in the same way. Besides all these things, as wine of ergot ought always to be within reach when labor is expected, give half a teaspoonful of this every fifteen minutes from the beginning of flooding, or even without hemorrhage, if the womb does not contract firmly after the childbirth has been accomplished. But a slight bloody flow must not be cousidered a hemorrhage. We call it such when the amount is to be estimated at least in teacupfuls; the patient also becoming pale, cold, and faint, with sighing, and a small though commonly rapid pulse.

It may be here uoted (though not exactly in regular order) that whenever bleeding from the womb occurs during pregnancy before the full time is up, as in any mouth previous to the end of the ninth, medical advice should be at once obtained. It threatens either abortion (miscarriage) or misplacement of the afterbirth (placenta pravia); which is very dangerous, both to mother and child.

Mostly, in half an hour, more or less, the afterbirth will come away of itself. It must not be dragged out; gentle drawing upon the cord is all that will be safe. To pull hard upon it before it is separated from the womb might end in inversion of the womb; turning it inside out; a very ngly accident. Removal of an adherent placenta is an operative procedure to be ventured upon only by professional hands.

Meanwhile, the cord having been cut shortly after the child showed, by its cry, that it breathed, and was ready for an outside life, some one must give proper care to it. It must be rubbed all over with lard, sweet-oil, or vaseline; then all this and the material on the skin from the waters, etc., must be washed away with warm soap and water. A

soft rag will be as good as a sponge for this purpose; a bath-tub being ready in which to immerse the babe. Sponges are now banished from the lying-in room by many practitioners. No sponge ought ever to be used being about a siek or wounded human body; and a lying-in woman may be regarded as both siek and wounded. Taking a fresh new sponge every time is expensive; and so soft linen rags, napkins, etc., will mostly answer best. These, after once using, must be either burned, or boiled thoroughly before being brought into the room again.

After well drying the infant, a two-inch square piece of linear may be pierced in the middle with scissors, smeared with vaseline or simple cerate, and put over the end of the navel-cord; which has been cut within about two inches of the child's body. Glancing backward, it may be here said, that it is best for the cord to be, in the first instance, tied in two places and cut between; unless, at least, we are quite sure there is not a tein babe still to come. Some practitioners consider the second tying best anyhow, as promoting the contraction of the womb by retention of blood in the placenta; but this appears to me very doubtful.

Suppose, however, that a child, when brought into the world, does not breathe Is it still-born? It may be; but perhaps not. Feel whether the umbilical cord pulsates; if it does, the child is not dead. Do not cut the cord in that case. Keep up communication with the mother a little longer, until the child has a chance to get breath.

Then, put a clean handkerchief-end, or something like it, over the forefinger, and pass it back over the child's tongue, to clear the month and throat of phlegm. Lay the child on its right side (for which there is a reason; see Physiology). Dip the end of a towel in cold water and slap its back several times with it. Have hot water put into the small bath-tub, and (when the cord has stopped pulsating, and has been tied and cut) place the child in that; and, while there, sprinkle cold water in its face. If it still does not breathe, use artificial respiration, thus: dry and cover it quickly, and then, holding its nose with a thumb and finger, take three deep breaths, and empty the lungs into the air fully as often; next, put your mouth over the baby's mouth, and blow, with cousiderable, though uot excessive, force, into it, hoping thus to expand the lungs. Do this about tweuty times a minute, which is a little oftener-than your own natural breathing. Meanwhile, some one else may raise the child's arms over its head while you blow into its mouth, and, when you cease that, bring its elbows down and press against its two sides, to aid in expelling the air. Another way is to hold the child with your hands under its armpits, and swing its body and legs over your head and back again, repeatedly.

Once more returning to the mother; she must, after some minutes of partial repose (much longer if threatened with hemorrhage) be cleaned up by the nurse. Plenty of warm water and soap (to which may be added some one of the antiseptic solutions before mentioned; say a tablespoonful of it to a pint of water) must be used. Towels or napkins are to be (as already explained) preferred to sponges. After this eleaning, a large soft napkin should be placed well up between the thighs; the pelvis may be gently lifted, and the soiled sheet (and upper rubbercloth, if there be two of them) drawn away, the clean sheet being then brought down under her. Lift her (without raising her head) into a comfortable position in the bed, place a long towel or "binder" around





BREAST SUSPENDED.

her body, and leave her for an hour or two of perfect rest. If it should be three or four hours, with quiet breathing and general appearance of comfort, so much the better. After pains are, if felt at all, likely to be later. They need not be the occasion of any treatment, unless uncommonly severe and long-continued. If so, half a tablespoonful of paregoric may be given at or after usual sleeping time, to relieve them and procure sleep.

Within a few hours, as a rule, the baby should be put to the breast. The first milk (colostrum) is laxative, and thus beneficial. The act of suction promotes the secretion of milk, which is good for both mother

and child. While the mother is doing well, every two hours, day and night, will not be too often for its nourishment. Gradually (as explained under Hygiene of Infancy) the time may be lengthened, first at uight. A child five or six months old ought to be trained to sleep all night (at least six hours) without the breast.

Inflammation of a breast is least likely to happen when both of the breasts are in turn emptied by the infant. When a babe dies, the milk, if not at once dried up, should be drawn out at intervals with a breastpump, so as to cease gradually to be secreted. The best thing to bathe a hard and sore breast (threatening inflammation and "gathering" or abscess) with, is camphorated oil; sweet-oil saturated with as much gumcamphor as it will take up.

Sore nipple is occasionally very troublesome. Let the nipples be always gently wiped dry with a soft napkin after suction. If at all sore, bathe with pure lime-water, equal parts with olive-oil, or paint with glycerin, equal parts with rose-water. A cracked nipple (very painful when touched) may be best treated by painting it (with a camel's-hair peneil) several times a day with compound tineture of benzoin.

Earlier than such breast-troubles, is the time for danger of fever to the mother. A slight rise of to aperature, and moderate quickening of the pulse, commonly called "milk fever," about the third day, is not alarming. A chill, followed by fever with very rapid pulse, severe pain in the abdomen, and stoppage of the vaginal ("lochial") discharge, lead to a suspicion of the onset of puerperal fever. We will consider this hereafter, in its place among Special Diseases.

Prevention of puerperal fever is best secured by all the conditions and surroundings most favorable to healthy living. In a pure atmosphere, when perfect cleanliness is observed, and no possible communication exists with any other sick person, it is not likely to occur. It is a disease preëminently of crowded lying-in hospitals, and other uncleanly and ill-

Recovery after child-labor must be favored by quietness and a simple but nourishing diet. Such a patient does not need to be stimulated; neither ought she to be starved. Oatmeal gruel first, then milk and broths (chicken soup is the most delicate), and in a few days, if she have no fever, meals of solid food may be given.

Should a parturient woman sit up soon? No. Working-women often have to do so. I remember one patient of my own whom I saw at the washtub the day after her babe was born. She suffered, in consequence, a womb-trouble lasting for years. Those who can do so (and employers ought to make it possible for all) should give nature time for everything to be restored to its ordinary state. On a moment's thought,

any one may perceive that this cannot at once take place. The uterus, so long distended to many times its ordinary dimensions, must return gradually to these. Its internal surface, from which the placenta was detached, must heal, like a torn wound. The abdominal muscles and other tissues also have been stretched greatly by the feetal growth, added to, somewhat, by its "bag of waters." They, too, must have time to shrink and regain their tone and elasticity. All these changes require time, and a mother is likely to do best, on the whole, who does not sit up in bed under three, four, or five days, and does not leave her bed for the traditional nine days at least. Delicate women may often require a longer time for entire recovery.

PART IV.

SPECIAL DISEASES.

IN order to make reference to this part of our book as easy and convenient as possible, an alphabetical arrangement will be used. Accidents, Injuries, Poisons, and Sudden Death will be treated of after our account of diseases has been concluded, making the last portion of this book.

My purpose now is to give a brief account of all the disorders upon which a general and unprofessional reader is likely to need information. Of these, some will require only to be defined, so that their names will be understood when met with. Others will be described, so as to be known when occurring in the family; and of these, the proper domestic treatment, in the absence of a physician, will be set forth. It should be understood that in many instances there are other remedies which are used by physicians, for the disorders spoken of, which it would not be safe for an unprofessional person to give or take without advice. For the full history of diseases and their medical management, technical works on the Practice of Medicine must be consulted.* For the doses and other particulars concerning the medicines mentioned in this section, see Remedies (pages 295, etc., and 357).

Abdominal Dropsy. This troublesome affection is called asciles in medical books. It may be a part of general dropsy, or it may occur by itself. We know its existence by the swelling of the abdomen evenly all over; dulness on percussion (tapping with the end of a finger) instead of the usual hollow sound there, and fluctuation. This last is got by placing a finger of the left hand upon the belly on one side, and then striking the other side gently with one or two fingers of the right hand. We feel the liquid sent with a jar, so to speak, from one finger to the

^{*} See Flint's or Aitken's Practice; Hartshorne's Essentials of Practical Medicine; Raynolds' System of Medicine, American edition; American System of Practical Medicine; etc.

other. Very thick fat may cause a slight dulness on percussion; a tumor may give a very dull resonance; but in neither of these cases will there be fluctuation. This may be present in ovarian (encysted) dropsy; but, in that, the swelling is not even all round. It begins on one side, growing toward the middle. Moreover, in common abdominal dropsy (ascites) the intestines float above the water, making a place of clear resonance on percussion about the navel. In ovarian dropsy this does not occur.

Abdominal Dropsy is generally an obstinate complaint. Depending upon some disease already existing, of the liver, spleen, kidneys, or heart, or resulting as a part of general dropsy, from suppression (almost) of the secretion of perspiration and of urine; or, lastly, upon a thin and watery condition of the blood, it can hardly be cured while those morbid states exist; and they are often incurable. Still, an important amount of relief may always be for a time obtained, and some cases may be enred entirely.

Be medies for abdominal dropsy are: diuretics, purgatives, and tapping. Diuretics are (as was said in giving an account of them under Remedies) uncertain in their action. Cream of Tartar, Juniper-berry Tea, or Compound Spirit of Juniper, Squills, and Watermelon-seed Tea, are the safest diuretics for family use.*

Purgatives used to get rid of water in the abdomen are, besides Cream of Tartar, Jalap, Rochelle or Epsom Salts, and (under advice of a physician only) in some cases Elaterium. Heavy purgation weakens a patient, however; therefore moderation must be used with it. The strength of the patient must be considered. Tonics, as Iron, and alteratives, like Iodide of potassium, sometimes aid in recovery from Dropsy more than diuretics and purgatives.

Tapping, of course, should never be undertaken by any but a professional hand. It is, simply, puncturing a small round hole in the water-swollen abdomen, and inserting in it a tube (canula) through which the liquid can escape. The puncture is made with a trochar. The place for it is not far below the navel. Some patients are tapped a number of times, to give relief to the difficulty of breathing (dyspnæa), from upward pressure of the water against the diaphragm (muscular roof of the abdomen, under the lungs and heart). This is the most distressing symptom of severe and continued Abdominal Dropsy.

Abortion. See Miscarriage.

Abscess. Every large "gathering," or inflammation followed by

^{*} For the doses of medicines mentioned in this section of the book, look back, under Remedies: page 357, and also, page 295 to 356.

suppuration (formation of matter or pus), may be called an abscess. A boil is a small abscess; a carbuncle a larger one; but abscesses are sometimes much larger than either of these. Such, of various magnitudes, may form in the connective tissue under the skin, in the jaw near a tooth, in the tonsil, in the female breast, after childbirth, in the liver, lungs, brain, etc. In Pyamia, abscesses form in various parts of the body. They are not uncommon also after Typhoid Fever.

An Abscess is usually painful from the start, with tenderness to the touch, showing inflammation. When suppuration occurs, there is usually a tendency towards "pointing," that is, softening of the skin (or of some internal tissue), and yielding, at last, of the surface, so that the Abscess "breaks," and the pus escapes. When this takes place at the outside of the body, or into the mouth, throat, or alimentary canal, relief is obtained safely, and recovery may be expected to follow. But when it opens into the cavity of the pleura, outside of a lung, or into that of the peritoneum in the abdomen, much trouble is likely to result.

It is often good treatment to anticipate the spontaneous opening of an Abscess, by opening it with a surgical knife. Only a professionally trained judgment should determine when this is proper, and none but a surgeon or a physician ought to venture to perform such an operation. If unskilfully done, a tumor, or an aneurism may be cut into instead of an abscess; in the first case doing no good, in the second, endangering life by escape of blood. This last accident may attend the opening of a real abscess, if the knife happens to slip to one side, or to penetrate too far.

Whenever, therefore, the signs of an Abscess of any part appear, medical advice ought to obtained.

It may be briefly mentioned, that some physicians have confidence in the effect of the early internal use of Sulphide of Calcium (gr. 10 to gr. 1 three times daily) in preventing threatened suppuration of an inflamed part; and that among the alleviating external applications employed for commencing Abscesses, Belladonna ointment, and Iodoform mixed with Vaseline, are important to be remembered.

Addison's Disease. A rare chronic affection, in which the skin all over the body assumes an appearance like bronze. After death, the most notable change found is, evidence of disease in the small bodies at the tops of the kidneys, called the supra-renal capsules. (See works on Practice of Medicine for a further account of it.)

Ague, also called "chills," or chills and fever, and Intermittent Fever. Certain neighborhoods furnish many cases of this; some parts of the world have never known it. It is a disease of the country, especially in marshy regions, and on the banks of sluggish streams, on all the continents. Warm summers are necessary to its existence. It is pre-

eminently a disease of seasons, autumn especially, but also spring. No new cases originate after the first hard frost of early winter. Patients already affected, however, may, if not successfully treated, have their chills to continue all through the winter. One attack does not lessen, but rather increases, the individual's liability to the disease on exposure.

Any one can recognize Ague when he sees it all through a paraxysm. First comes the chill or cold stage. Weakness, dulness, headache, sick stomach, pain in the back and limbs, a feeling of coldness (though the skin may not be cold to the touch), with shivering, and paleness of the face, and blueness of the lips and finger-ends: these are the symptoms.

After a half-hour, an hour, or two, seldom more of the chill, comes the fever. Now the skin grows warmer, the face is flushed. Headache is severe; the pulse is rapid, the temperature becomes hot; with dryness of the skin and mouth, and thirst; the bowels are constipated, and very little water is passed from the bladder. From two to four or five hours may be mentioned as the usual length of the hot stage.

By degrees, the skin grows moist and cools down; the pulse slackens; thirst and headache diminish; and then the sweating stage comes on. With this there may be a copious discharge of urine. Thus ends the

attack or paroxysm.

A chill, with its following hot and sweating stages, may come every day, when it is called a quotidian intermittent; or every other day, named a tertian. Both of these are about equally common. After the third day, the seventh day is the most likely time of recurrence of a chill; once a week. Other periods are mentioued in medical books, as now and then met with; but they are rare.

Hardly any disease has so well-determined and reliable a method of treatment as ague. Since the Countess of Cinchon learned in Peru, and made known to the physicians of Europe, the virtues of Peruvian Bark, the world has possessed a true cure (very seldom failing) for this malady. The alkaloid principles, Quinia, Quinidia, Cinchonia, and Cinchonidia, have all the needful powers of the Bark, in much smaller doses than the Bark itself, and more acceptably to the stomach.

Quinine is the sulphate of quinia. It is most generally depended upon; although sulphates of the other alkaloids named (and also quin-

oidine and dextro-quinine) will almost always succeed.

If obliged to act, in the absence of a physician, in the care of a case of Intermittent, begin with quinine as soon as the sweating stage has fully come on. Many physicians give it in five-grain doses. My experience leads me to consider it better to give one grain every hour (while awake), or two grains every two hours, until at least fifteen or sixteen grains have been taken before the time when the next chill might

be expected. Under this dosing, that chill will not come, in at least ninety-nine out of a hundred cases.

Then, the next day, let the patient take twelve one-grain, or six two-grain, quinine pills, or teaspoonfuls of a solution of quinine, eight grains to the fluidounce of water, with sixteen drops of aromatic sulphuric acid in each fluidounce. The acid is added to dissolve the quinine perfectly.

Each day let one grain of quinine less be given; until the seventh day. On that day, ten grains should be given. If no chill has yet occurred, then six grains every day for two weeks will suffice. Most fresh cases will thus be eured; nuless the patient lives in a malarial region, and no frost has yet killed, for the year, the local cause of the disease.

But repeated exposures and attacks may fasten the habit, so to speak, of having chills upon a person; that is, chronic intermittent. Quinine, in such cases, will break or interrupt the succession of paroxysms; but in three or four weeks they come again. What are we to do now? Give quiuine as usual, so as to break the chills; and then begin at once with iron. It is a blood-medicine, and the blood is injured in malarial attacks. Let the patient take three pills every day for a month (or, if pale and weak, longer), each of which contains three grains of Vallet's mass of carbonate of iron, and one grain of sulphate of quinia (quinine). Outside of a positively malarious district, this will very seldom (I have never known it once) fail to cure the complaint. It will not pay any one to remain as a resideut in a place where he has contracted a chronic intermittent. It clings to one like the Old Man of the Mountain in "Arabian Nights." Better sell your beautiful country place, or give up your salaried business position, and move somewhere else, rather than be run down to a skeleton and have no enjoyment of life.

Among the many substitutes for Quinine proposed and used in treatment of Ague, French authorities assert the power, next after the alkaloids of Peruvian Bark, of green or unroasted Coffee, made into a tea by boiling (decoction), and taken freely a few hours before the expected time of a chill. I have had no experience with this, which I think is hardly known in American practice.

Albuminuria. Presence of albumen (tested chemically) in the urine. Bright's Disease is principally recognized by this symptom. But there is often albuminuria without Bright's disease, and sometimes (not often) Bright's disease without constant albuminuria. Scarlet fever, diphtheria, and several other disorders, frequently have in their course that alteration in the condition and action of the kidneys which produces albuminuria.

Alcoholism. A general name for the results of intemperance;

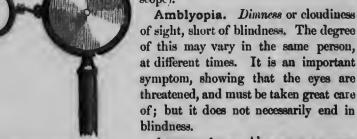
especially applied, however, to the slow poisoning and degeneration of the great organs of the body, liver, kidneys, heart, and brain, which end in ruin of the health and premature death. If these are not prevented, by abstinence or early reform of habits, they are not curable by medicine, and are very seldom recovered from. That is, after "ginliver," or diseased kidneys, or a fatty heart, or an impaired brain, has shown that the fell destroyer has set his brand upon the victim of excess, it is too late to restore perfect health in any way. Even then, reformation may greatly prolong life. At any stage, withdrawal of alcohol is imperatively demanded. Anything is better than to die drunk.

Alopecia. Baldness. (See Care of the Hair, under Hygiene.). Amaurosis. A name, not now much used by physicians, for blindness depending on disease or failure of the optic nerve or its centre in the brain. Milton's blindness was of this kind.

"So thick a drop serene hath quenched these orba."

Gutta serena was an old name for it; given because, unlike cataract and

some other causes of blindness, it does Fig. 209. not show, on looking at the eye, without the aid of an instrument (ophthalmo-Amblyopia. Dimness or cloudiness of sight, short of blindness. The degree of this may vary in the same person, at different times. It is an important



of; but it does not necessarily end in Amenorrhæa. Absence or suppression of the menses or monthly uterine

flow. Exposure to cold and wet, or mental agitation, may interrupt the menstrual process, after it has begun, or prevent it, when it is about to come. In such a case, rest and warmth, hot mustard foot-baths, or warm hip-baths, may renew it.

Habitual absence of menstruation, one month after another, may occur under several circumstances. Weakening chronic disease, as pulmonary consumption, may be attended by it. Anæmia (poverty of blood) has to do with it in the greater number of instances. Occasionally it is met with in plethoric (full-blooded) women. Married women, or any who become pregnant, have cessation of the menses as the first usual sign of that condition.



OPHTHALMOSCOPE.

Flow great a degree of injury or inconvenience will result from Amenorrhea, must depend on its cause chiefly, and on the state of the general system. A full-blooded woman may suffer with headache, and have risk of congestion of the hrain. (Apoplexy is rare until after the time of the natural "turn of life," when menstruation has ceased.) In an anaemic subject, the poverty of blood appears to be the cause, not the effect, of the irregularity.

We are first to be sure that pregnancy is not present. If it is, it is unsafe to interfere. Abortion may be forced, but at the risk of the patient's life. (See Miscarriage.) Then, we ascertain whether she is plethoric or anomic. If the former, a low diet, purgative salts (p. 269,) and perhaps cut caps to the small of the back, will be suitable. Some will even gain by loss of blood from the arm. In the great majority of cases, the patient is pale, weak, and nervous. Such a one needs iron and nourishing food, with mental case and tranquillity, and change of air—everything to build up the system.

When delay gives trouble, for one or more months, we advise (as above indicated) that at the time the change is due, a hot mustard foot-bath at bedtime be tried. If that does not suffice, the next night a warm hip- or sitting-bath may follow. Also, let there be taken a Lady Webster pill at night, or a teaspoonful of Elixir Pro., or two teaspoonfuls of Warner's Cordial. Either of these will be most apt to do good when taken in hot water. A physician may advise permanganate of potassium, in one-or two-grain doses.

Of all classes of medicines, even more than diurctics, emmenagogues (those intended to renew suppressed menstruation) are the most 1 neertain. For others than those above mentioned, we must refer to exten led medical books.

Amyloid Degeneration. This is one of those morbid hanges to which the liver, kidneys, and other organs are subject, wher the constitution has been impaired by any cause. There is in the organ affected a change of a part of its natural tissue into a starch-like (amyloid) material, incapable of doing the duty of the healthy organ. There is no cure for such an affection, but its progress is usually very slow, and its symptoms not marked until it has continued for a long time. Often it is scarcely recognizable, if at all, until discovered by post-mortem examination.

Anæmia. Poverty of blood. This may be brought on (besides being predisposed to from birth in some constitutions): 1, by loss of blood, from disease or injury; 2, too long suckling, in a mother or wet-nurse (especially with twins, or one's own babe and another's); 3, severe continued diarrhœa; 4, typhoid or some other fever; 5, malarial influence,

in an unhealthy locality; 6, deficiency of food, warmth, light, and fresh air, in crowded and unhealthy parts of towns or villages.

Signs of Anemia are paleness, thinness of body, weakness, nervousness; sometimes palpitation of the heart. In extreme cases, the lips are white, and the tongue thin and almost colorless.

Treatment of this condition requires good nourishing (not necessarily stimulating) food, of which a considerable part should be animal. Beef, mutton, chicken, game, fish—if there is appetite and digestion for them; if not, beef-tea, strong chicken-broth, etc.; milk rather than tea or coffee; variety of food, but no unprofitable dainties of any kind. Iron and cod-liver oil are the stand-by medicines for Auemia. In some cases physicians give arsenic, in very small doses. Chang of air, sea-bathing, and mineral waters containing iron, all may contribute to recovery.

Pernicious Ansemia is an almost or quite incurable, but rare affection. Upon this, see Essentials of Practical Medicine, or some other extended medical work.

Anæsthesia. Loss of sensibility. Anæsthetics are agents which, like chloroform, ether, and nitrous oxide, when breathed, take away for the time all feeling, so that strgical or dental operations may be performed without pain. See page 264.

Paralytic anæsthesia is common in cases of palsy, being confined to one side in hemiplegia, to both lower limbs in paraplegia, and extending to all the extremities in general paralysis.





ANEURISM OF AORTA.

Anasarca. General dropsy. It may result from exposure to cold and wet, checking suddenly the action both of the skin and of the kidneys. Directics an purgatives are the medicines appropriate it. (See Remedies, under the heading Dropsy, page 290.)

Aneurism. An enlargement of a part of an artery, from bursting of its inner and middle coats, making a sac by stretching the outer abrous coat. In this sac a portion of blood coagulates solidly. This may happen on any artery. The most serious of all Aneurisms is that of the aorta (largest artery of the body), in the chest or in the abdomen.

Aneurism of the thoracic aorta (that is, of the part of the artery within the chest) is known by a bulging, slowly increasing, in front of the chest, in which a pulsation may be felt, apart from that of the heart;

dulness on percussion over the bulging; a thrill, sometimes, felt when the finger is placed there; and signs of inward presence, on the windpipe, causing cough; on the assophagus (gullet) producing difficulty in swallowing. Pain also occurs in the middle of the clast; increased by muscular effort or active movement.

When the abdominal norta is the seat of the enlargement, no hulging exists, but a pulsating tumor may be felt, if the hand is firmly pressed upon the middle of the abdomen. Pain is in some cases constant, in others varying from time to time; increase of it results from any considerable exertion.

It is important to know that, in some cases of dyspepsia, the aorta pulsates with more or less violence, without any aneurism. Also, pain in the belly may be accounted for instead by colic, gall-stone, stone in the kidney, etc. Therefore much care is necessary in making out the diagnosis of Aneurism.

This affection is a very difficult disease to treat, with any hope of benefit. Quietness of body and mind is very important. A simple diet, of milk and other easily digested, not stimulating, food, will be best Iodide of potassium, continued in moderate doses for a long time, appears to have done good in a number of cases. Electro-puncture has been used with success by several practitioners.

The progress of nortic Ancurism is slow; occupying generally several years before its fatal end. Death comes at last, from either sudden breaking of the sac and exhaustion by hemorrhage; or leaking of the sac and gradual exhaustion; or wasting of all the strength by the pressure interfering with breathing, swallowing, digestion, etc.

Aneurism of other arteries is met with not infrequently. At the bend of the elbow, it has occasionally followed an accidental wound of the artery there in the operation of opening a vein (bleeding, venesectiou). Elsewhere, disease in an artery may result in bursting of its inner coats; the outer coat then bulging out, and a clot forming in the swollen portion of it. Such a tumor throbs or pulsates, with more or less force according to the size of the artery and of the swelling. Thus there may be a brachial or a popliteal or a femoral aneurism, etc., according to the part in which it is formed.

For these different aneurisms, surgical treatment is often resorted to; tying the affected artery, either above or below the tumor; or applying continued pressure upon the vessel, for a number of days and nights together. (See works on Surgery.)

Angina Pectoris. A disease consisting of attacks of severe pain about the heart, extending along the left arm. It seems to be a kind of neuralgia of the heart; connected in many, but not all instances, with

some change in its structure. Rarely, the first paroxysm is fatal. Mostly, many attacks occur, at variable intervals, of months, weeks, or days; in any of which it is possible for death to result. Dr. Chalmers, of Scotland, the eloquent minister and writer, and Dr. Thomas Arnold, of Rugby, died of this disorder. It seldom, if ever, affects young people, and is more common in men than in women.

For the relief of attacks of Angina Pectoris, many medicines have been tried. Among those doing good are Hoffmann's anodyne and laudanum; also, tablespoonful doses of whisky. But the most effective seems to be breathing a few drops of nitrite of amyl, just at the time of the attack. This is a powerful, even dangerous agent, to be used with extreme caution.

A mustard-plaster over the chest or between the shoulders, and a hot mustard foot-bath, will be suitable, if a paroxysm lasts long enough to allow them. It is generally over, however, in a few minutes,

Anorexia. Loss of appetite. This is common in all acute, and most chronic discuses. It occurs also when no discuse can be said to be present, other than want of tone in the stomach or in the general system. Besides improving the surrounding conditions, of air, light, cheerfulness, .e., we may use as appetizers such medicines as chamomile ten, quascia gentian, fluid extract of wild cherry back, aromatic sulphuric acid; or, if ansemia is present, some preparation of iron. (For doses of all these, see Remedies, page 256, etc., and page 357.)

Anthrax. See Carbuncle.

Anus, Fissure of. A very painful crack or furrow at the edge of the outlet from the lower bowel. It is most common in middle life. At first, there is a smarting at one spot, when the bowels are moved. This afterwards becomes more severe, with burning, aching, and sometimes throbbing at the part, lasting for an hour, or even several hours at a time. Coughing, sneezing, or in bad cases even sitting on a hard surface, will bring on the pain.

For its treatment, soothing ointments may be first tried; simple cerate, cintment of oxide of zinc, iodoform ointment; or washing the parts every morning with castile soap and water. Dusting with iodoform powder will be good, especially for a large old fissure. So will painting with a camel's-hair pencil) upon it collodion, to which a very little glycerin has been added; or, used the same way, compound tincture of benzoin. This last should be applied at least twice every day; the last time on going to bed at night. Touching the sore lightly with a crystal of blue stone (sulphate of copper) will promote the cure, if it comes slowly; or with nitrate of silver, more carefully.

When the attacks of pain are excessive, a one-grain opium suppository

may be introduced into the bowel, immediately after a passage. This had better, however, be avoided, if possible, as it tends to produce cost-iveness, which rather aggravates the trouble.

There are surgical operations in use for obstinate cases of this affection, for which we must refer to works on Surgery.

Anus, Prolapsus of. This is a falling out or protrusion of a portion of the rectum, or lower bowel, from straining at stool. Children not unfrequently suffer from it, especially in warm countries. The bowel will sometimes go back of itself, but in many cases requires to be pressed back gently, with well-oiled fingers.

To prevent this inconvenient and sometimes distressing accident, straining should be discouraged, and made unnecessary by care to keep the bowels regularly and moderately open. A high seat will be less promotive of Prolapsus than a low one or chamber-vessel.

If, when it occurs, moderate pressure does not succeed in replacing the bowel, send at once for a physician.

Aorta, Aneurism of. See Aneurism.

Aphasia. Loss of language, from brain disorder. In most, but not all cases, palsy of the right arm and leg (right hemiplegia) accompanies it. In some instances the patient cannot say any words at all; in others he gets the wrong words, talking only nonsense. Recovery is not to be expected from this rare affection, but several restorations from it have taken place. It may continue with but little change for years.

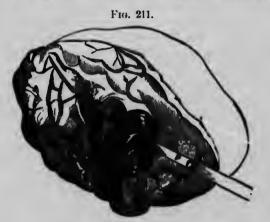
Aphonia. Loss of voice; quite different from aphasia. It depends upon an impairment of the healthy condition of the larynx, organ of voice; either a thickening of the vocal ligaments (as from a severe cold), or worse, a paralysis of the vocal muscles. Both are often temporary; the last named being the longest continued, though sometimes suddenly passing away. Electricity is one of the remedies employed for it by physicians.

Aphthæ. Very small ulcers, with whitish surfaces, in the mouth; most often seen in young children. Chlorate of potassium is a proper medicine and local application for these, but it must not be swallowed without limitation. In very large (dessertspoonful or tablespoonful) doses, chlorate of potassium is poisonous. It is, however, safe in doses of two to five grains for a child, and ten to twenty grains for an adult. A powder of prepared chalk and gum-arabic, or a paste of glycerin and prepared chalk, may be applied frequently to the little ulcers. Borax and white sugar make a favorite nursery application; no better, however, than the above, if so good.

Apnœa. Loss of breath. When complete, it is a mode of death. Difficult respiration is dyspnæa (which see).

Apoplexy. Brain-stroke, either from rupture of a blood-vessel within the brain, causing pressure by a clot of blood, or from an extreme congestion of the brain; that is, excess of blood in its vessels. Both of these, by pressure, cause stupor; coma. The patient falls or lies unconscious, with a flushed face, hot or warm head, full slow pulse, and snoring respiration. If he regains consciousness, palsy of some part, as an arm and leg, or the organs of speech, or the muscles of one side of the face, remains. The first attack is very often fatal, either at once or after some hours or days. A second is still more likely to end life; a third is seldom survived.

What is to be done when an attack of apoplexy occurs? As above described, it is altogether different from fainting (syncope). In that,



APOPLECTIC CLOT.

the head is cool, the face pale, the pulse absent or almost so, the breathing feeble or stopped for the moment.* We are, then, when we find a person falling unconscious with a flushed face and a full pulse, to place him in a reclining posture, with the head raised. Put a handkerchief wet with cold water upon his forehead or all over his head, and wet it afresh every few minutes; meanwhile, some one having gone for a doctor. Never undertake, without medical knowledge, to deal with so grave a disorder as apoplexy. So, with the doctors we may here leave our supposed patient, so affected.

Appendicitis. An infectious disease of the vermiform appendix, a small organ (average size $3\frac{1}{2}$ ins. long, $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{5}$ in. diameter) in the lower right side of the abdominal cavity. The

^{*}Mixed attacks are now and then met with, in fatty degeneration of the heart, having some of the features of syncope and some also of apoplexy.

base of the appendix is usually found at a point two inches from the umbilieus on a line drawn from the latter to the anterior superior spine of the iliae bone. The end of the appendix hangs free in a cavity lined by peritoneum, a delicate membrane covering the inner surface of the abdomen and the exterior of the intestines. inflammation of the appendix is liable to induce peritonitis. Three symptoms of acute appendicitis are palin, tenderness and rigidity of the right lower quadrant of the abdominal wall. The course of the disease is rapid and dangerous if neglected. Upon the appearance of severe pain in the abdomen, with the maximum intensity over the region of the appendix, nausea, or vomiting, and a point of tenderness in the right iliac fossa, the patient should be placed at rest, all food withheld, and the physician sent for.

Arcus Senilis. A whitish or pearly opaque arch or ring around the cornea of the eye, seen often in old people, and considered a sigu of approaching or commencing fatty degeneration. Some of them, however, live a good while after its appearance.

Ascites. See Abdominal Dropsy.

Asphyxia. Sufficiation. It may be caused by choking (as by hanging, etc.), or by gases which cannot be breathed. For its domestictreatment, see the last part of this book, under Accidents, page 613.

Asthenopia. Weakness of the eyes, shown by a sense of fatigue and dimness of vision after using the eyes awhile in reading or work. It requires rest for the eyes; with other treatment, according to the judgment of special oculists.

Asthma. Paroxysms of great difficulty of breathing. They come on mostly late at night, and last from an hour to a dozen or more hours; generally not more than three or four hours. Some patients have an attack every night; others at long and irregular intervals; some only when they breathe certain vapors or odorous substances. Hay asthma is one of the names for "summer catarrh," which a certain number of people have at the same time every year.

The attack of ordinary asthma is often very distressing. The patient sits up, leans forward, goes to the window, toiling and striving for breath. Death scarcely ever takes place during the paroxysm. At last, secretion of phlegm occurs in the air-tubes, the spasm relaxes, and relief comes.

Treatment, in the absence of a physician, should have the aim of promoting relaxation and mucous secretion. As this affection (like all spasmodie disorders) has its nervous element, Hoffmann's anodyne often does good. Syrup or wine of ipecacuanha, half a teaspoonful, with from a quarter to half a teaspoonful of tincture of lobelia, every half hour until relief is obtained or until the stomach is sickened, will

almost always shorten the paroxysm. Smoking cigarettes made of paper dried after being saturated with a strong solution of nitre (nitrate of potassium, saltpetre) relieves some patients; stramonium papers burned in the room have still more power with others. A hot mustard footbath, and a mustard-plaster between the shoulders, will assist the treatment.

To make Nitre-tablets: Saturate a half pint or so of water with alternate teaspoonfuls of nitre and chlorate of potassium. While this solution is being brought to a boiling-point on a fire, cut up some blottingpaper into pieces six inches square. Pile these, six together. Dip each pile well into the boiling solution of nitre and chlorate of potass.; then pour on it one-quarter drachm of spirits of camphor. Dry. For use, fold a pile tent-wise, A, and light it at one or both ends, on a shovel or other metallic surface. It makes a dense smoke.

For Nitre Cigarettes: Put a teaspoonful of nitrate of potassium in half a glass of pure water and let it dissolve; and then add more till it is saturated. Soak in this solution strips of unglazed, thick paper, or blotting-paper, of such shape as would be used to make "lighterpapers"; and dry these in the sun, or near a fire. Then roll them up, when dry, lighter-fashion-for Asthma, burning as cigarettes.

In feeble patients, strong coffee may aid in relieving attacks of asthma. Prevention may be maintained in some cases, by finding out and avoiding the conditions that bring on the attacks. These are wonderfully various. Some always suffer if they sleep on a first floor; others do better there than higher up. Some never have asthma when at the

sea-shore; others are worse there with it than elsewhere.

Hay asthma, Hay Fever, or Summer Catarrh, is a disorder peculiar to a not very large number of persons, many of whom have otherwise fair health. It does not affect them all at the same time, but it always occurs during the warmer half of the year. Pollen of flowers, seeds of grasses, dust of different kinds, etc., in the atmosphere, have been supposed to have to do with it; but its causation is as obscure as its cure is difficult. Indeed it may be confessed that the art of medicine is, so far, mostly baffled by it. Palliation is all that quinine, various expectorants, inhalations, and local applications to the throat, have succeeded in obtaining. The most important fact is, therefore, that some places afford security from it to all or nearly all its victims.

A convention of those who are subject to this malady is held every year in New England. From a report to this convention by Dr. Morrill Wyman, the following extract is taken.

"Long and varied experience with numerous individuals has proved that in New Hampshire, the Glen, Gorham, Randolph, Jefferson, Whiteper

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field, Bethlehem Village, the White Mountain Notch, Twin Mountain House, the high level about Franconia Notch, are all within the limits of safety. Other elevated tracts are safe. Mount Mansfield, at Stowe, Vermont, and the Adirondacks, are particularly safe, also the Ohio and Pennsylvania plateau (high table land), including the high range of southern counties in New York, from the Catskill Mountains to the western border of the State; the plateau in these counties having an elevation of two thousand feet above the sea." "The Island of Mackinaw, and the country north of the great Lakes in Canada, and beyond the Mississippi, at St. Paul, Minnesota, have a certain immunity, but not equal to that of the Lake Superior region. Farther west are large tracts that may be resorted to. South, the Allegheny Mountains at Oakland and other elevated points, and Iron Mountain, on the Tennessee and North Carolina line, are unusually free. To the east, the elevated interior of Maine and its extensive lakes afford both pleasure and safety. Mount Desert is not free, but some of the islands about it are thought to give relief. If the sea-coast is preferred, the whole coast east of the St. John, thence quite around to Labrador, is open to the subjects of autumnal catarrh. Sufferers who actually pitch their tents in these favored regions, as a general rule, not only escape their enemy, but may find themselves at the end of the month with a vigor that nothing but living under canvas seems to give."

Astigmatism. Uneven sight, from the cornea of the eye (or eyes) being spoon-shaped instead of spherical. It is corrected by wearing glasses made of a cylindrical form; just reversing the error of the eyes. See Care of the Eyes, under Hygiene, page 160.

Ataxy, Locomotor. A chronic and long-continuing affection of the spinal marrow, in which the patient loses, to a considerable extent, the control of his lower limbs. Each step is made with a sort of jerk forwards, of one foot after the other. Severe pains in the legs are common, at variable intervals. These, with gradually increasing weakness, are the characteristic symptoms. The disease is slow in progress, often lasting many years; but recovery is not to be expected. For palliative treatment, see extended medical works. Any one suffering from this disorder should be under the care of a physician.

Atheroma. A mode of degeneration of the arteries, rendering them liable to rupture, causing hemorrhage. If this happens in the brain, apoplexy is the consequence. Athetosis.

An unusual nervous disorder, in which the fingers and toes, on one side or both, are in constant, involuntary, and more or less regular movement. It often, but not always, is preceded by palsy of the side on which the extremities are most affected.

Baldness. See Alopecia; and Care of the Hair, under Hygiene, page 140.

Barbadoes Leg. See Elephantiasis.

Bedsores. See Nursing, p. 370.

Bilious Fever. See Remittent Fever.

Biliousness. A term of vague meaning, and often misused. Many people say they are bilious, when they have mere indigestion. is a condition of disorder of the liver, to which such a name may be given; when one or both of two things may be present. One is deficient secretion of the liver; the materials which it ought to remove from the blood being left in the blood, and finding their way out through The other is, obstruction of the gall-deet; the collected other secretions. bile being reabsorbed into the blood; then, also, afterwards escaping by the kidneys, as well as in the perspiration, and in the secretion of the mucous glands of the month, etc.; when the amount of bilious coloring matter is great, staining the skin, eyes, and tongue, yellow (jaundice). At such a time, the passages from the bowels, instead of being yellowishbrown, are slate-colored, or nearly a dull white; the urine being dark, sometimes like porter, loaded with the coloring matter of the bile. This is because the bile is withheld from its natural course into the bowels, and is, instead, thrown off largely from the blood by the kidneys. A third kind of disorder may be, an unhealthy condition of the bile secreted; and in sea-sickness, and possibly in some other instances, still another—the pouring back of an excess of bile from the duodenum (first part of the small intestine, into which the bile is conveyed by the biliary duct) into the stomach.

Signs of liver disorder, at an early stage or in a transient attack, are: sickness of stomach, generally without pain or voniting, headache, dizziness, especially on turning the head or the eyes; constipation of the bowels, with slate-colored stools; a bitter taste in the mouth, especially on waking in the morning; yellowness of the whites of the eyes, the surface of the tongue, and, in a marked case, the skiu; pain in the right side near the edge of the ribs, or under the right shoulder-blade. Treatment of this condition includes a simple and rather spare diet, of only easily digested food; toast and tea, oatmeal gruel, chicken or other broth well skimmed of all its fat, etc. Of medicines, for home use, magnesia is especially suitable, a full teaspoonful (if the bowels are, as is usually the case, not free) thoroughly mixed in a wineglassful of water, or in a tablespoonful of spiced syrup of rhubarb. Blue pill is the "auld lang syne" remedy for biliousness. I believe fully, from often repeated observation, in its efficiency; but it is not a medicine to be carelessly and promiscuously used. The practice of fifty or sixty years ago, of taking

ten or twenty grains of blue mass at random for every little attack of indigestion, has now, happily, gone out.

When, however, the symptoms above described are present, it will be appropriate to take at least three grains of blue pill; best one grain at a time; a one-grain pill at bedtime, the next morning, and then at bedtime again. If the "bilious" symptoms are not relieved by this and magnesia (or, when constipation is very decided, citrate of magnesium, Tarrant's powder, Seidlitz powders, or Rochelle Salts), it will be well to continue smaller doses of blue mass for several days. For this purpose, three daily of Compound Gentian pills (each containing one-quarter grain of blue pill, with one grain each of extruct of gentian and rhubarb, and one-fifth drop of oil of eloves) will be convenient and serviceable.

Bladder Disorders. Of these, the most common are Retention of urine, Incontinence of urine, Stone, Gravel, and Inflammation of the Bladder (cystitis). On all but the last of these, something will be said under the heads named hereafter.

Inflammation of the Bladder is a not common but very distressing malady. It may be caused by blows or other injuries; by the presence of a large stone (calculus) or small solid particles (gravel); or by an obstruction (stricture) of the urethra (outlet from the bladder) inducing retention of urine, which undergoes decomposition. Symptoms of this inflammation are: pain, and soreness on pressure, in the bladder; frequent desire to pass water, with disposition to strain, and burning in the urethra when it is passed. In an acute case, there is often fever, perhaps with irregular chills. Bad cases have also sick stomach, delirium, cold perspirations, and bloody mine containing pus, with a fetid odor.

No unprofessional person should, if possibly avoidable, undertake to treat such a disease. All that is in place here to mention about its home treatment is, that the patient must, in acute Cystitis, remain quiet in bed; with milk, gruel, arrowroot, rice, etc., for diet; flaxseed tea (iced, if agreeable), between whiles as a drink; a large warm flaxseed or mush poultice, with laudanum added to it if pain be great, may be kept (covered with oiled silk) upon the lower part of the abdomeu. If the patient can be moved without suffering, a warm whole bath or hip-bath daily will be relieving; and if pain be very distressing, a one- or two-grain opium suppository may be inserted into the bowel at bedtime every night.

Bleeding. See Hemorrhages.

Blindness. See page 467. Boils. A boil is a small abscess. It begins as a red, sore, and roundly swollen rising, on any part of the body. It increases moderately in size; becomes more and more painful and tender, as well as

red, for two, three, or more days; and then points, growing yellow and soft at one spot, generally near its centre. This will in time break and discharge, if not opened. At the heart of it there is a small dead mass, called the "core." Some persons are often troubled with Boils; others never have them. Now and then we meet with attacks, in which one may have two, or three, or four of them at a time, and crop after crop, almost all over the body, lasting even for weeks together. This may be confessed to be an opprobium of medical art; for no certain means of cutting short such attacks have yet been discovered.

Some physicians have confidence in the internal use of sulphide of calcium (one-tenth to oue-quarter of a grain two or three times daily) as a means of arresting a teudency to suppuration, whether in boils or in larger abscesses. It is worth trying, but is as yet far from being an

established specific for this purpose.

The treatment of single Boils is tolerably simple. If anything will "nip in the bud" a beginning one, it is either a piece of ice, held to it almost constantly for an hour or so, or spirits of camphor, freely applied at a very early stage. When it is clearly going on, a bread and water poultice will soothe it best; covering the poultice with oiled silk, oiled paper, or rubber-cloth. Near the time of its coming to a head, a flax-seed poultice will most hasten the softening of the skin, making way for the breaking or opening for the discharge of pus.

Should a Boil be opened, with a knife or lancet, early or late? Surgeons generally advise quite early opening. Those who, like myself, have felt the pain of an incision during the height of an inflammation, in a tender part, as the hand, will incline towards mercy, and will want to wait till pointing occurs. Then the skin at the soft yellow spot loses its sensibility, and can be cut with little or no pain. This may be much lessened, however, by freezing the part with ice before it is cut. The incision ought to be large enough to let the matter out freely and fully,

so as not to delay its emptying itself and then healing up.

Bowel, Protrusion of. This is called by physicians Prolapsus Ani. It occurs most frequently in children, from straining at stool. The forced-out portion of the bowel may commonly be returned without much difficulty by gentle but steadily-continued pressure with well-oiled or larded hands. If not, a physician must be called in at once. To prevent the recurrence of such a protrusion, the child's bowels should not be allowed to become constipated (see Care of the Excretions, under Hygiene); and it should be made to sit, when having a movement, on a rather high seat, the body not being much bent at the time.

Bowels, Inflammation of. Enteritis of medical books. Blows or other injuries may cause it; or neglected constipation; or, sometimes,

exposure to cold and wet; also, strangulated hernia (see Rupture), obstruction of the bowels, or corrosive poisoning.

Symptoms of enteric inflammation are, pain in a part of the abdomen, increased by pressure or motion; constipation, fever, vomiting, abdominal swelling; later, passage of inueus, blood, or pus from the bowels. There is always danger to life in a decided attack of such a kind. Typhlitis is the name given by physicians to a circumscribed inflammation of the beginning of the large intestine (caput coli), on the right

Treatment of Inflammation of the Bowels requires absolute rest in bed from first to last. Leeching over the part affected is, I believe, an important early remedy; after that, large, soft, but not heavy, flaxseed poultices, kept moist by an oiled-silk covering. The food taken must be soft and soothing, as arrowroot, tapioca, sago, rice-water. If thirst exists, ice may be swallowed slowly and often. Physicians often advise small doses of opium every few hours, to relieve pain and quiet the bowels. Purgative medicines must be avoided. If the lower bowel is full, an injection of olive oil with soap and warm water may be used to empty it; or one of a tablespoonful each of limewater and oil.

Typhlitis sometimes ends in un abscess, which may require surgical skill to open it and let out the matter. Such cases are critical, and call for the best professional judgment.

Brain Exhaustion. Under Mental Hygiene, enough has been said on this subject for the purposes of this work. It may just be repeated, that most instances of Exhaustion of the Brain result from insufficiency of sleep rather than from the actual amount of mental labor; that worry is more exhausting, always, than work; that monotony of labor is very much more wearing than that which is varied in character, and that the one indispensable remedy for Brain Exhaustion is complete and prolonged brain rest.

Brain, Inflammation of. Since the membranes, or "meninges," which envelop the brain, are almost always chiefly affected with inflammation, this affection is generally called meningitis in medical books.

There are two forms of acute Inflammation of the Brain : simple, and scrofulous or tuberculous. The difference in the symptoms is, that the latter comes on more slowly, after signs of a scrofulous constitution in the patient, who, nearly always, is a child; that the whole course of the disorder is somewhat slower, and that it is scarcely ever recovered from. With these distinctions in view, our general description will answer for

Most cases of simple as well as of scrofulous meningitis occur in children, but the number of instances of the former in adults is much

greater than of the latter. Causes of the former are: blows on the head, exposure to the sun, great or long-continued mental excitement, erysipelas of the head, scarlet fever, extension of inflammation from the car to the brain.

First, as signs, we observe complaint of severe headache and irritability, with heat of head, flushed face, constipated bowels, and sick stomach, even vomiting. There is extreme sensitiveness to light, so that the room can hardly be made dark enough. Sounds, also, if loud or sudden, disturb the patient, who sleeps badly, talking or screaming when partially asleep. The pulse is full, strong, and rapid; the condition is one of fever.

A second stage usually follows in a bad case, in which, instead of irritability and delirium, there is stupor; the patient being unconscious, not able to be roused, with a slow, full, more or less irregular pulse. This is the time when (as ascertained after death) effusion of water (second) within the manufacture of the levi table within the lev

(serum) within the membranes of the brain takes place.

The third stage occurs only in the worst cases, from which very few are restored. Now the patient continues unconscious, but has also convulsions, followed by paralysis of one or more of the limbs; a rapid and feeble but not irregular pulse; the contents of the bowels and bladder being involuntarily discharged. In a case of simple meningitis going through all these stages (which, however, pass gradually into each other), death results at the end of from eight or nine days to two weeks. Scrofulous meningitis lasts more frequently three weeks or perhaps more.

But from simple meningitis recovery often happens. I have seen several such cures, even when the symptoms were very severe. In one case, that of a girl ten years old, a violent convulsion occurred, without paralysis following it, just before she began to improve and get well.

For the treatment of Inflammation of the Brain, a physician must be called in. Will he allow me to say to our readers what I hope he will advise or do? Should he differ from the present author, of course the book will be closed and put away for the time, as it is impossible to "serve two masters" in the care of one who is ill. But my hope is based on considerable experience in this disease, with a good degree of success.

What I would do is this: have the patient put to bed in the quietest room in the house, and give orders for all in the house to avoid noises of every kind. Let the light be shut out of the room, except just enough to see the way around in it. Have the hair cut very short all over the head; better yet, have the whole head shaved. This will not only promote the cure, but, as the hair is apt to come out after such an

illness, it will be better for the hair itself. I would feel the pulse, and if the patient is not old (and old people seldom suffer from acute inflammation of the brain), and has been pretty strong in health before, I would, in a severe case, take a few ounces of blood from a vein in the arm. Or, if obliged to risk the patient's life by omitting this in deference to somebody's fears (and many, even among physicians, nowadays have such fears), I would at least take blood from the back of the neck by lecches or cut-cups; leeches, if they can be had, if not, cut-cups. I would also have the head kept wet, day and night, with cold water; iced, if it be summer-time. For this, the handkerchief or other light cloth must be wet every few minutes, or it will become and remain warm, and do no good. I would give the patient, very early in the case, an active dose of a saline cathartic; Epsom Salts, Rochelle Salts, or Citrate of Magnesium; the first for the strongest patients, the others being suitable for weaker subjects. I would have the diet liquid altogether, nuless a little milk-toast or ice-cream once in a while; at first, gruel, toast-water, milk; as time went on, after the first week, milk alternated with beef-tea, or other broths; gradually returning to solid foods as convalescence proceeds. If, in spite of all this treatment, my patient went on into the stupor of the second stage, I would apply dry (not then cut) cups to the region between the shoulders, and a large blister, left on long enough to draw, over the back and top of the head, just above where the head touches the pillow when lying down. I would also repeat moderate doses of purgative medicine, once or twice, in this stage. If the third stage comes, with convulsions followed by paralysis, rapid, weak pulse and cooling skin, the patient being unconscious all the time, I would simply have all done to keep him sufficiently warm and clean, and prepare the minds of the family for the approaching fatal end.

In a case where the history of the patient and the slow progress of the symptoms indicate tubercular meningitis, I would follow the same plan of treatment except the bleeding from the arm, and giving smaller doses of salts or other cathartic medicine, with an earlier recourse tobeef-tea as a supporting diet.

Brain, Softening of. The signs of this affection are so obscure, and the difficulty of distinguishing different forms of chronia disease of the Brain is so considerable, that it will be safest to refer to extended medical books for all that ought to be said on this subject. Softening is one form of degeneration, often following chronic inflammation; selerosis or hardening is another form of degenerative change; both the causes and the symptoms of the two are exceedingly alike—the essential element in both being the morbid alteration of tissue, with consequent loss of power to perform the healthy functions of the organ affected.

Break-bone Fever. Also called Dengue. This has been oftenest seen and best known in the Southern United States, though occasionally met with in the North, and in the East and West Indies and in Egypt, It is not a dangerous disease, but is attended by severe pains in the head, back, and joints. There is generally at first a chill, and then fever, lasting from two to five or six days. A slight rash is commonly seen towards the close of the fever. On this passing off, the patient is left very weak for a time. Treatment of Dengue requires rest in bed, moderate saline purgative medicine at the start, liquid diet, and good nursing; nothing else.

Bright's Disease. So named after Dr. Bright, of England, who first gave a clear account of it, some fifty years ago. It has been very elaborately studied since, by many physicians. For our present purpose it is enough to say that it is a slow chronic disease of the kidneys (acute Bright's disease is also sometimes rather inaccurately spoken of), whose most notable sign is albuminuria; that is, the presence of albumen in the urine. It may be caused, especially in a pers a whose strength has been in any way reduced, by exposure to cold and wet, or by the use of alcoholic liquors; even in what is called "moderate" drinking. It tends gradually towards death, a cure being not reasonably expected. Symptoms are, paleness or puffiness of the face, weakness, dryness of skin, general dropsy, headache, sick stomach, diarrhœa, frequent urination, especially at night; often bronchitis and enlargement of the heart; last of all, uramic stupor, convulsions, and death. The treatment is chiefly palliative and economical of strength; to prolong life, which may often be done, with care, for months, sometimes for years.

Bronchial Dilatation. A (not at all common) stretching and enlargement of the branches of the bronchial air-tubes, on their way towards and in connection with the air-cells of the lungs. Very tronblesome cough, with thick and abundant expectoration, is the only marked symptom of it; the certain proof of its existence needing percussion and auscultation, by a practitioner skilled in those methods of examination. Palliation of the cough is the only reasonable measure of treatment for it. (See Physical Diagnosis, pages 254 and 255.)

Bronchitis. Inflammation of the bronchial tubes. It may be acute or chronic.

Acute Bronchitis is, simply, a "severe cold on the chest," in which there is neither pleurisy nor pneumonia present. There is weakness, fever, soreness on taking a deep breath, and a cough. The cough is at first dry, hard, and more or less painful; then soft and loose, with white mucous phlegm; last, in severe cases, with yellow or greenish purulent expectoration. It is seldom fatal, except when, as Capillary Bronchitis,

it affects the multitudinous smaller (capillary, small as hairs) branches of the air-tubes, as they enter the lungs. This interferes so much with breathing that it is quite often a mortal disease.

In treatment of Acute Bronchitis, a good dose of saline purgative medicine should be given early; Epsom salts, Rochelle salts, or citrate of magnesium, according to the strength of the putient. Early, also, we must begin with something to soften and loosen the cough; that is, to promote relaxation and secretion. As a Home medicine for this, syrup of ipecac. is the best stand-by; from a quarter to half a tenspoonful every three or four hours. A quarter teaspoonful will be enough generally through the day; the last dose at bedtime being a half teaspoonful. Flaxseed-tea, made without boiling, and flavored with lemon juice and sugar, will be a useful drink, taken a little and often. A mustard-plaster may be applied for half an hour or so to the upper front part of the chest; and after the soreness from that application has entirely gone, the same part may be bathed, night and morning, with rolatile liniment, i. c., equal parts of hurtshorn (aqua ammoniæ, or spiritus ammoniæ aromatieus) and sweet-oil (olive- or lard-oil).

After the first day, syrup of wild cherry bark, a teaspoonful each time, may be given with the ipecae. As soon as the cough decidedly begins to soften and loosen, lessen the dose and frequency of use of the ipecae.; continuing the wild cherry. When it amounts to considerable expectoration, the soreness of the chest giving way, leave off the ipecac. and give instead syrup of squills, in half tenspoonful, or (with persons of strong stomach) teaspoonful doses, three or four times daily; still with teaspoonful doses of wild cherry syrup.

Leaving the management of bad cases of Acute Brouchitis, and especially Capillary Bronchitis (known, even without skilled examination by auscultation and percussion, by the great oppression in breathing, and weakness of the patient) to the care of the physician, it will be almost always easy as well as expedient to have his or her advice also in cases of Chronic Bronchitis. We have already, however, under Remedies, remarked upon the medication of cough, at different stages. When once fairly loosened, and yet troublesome, especially at night, it needs quieting. For this we have the mild and innocent soothing action of candies (hoarhound the favorite), liquorice, march-mallow, gum-arabic, and eucalyptus. Also, to syrup of squills and syrup of wild cherry may, with a loose cough, be added at night a quarter, half, or whole teaspoonful (according to the urgency of the case) of paregoric, or syrup of lactucarium. Chloride of Ammonium, in ten-grain doces three or four times a day, is a good expectorant in such cases. Or Wistor's Lozenges, which, when regularly made, contain a little opium, may be

at night, slowly dissolved in the mouth and swallowed; from one to four, as needed, in a night.

Weak states of the system, lastly, may require stimulating expectorant medicine. Carbonate of Ammonium is the best representative of this class; dose, from two to five grains every two hours, dissolved in some

expectorant syrup (as wild cherry, for example).

On recovering from either Acute or chronic Bronchitis, protection of the chest from cold is of much importance. A warming-plaster (as Allcock's porous-plaster, or simple Burgundy pitch-plaster) is excellent for this purpose. Indeed, such a plaster ought to be put on early in the case, and kept on for several weeks. Also, flannel next the skin, and, in cold weather, an extra piece of flannel, or a rabbit skin over the breast, will render good service in preventing renewal of the cough on going out in American weather (the most extreme and changeable in the world).

Bunion. This is an enlargement of one of the larger joints of the toes, commonest on the outside of the great toe (inner side in relation to its nearness to the other foot). The skin inflames and thickens, under the pressure of an ill-fitting shoe; the joint itself becomes then more or less involved in the inflammation. It may be very sore and painful in walking. It will be quickest cured by remaining in bed or on a couch until all the pain, heat, and tenderness have subsided, under the application of a bread or flaxseed-meal poultice. Then treat it like a large corn. (See Corns.) Wear a slipper in the house, and a loose shoe (with a piece cut out over the bunion, if necessary) out of doors. Pare off all the thick, hard outside skin, and put over the base of the bunion two circles of adhesive plaster (round pieces with the centres cut away) and on the summit one small round piece. This will shield the tender part from friction and pressure.

Burns. See Accidents and Injuries, in the last part of this book. Bursa, Enlarged. A bursa is a sac, filled with watery fluid, made by a collection of serum in part of the sheath of a tendon. Such enlargements are most common on the back of the hand, near the wrist. An inflammation, produced by a blow or sprain, causes adhesion of the fibrous sheath around or above the tendon, and thus the finid, increased in quantity also by the inflammation, makes a round, firm swelling. It may become as large as a hickory-nut, or larger, but more in shape like a lima bean. There is no danger or great inconvenience in such swellings; they are merely clumsy and unsightly. A sudden sharp blow with a middle-sized book will often break up the adhesion, and make the swelling disappear. If this fails after a trial or two, it will not be best to reiterate it, as the inflammation produced by much violence may cause it to grow larger. A surgeon may safely puncture the bursa with a hypodermic injecting tube, or with the needle of an aspirator.

Cachexia. An unhealthy state of the system; a morbid habit of body, or faulty constitution. See the Nature of Disease, at the early portion of Domestic Medicine.

Calculus. See Stone in the Bladder. Camp Fever. See Typhus Fever.

Cancer. A malignant tumor of any part of the body; that is to say, a swelling which grows slowly, is very painful, often becomes an open sore, and at last wears out the strength of the patient; causing death within a year or two from its beginning. It most frequently attacks the womb, female breast, stomach, or lower bowel; and is not often met with before middle life. There are three principal varieties of Cancer: hard (scirrhous), jelly-like (colloid), and soft (brain-like, encephaloid) Cancer. Best known to unprofessional persons is Cancer of the breast. It begins in a small hardening of a part of the meaninary gland, which gradually and irregularly enlarges, and becomes the seat of severe pains. After several months, it turns to a large, open, discharging sore; with more and more pain, weakness, and distress. The lymphatic glands near it also enlarge; the whole system becomes enfeebled and "cachectie." The face is pale, the body wastes, and at last death ends the history of the disease.

Cancer of the stomach is met with at the pylorus; that is, the right end, where the stomach opens into the small intestine. It so obstructs and interferes with digestion as to starve the sufferer in about a year. Cancer of the womb may continue for two years before death.

There is no cure for Cancer. If discovered and cut away, very thoroughly, not long after its beginning (which can sometimes be done with Cancer of the breast), it may not always return. When an advanced Cancer is removed by an operation, either it starts again at the same place, or, within a few months, invades some internal organ; as the liver, lungs, brain, etc.

Were I to be affected with Cancer, I should have tried upon myself a treatment which has never, so far as I know, been tried, or even proposed, before; namely, introducing (if the part be within reach, of course) pure alcohol repeatedly, and in several places, by means of a hypodermic syringe, into the substance of the tumor. I think it would probably act somewhat as it does with dead animal tissues; shrink it up, alter its texture, and arrest its growth.

The management of a case of Cancer, apart from the question of an operation, consists merely in taking care of the general health of the patient, and, in time, using measures for the relief of pain. Opium, or morphia, is the main dependence for this. It is important, for the patient's advantage, not to increase the dose of the opiate too fast. Let

no more be used, of laudanum, for example, than is necessary, at first ouly at night, to keep the suffering abated enough for a fair amount of good sleep. If given too largely, not only will the effects at the time be disturbing to the stomach, to the bowels (by constipation), and to the whole nervous system, but the anodyne influence will be wasted; the susceptibility of relief from it being lessened more and more.

Canker-mouth. An ulcerative sore month, on the lips, gums, and also extending to the cheeks; sometimes reaching the throat. It is most common in children, from two to six years of age. It is quite painful. The child slobbers, and the odor of the breath is offensive. Touching the ulcers lightly with nitrate of silver or bluestone twice daily, and covering them often between times with a powder of prepared chalk and gum-arabic, equal parts, will be a safe treatment in the absence of a physician; the general condition of the child being dealt with on common general principles. That is, if the child is thin and weak, give it cod-liver oil, iron, and beef-tea, as well as milk. If it is costive, open its bowels gently and regularly with mild medicines; if it has diarrhæa, use lime-water, and, if need be, stronger means (see Remedies) to keep it in check. See page 271.

Carbuncle. (Anthrax of medical books; though this term is also applied to a malignant and fatal disease of sheep.) The bigger tand worst kind of furuncle or boil. Sometimes it is as broad as the top of a teacup or a small saucer. With an intense and most painful inflammation, the central part dies (sloughs), and there is no relief until it is somehow discharged. It is possible for death to follow a Carbunck, especially if it invade the neck or chest. Surgeons generally take charge of the treatment of Carbuncles, and mostly think it best to cut them open early and freely. Less painful is it to freeze the part with pounded ice, which benumbs the feeling, and then burn away the surface with caustic potassa. One eminent English surgeon, Paget, does not open Carbuncles, but feeds the patient well with beef-tea and milk, gives him quinine, and nurses him through; trusting to nature to open out and relieve the inflammation and sloughing in good time. I am not able or willing to decide between this high authority and the majority of other practitioners. It will be best to be governed by the judgment of the surgeon or physician called upon in each actual case.

Cardialgia. Heartburn. Really stomach-burn; a symptom of dyspepsia. The feeling seems to be, but is not, in or near the heart.

Caries. Decay of a bone, resulting from inflammation. Necrosis is the death of a part or the whole of a bone, whether preceded by inflammation or not.

Caries of the Spine, See Spinal Caries.

Catalepsy. A rare nervous disease, in which the person has attacks, in which he remains for a short time with all the muscles rigidly fixed in one position. (See extended Medical works.)

Catarrh. Physicians mean by this a disorder of any mucous membrane, as the nostrile, bronchial tubes, etc., in which acute inflammation is accompanied or followed by a flow of phlegm (mucous discharge). Since such a disorder is most often met with in the breathing passages, in common language a Catarrh is a cold on the chest; or one affecting the nose and chest together. (See Bronchitis.)

Cephalalgia. Headache; which see.

Cerebro-Spinal Fever. Often called Cerebro-spinal Meningitis; also, Spotted Fever. One of the less common varieties of fever, but





CEREBRO-SPINAL FEVER. (J. LEWIS SMITH.)

very fatal; more than half of those attacked with it die. Children are oftener its subjects than adults. Armies, and garrisons of forts, etc., have been the centres of its epidemic prevalence in a number of instances.

It begins suddenly, with chilliness, terrible pain in the head, extending to the back of the neck, nausea, and vomiting. Delirium follows, ending not infrequently in stupor. Tetanic spasm, or rigidity of the muscles of the back of the neck (and sometimes of the back and limbs), is common. Convulsions are much less so, but do occur, particularly in the young. Painful sensitiveness of the surface of the body is present in most cases, when there is not stupor. Loss of sight and hearing may take place during the middle period of the attack. The pulse is at first slow, then rapid and weak. The bowels are costive or about as in health. The skin is at first rather cool; later, it is often hot; dry, usually, unless towards the last. A certain number, not nearly all, of the cases have spots—red, purple, or black—all over the body, from three-quarters of

an inch down to a pin's head in size, not disappearing on pressure. These have given the popular name of Spotted Fever to the disease. An attack mostly ends either in death or with the beginning of recovery

within three days.

How do we know this disorder by sight? Its diagnosis is often more difficult than that of almost any other fever. Peculiar, however, are its suddenness; the stiffness of the muscles; and, when they occur, the spots. Malignant searlet fever sometimes resembles it; and so may the chill of pernicious intermittent fever; but each of these has differences

of history which, with care, may suffice for distinction.

Experience amongst physicians with this disease has not led to so satisfactory an agreement upon its treatment as would be desirable. Home management, therefore, must include but a few simple measures. Let the patient's hair be ent very short. Apply cold (iced) water to the head frequently, if it be hot; not otherwise. Put the patient, if a child, er an adult not too heavy to be lifted, into a warm bath, almost hot, say at 98° Fahrenheit, and keep him there for twenty minutes. After drying (with great care to prevent his being chilled), apply a long and wide mustard-plaster (half and half mustard and wheat or Indian flour) from the back of the neck down the back; leave it on until, upon looking under it every few minutes, the skin is seen to be decidedly reddened by it. Besides this, dry cups may be applied to the back of the neck and between the shoulders, and left on ten or fifteen minutes at a time. If any medicine is given, let it be a moderate dose of a saline cathartic-Rochelle salt, Tarrant's aperient, or citrate of magnesium. While food can be swallowed, let it be beef-tea or milk only. All other treatment had better be omitted in the absence of a physician; and happy is the practitioner who contends successfully with this mysterious and dangerous, but happily not common, malady.

Chicken-Pox. Called varicella in medical books. This term is a diminutive of variola, small-pox; and the disease resembles the latter, or rather varioloid (modified small-pox, after vaccination), a good deal. It is contagious from person to person, but is the mildest and least dangerous of all contagious or infectious diseases, not even excepting mumps.

It commonly affects the same person but once in a lifetime.

Four or five days after exposure to the contagion, pimples form, scattered over the face, limbs, and body. On the next day, they become watery vesicles; two or three days later, they scab, and shortly after fall off. They seldom fill with vellow matter, and almost never pit like small-pox. Little or no fever, scaterally, is present, though I have seen two or three children quite sick with it. The eruption often comes out in two or three successive crops or sets of pimples. Like other

such diseases, children are much more frequently attacked by it than adults.

Chicken-pox needs, in treatment, only careful nursing; keeping the bowels open, with simple and soft food, the patient remaining in one room to avoid risk of taking cold. If fever should come on, solution of citrate of potassium (see Remedies) or acetate of ammonium may be given while it lasts. Care on first going out is important after any such disorder, as the system is then always especially susceptible of depression from cold and dampness. See page 283.

Chigoe. This (also called jigger) is the penetrating flea of South America, whose bite is a much sorer affair than other common flea-bites. Chilblain. See Frost-bite.

Child-bed Fever. See Puerperal Fever. Chills. See Ague.

Chloasma. An affection of the skin, in which dull reddish-yellow spots of various sizes and shapes appear on the chest or abdomen. It is eurable by parasiticide applications, being dependent on the presence of a minute (microscopically small) fungoid vegetation. Tar ointment, mercurial ointment, and solution of corrosive sublimate, are examples of agents usable to destroy such parasites and cure the skin diseases caused by them. (See Remedies, pages 293 and 544.)

Chlorosis. "Green Sickness." A disorder of girls, between four-teen and eighteen years of age, usually. The complexion is yellowish or greenish in hue; the lips are pale, the body is weak and nervous; often there is palpitation of the heart. A curious symptom present in many cases is a morbid appetite for ashes, slate-peneils, chalk, or other out-of-the-way things. Disturbance of the menstrual function, especially its suppression (amenorrhea), is apt to be present. No danger to life attends it, but it may last for months or years.

Treatment of Chlorosis must aim to build up constitutional vigor. Good, but not stimulating, diet, change of air, sea-bataing, and light gymnastics (calisthenics) will be important. Iron is the medicine most depended upon. A few patients do not bear iron well, on account of fulness of the head, increased by it. Such can generally take it, at least in rather small doses, after being moderately purged with some saline cathartic. See page 358 for doses.

Choked Disk. An expression used by oculists when, on examining the eye with an aphthalmoscope, they find the part where the end of the optic nerve-trunk enters the eyeball congested; that is, swollen with an excess of blood.

Cholera-Morbus. Vomiting and purging together, coming on as an attack of disease, not caused by a poison. It may be produced by indigestible food at any season; but is much most frequently met with

in warm weather. Being chilled after getting very warm is especially promotive of it. Sometimes it occurs without any known error of diet.

Put the patient to bed. Apply a large mustard-plaster (half and half with wheat or Indian flour) over the pit of the stomach. If very ill with it, make him use a bed-pan instead of rising to have the bowels moved; in any case, do not allow him to walk out of the room. Have ice at hand, and give him a small lump of it every few minutes to melt in the mouth and swallow sl. While waiting for the doctor, or if none can be obtained, it will be safe to give the following simple, but very efficacious medicine:

Put a Teaspoonful of best calcined Maguesia, and a Teaspoonful of Aromatic Spirit of Ammonia, in four Fluidounces (about a Teacupful) of Peppermirt Water. If that is not at hand, pure Water will do, though not so well. Shake the mixture in a corked bottle; and give of it a teaspoonful every fifteen or tibenty minutes (shaking it always before pouring it out). If this be continued for an hour or two, right along, nine times in ten the patient will be relieved. Bad cases may require also an injection of laudannia and starch into the bowels (see Laudanum, under Remedies); and, perhaps, whisky or port wine in teaspoonful or dessertspoonful doses in arrowroot or rice-water. But not many instances of the need of such stimulants occur; they had better be avoided unless great exhaustion (not mere sickness of stomach and distress) is present. At the beginning of an attack of Cholera-Morbus, alcoholic drinks of any kind will be likely to do harm rather than good.

Cholera. An epidemic disease, whose original home is India: there it prevails, more or less, every year. Since 1832, it has visited Europe, Africa, and America several times; travelling in a way of its own, as "on the wings of the wind." It visits towns, villages, and ships, almost exelusively; remaining seldom more than a month (often less) at one place. Of those attacked with all its symptoms, about one-half die. Very many cases of watery diarrhoa, "cholerine," occur before, during, and after its visitations. Filthy towns, and the nastiest places in towns or villages, as well as the steerages of ships, may be affected, while the clean and airy portions of the same are free from it; unless among those whose water-supply is bad. It is not contagious from person to person. I assert this without hesitation. It is generally so understood in India: yet many medical writers (elsewhere) cling to the altogether unproven notion, that it is only conveyed by the passages from the bowels of those sick with it. As if that could account for outbreaks of it, of which there have been many, on ships two weeks out at nea; even when there had not been, for years, a single case at the ports those vessels had left! (On this, see previous remarks under Causation of Disease, page 223.)

Symptoms of Cholera resemble, in a general way, those of cholera-But, while in both there are vomiting and purging, in choleramorbus the matters thrown up and passed from the bowels have a yellowish or greenish-brown color; in Cholera, all that comes, either from stomach or bowels, is colorless and watery; often having tiny flakes in it, and therefore called rice-water discharges. Also, the weakness is much greater in Cholera from the first; rapidly deepening into the collapse. This is a condition of coldness and prostration, with thirst, shrinking and blueness of the skin, loss of voice, difficulty of breathing, cramps in the limbs, absence of pulse, suppression of urine, and large and frequent vomiting and purging of rice-water discharges. The worst cases may fall and die in ten minutes. Most of them end in death, or in the beginning of recovery, within twelve hours. Sometimes a low sort of fever lasts for two or three days.

Important to be attended to is the premonitory diarrhoea. In much the larger number of instances, a watery looseness of the bowels, without pain,* precedes the regular attack for several hours. Any one so affected, in cholera time, ought to lie down at once, remain quiet, and take some warming medicine for diarrhea.

Treatment of Cholera has varied much, amongst physicians. Referring to medical works (e. g., Essentials of Practical Medicine) for particulars, I will here mention only the method which I learned in 1849 from the late Professor W. E. Horner, of Philadelphia; by which I am sure many lives have been saved.

First, the premonitory diarrhea requires, besides rest in bed, nothing stronger than essence of ginger and paregorie; ten or fifteen drops of the former, with half a teaspoonful of the latter, every two hours until relieved. Aromatic sulphuric acid (elixir of vitriol) succeeded so well in some of the later epidemies, that if Cholera comes again here I should confide much in its use for the premonitory diarrhoea; fifteen drops of it, in a small wineglassful of water, every two or three hours. It may be alternated with paregoric and ginger.

If a case already approaches collapse, then give the following, which I have called "chloroform paregoric":

^{*} My knowledge of this last fact stood me in good stead in 1854; when, on my way to render aid, with others, as a volunteer physician during the terrible epidemic at Columbia, Pa., I suffered with a painful diarrhea all the night before reaching that place. Nevertheless, I went on; and was able to remain several days there on duty

Take of Chloroform,

Laudanum,

Spirits of Camphor, and

Aromatic Spirit of Ammonia,

each a fluidrachm and a half;

Oil of Cinnamon, eight drops;

Creasote, three drops;

Brandy, two fluidrachms. Mix, and keep in a glass-stoppered vial.

Dissolve a teaspoonful of this in a wineglassful of cold water, and give of that two teaspoonfuls every five minutes; following each dose with a small piece of ice placed in the patient's mouth. Small and frequent drinks of ice-water may be allowed, if wanted, as they are pretty sure to be. Intense thirst is almost always present as a symptom. Also, mix together whisky and red pepper (exact proportions are here not of consequence; only it must run as a thick liquid), and rub the arms and legs constantly with them. Put bags of hot salt, or tins of hot water, to the back and belly, or on each side of the body, in the bed. Give a tablespoonful (not more) of whisky every hour or two, iu about twice as much ice-water; this, too, being followed by a lump of ice. If, on this method of treatment, you do not save your patient, I do not believe there is any chauce for him otherwise. Yet, as I have before said in regard to other diseases, when your doctor arrives, close the book and trust to him. I hope he may approve the above practice; which is, in principle, very much like what Dr. Aitken, in his valuable Treatise on the Practice of Medicine, mentions as being used with success iu India aud England.†

When collapse has fully set in, if that should happen in spite of such measures as the above—all treatment remains to be desperate experimentation, with but little ground for hope. Consideration of such a-

subject belongs to more extended medical works.

One popular error about Cholera needs to be corrected; namely, that a particular kind of diet will prevent any one from being liable to it. Quite as many (probably more) persons are attacked, during an epidemic, who live on rice, arrowroot, crackers, etc., as of those who take ordinary food; including meat, good sound vegetables, and fresh fruit. Of course it is accessary to be especially careful as to the quality and condition of food at such times. Cucumbers among vegetables, and cherries

^{*} This was not in Prof. Horner's prescription; and I am not sure of its importance in the treatment.

[†] See "Essentials of Practice of Medicine," p. 237, foot-note.

and pineapples among fruits, may be omitted; hardly anything else need be, if fresh and ripe. Alcoholic intemperance (even in moderate degree) greatly increases the danger of death from cholera; and so do excessive indulgences, or even great fatigues of any sort. The great principle of safety during all epidemics is, to keep the bodily condition at par; neither above nor below its ordinary state and activity.

Cholera Infantum; Summer complaint. Medical writers are not all of the same opinion about the precise use of the term Cholera Infantum. For our purpose, however, we need not discuss the name of the disease; let us simply consider what it is, and how best to manage it, when left to our own resources. Large cities, and the hottest summer weather, give physicians abundant experience with it. No child under five years of age, whose parents can afford to take or send it to the country, should remain in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, or St. Louis, etc., during July and August. Infants one or two years old are far the most frequent subjects of summer complaint.

Its symptoms are, diarrhoa, vomiting, rejection of food, languor, weakness; sometimes stupor. Occasionally the child may waste away and
die in a few days; oftener, it lasts from one to two or three weeks.
Sometimes the diarrhoa will linger on, after the vomiting is checked,
for a still longer time.

Treatment requires three things chiefly: correction of the morbid state of the digestive organs; checking the romiting and diarrhosa; and supporting and restoring the strength of the little sufferer.

Corrective medicines should come first. Such are, lime-water; soda (bicarbonate of sodium); calomel; mercury with chalk (hydrargyrum cum creta); and spiced syrup of rhubarb. In home practice, lime-water, may be given with milk at the start; a teaspoonful of each, several times, at intervals of an hour or two. Should vomiting and purging continue, then get calomel powders, one-twelfth of a grain in each; put one of these, rubbed up with a pinch of soda (about two grains, but exactness in this is not important), on the child's tongue, every three hours. Also, mix a spice-plaster (a teaspoonful cach of powdered ginger, eloves, and einnamon, made into a thick paste with whisky or brandy) large enough to cover the whole belly, and lay it on, covering it with a piece of oiled silk or thin rubber cloth. When the spice-plaster becomes dry, take it off for a moment, wet it with whisky again, and replace it. So used, one plaster will last a whole day and night. Icc, pounded in a elean linen rag into small bits, may be put to the babe's mouth often, for it to suck. Small drinks of iced thin rice-water may also, if sceming to be eraved, he given now and then. For nourishment, milk, or, if diarrhoea is very bad, arrowroot made with milk (see Food for the

Sick, p. 373 in this book), should be given, in small amounts, every two or three hours. When the skin is cold and the child takes little and is very weak, ten drops of the best whisky or brandy may be added to the food about once in three hours. Notwithstanding a different view held by a few medical authors, I regard it as an unsafe practice to give tenspoonful doses of whisky or brandy to young infants, under any circumstances.

Calomel powders and soda belong to the first two or three days of an attack of Cholera Infantum. After that, if the symptoms continue severely, especially with much diarrhea, astringents are wanted, to check it. Blackberry-root tea, in desserts poonful doses every three hours, with five drops of paregoric each time, will do well. So will geranium (wild geranium, of our woods) root tea, also; or logwood tea; or ten-drop doses of the tincture of catechu, with paregorie. If the diarrhea proves obstinate and exhausting, an injection (one or two teaspoonfuls at a time, with a small syringe) of starch, with one or two drops of landanum, will be suitable.

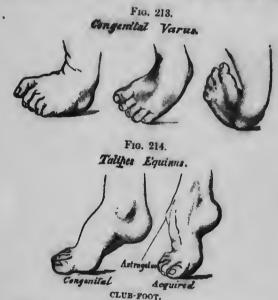
Late in the attack, when prolonged, strong and varied diet being needful to support strength, beef-tea (iccd or frozen will be best in this complaint), chicken-water, and mutton-broth may be given, turn about with perfectly good and fresh milk. The milk, by the way, should be sealded (brought to the boil) just before being used. Boiled flour food (mentioned under Food for the Sick) and Meigs' gelatin food, may have their place also, as alternatives. When slowly convalencent, to suck a piece of lean ham, or good dried-beef, may be relishing; and so may be the expressed juice of lean raw beef.

Now, in all this, we should have been beginning at the wrong end of the matter, but for the statement already made, that no child under five years of age should, if avoidable, remain in any of our large cities, during July and August. If, while remaining in town, snmmer complaint comes on, take it away to the country at once. Any high, open, real country place, where it can get good milk (if it has not its mother's in abundance, or has been weaned in its second year), will do. So will the sea-shore, if good fresh milk and good drinking water can certainly be had. Prompt removal to the country will often enre with very little medicine; the best medical treatment may fail while the child remains in town.

Chorea: St. Vitus's Dance. A nervous affection, nearly always of young persons; characterized by irregular jerking movements, which continue more or less all the time except when the patient is asleep. Generally it lasts several weeks; sometimes months; in rare cases, years. It occurs mostly in rather thin, pale, and weakly boys or girls. Some-

times it is brought on by fright. The organs of speech are affected in a few cases, as well as the limbs. For its treatment, time will always be ufforded for medical advice. It may be here simply said, that building up the system is usually required; iron, cod-liver oil, salt baths, rubbing and light gymnastics are among the remedial measures likely to be appropri-

Chronic Disease. This is, simply, continued, protracted, as distinguished from acute disease. Acute attacks, such as measles, the different fevers, and severe inflammations (as bronchitis, pnenmonia, etc.), have a time of days, or, as in typhus and typhoid fevers, of weeks (whooping-cough, months, often), in which they run their course.



Chronic disorders, as consumption, Bright's disease, diabetes, etc., have no such limitation. Some of them are, nevertheless, curable in many instances. This is the case with chronic bronchitis, chronic dyspepsia, and several other affections of indefinite duration.

Cirrhosis. A mode of degenerative change in various organs of the body, most familiar to physicians as occurring in the liver. It is one of the most common and serious of the results of intemperance.

From its cause, it is sometimes called gin-liver; from the appearance of this organ after death, hobnail-liver, or nutmeg-liver. Symptoms of it are, nausea and indigestion, with furred tongue and slight yellowness of the eyes and skin; later, constipation, vomiting,

debility, wasting of the body, dropsy, and enlargement of the veins over the abdomen. Towards the close, bleeding from the bowels (perhaps vomiting of blood), delirium, and stupor, with convulsions in some cases, occur before death. For all this course of events, besides withdrawal of the cause (if it be alcoholie) the physician can only prescribe palliative, not, with any hope, curative, treatment.

Club-Foot. A deformity with which some children are born; but which occasionally is acquired, from debility, and want of knowledge and care on the part of parents, during infancy. Only a child whose nervous system is defective almost or quite to paralysis, can suffer this last misfortune, with ordinary attention from its care-takers.



SHOE FOR CLUB-FOOT.

There are several varieties of Club-The foot may be turned in, so that in standing the child would rest on the outer side of the foot and aukle; or turned out, the weight of the body coming on the inner ankle and side of the great toe; or the toes may be extended, so that the heel will not reach the ground; or the foot may be bent up towards the knee, the heel only, without the sole or toes, touching the ground when the body is erect. (Figs. 213, 214.)

Many cases of Club-foot may be cured by proper treatment; some can only be improved, and rendered less inconvenient. The thing to do, of course, is to get the foot straight and keep it so. Surgeons effect this in certain suitable cases by cutting one or more of the tendons ("leaders") of the muscles which draw too much one way, and then, by means of apparatus made for the purpose, allowing the healing

of the divided tendon to take place at greater length. Other cases can be brought right by the long-continued application of apparatus (made to fit each case) which gradually forces the growing limb into its proper shape. If even a cure is not thus effected, the child may often at least be enabled to walk much better than without such assistance. Orthopadic Hospitals are established in various places for the special treatment of this and similar deformities.

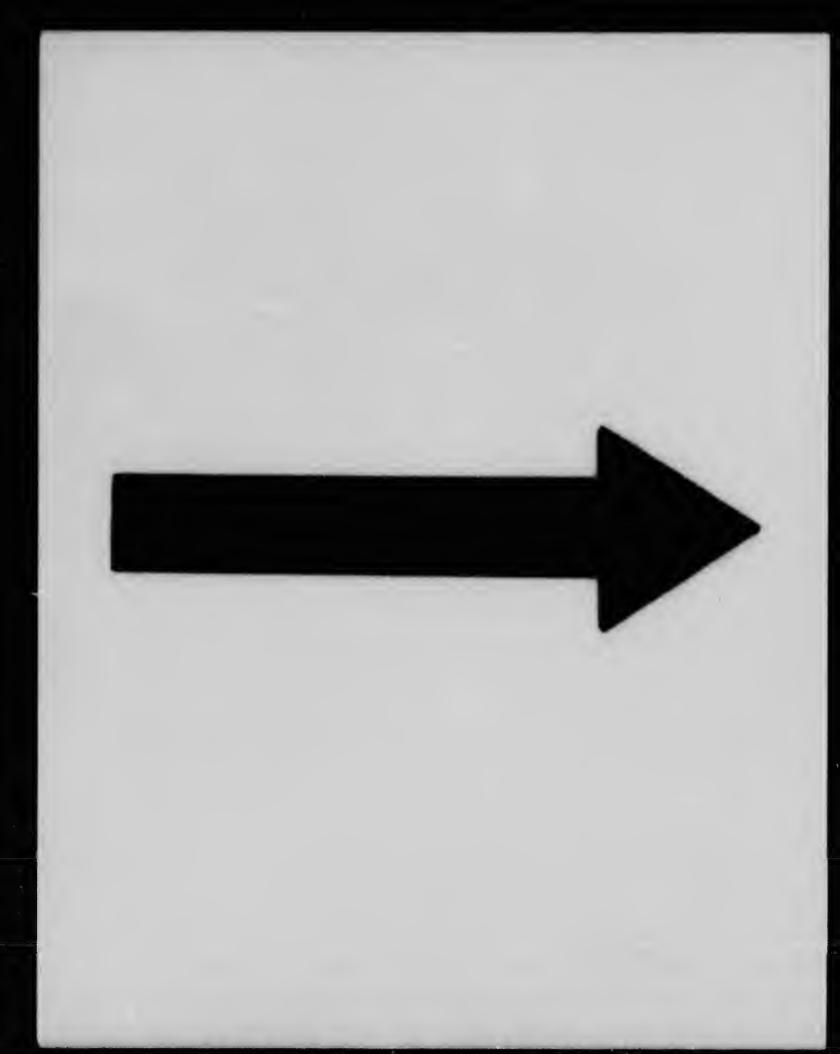
Colic. There are several kinds of abdominal pain, all often called Colic

1. Common flatulent (windy) Colie; 2. Bilious; 3. Spasmodie, gouty; 4. Lead Colic. Also, passage of gall-stones, and of gravel-stones, causes severe pain in the abdomen; and some women have attacks of pain in one or both of the ovaries. Neuralgia and rheumatism sometimes affect the bowels painfully. Obstruction of the bowels (which see) is attended with severe and obstinate pain, with entire absence of any passage from the lower bowel. Strangulated hernia (rupture) likewise causes pain and great distress. In every case of protracted colic, the possibility of one of these mishaps needs to be considered and examined into by a physician.

Flatulent Colic is brought on by indigestible food, in most instances. Cold and wet, however, especially wet feet, predispose to it. The pain is chiefly felt in the colon (arched portion of the large intestine) across the middle of the belly; but it is not nearly always confined to that part of the bowels. The abdomen swells and hardens more or less, but is not tender to the touch, unless after an attack has continued for a number of hours. Pressure often relieves the pain. Sickness of stomach is not uncommon in severe attacks; constipution of the bowels is present as a rule with scarcely any exceptions. A sign of the cominencement of relief is rumbling of the bowels, showing that the wind moves downwards; the spasmodic rigidity of the muscular coat of the intestine giving way to the mutural "peristaltic" movement.

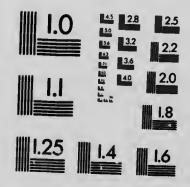
In treatment of Colic, we have four things to aim at: to relieve pain and spasm; to open the bowels; to ward off inflammation; and to prevent repeated attacks.

First, in flatulent bellyache, apply a muslard-plaster all over the abdomen. When it has been on as long as can well be borne without blistering, follow it with something to convey heat; a tin or bag of hot water is the most convenient thing for this. Give, as correctives, soda, essence of ginger, and spiced syrup of rhubarb; a pinch of the first, fifteen drops of the second, and a tablespoonful of the last. Should relief not follow this, or begin at least to come, within half an hour or so, next give a teaspoonful of magnesia, with twenty drops of spirits of camphor, a teaspoonful or two of Warner's cordial, and a tablespoonful of spiced syrup of rhubarb again. Or, a tablespoonful of castor-oil well mixed with twice as much of the same spiced syrup. When such (or similar) doses do not seem to make any sufficient impression, the bowels not being moved, give an enema (injection into the bowels) of castor-oil, soap, molasses, and warm water. (See Injections, on page 321.) If the pain still continues severely, we must begin with some anodyne. Laudanum is the quickest for this purpose; fifteen drops, repeated, if need be, in half an hour. After the second dose, an unprofessional person should not venture further, if it is possible to



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(716) 482 - 0300 - Phone (716) 268 - 5989 - Fax obtain competent medical advice. Physicians are, sometimes, obliged to administer opiates to relieve extreme pain, in doses too large to be safely taken under ordinary circumstances. A certain amount of relief is often given to Colic by gently kneading the bowels with a warm hand, to aid in pushing the wind through from part to part. In my own person, I can always entirely relieve such pain by pressing firmly on the front edges or sides of the hip bones (acting on nerves passing there). Believing this to be a discovery of my own, not without value, it may often fail with others, from want of patience in its application, or from not applying the pressure in the proper place. I am about having made a pair of compressors, to ascertain how much can be done in this way towards the mitigation of abdominal pains.

One of the simplest, and yet most nearly sure, means of relieving the beginning of flatulent colie, is rubbing the surface of the abdomen and back with a hair-brush or clothes-brush. It may be used as briskly us can be without hurting; passing the brush from left to right over the lower part of the belly, and then in a circle round from right to left at the upper part, above the navel. This is useful (the brisk brushing) also in fresh pains of other parts; as the muscles, from cold; what is commonly called rhenmatism, although it may be just cold-pains and nothing more. One who has never tried this simple brush-remedy for commencing pains, may be surprised at the amount of relief it will give. Of course we cannot expect much from it in an advanced case.

The above is an average treatment of a bad case of flatulent or erapulent Colie, which is the commonest kind.

Bilious Colic is slower in progress, with more vomiting, and very obstinate pain. It may last from one to two or three days. The treatment of it, however, is essentially the same, with more patience and perseverance. Some practitioners will begin the treatment with a dose of calonel or blue pill; perhaps with opinm (a fraction of a grain) added to either of those correctives. If a gall-stone passes from the gall-bladder to the small intestine, the pain will stop suddenly when it enters the latter. The same is true of gravel-stones, when, passing from a kidney, through a ureter, they enter the bladder.

Spasmodic (often gouty) Colic is frequently called eramp in the stomach. It is very apt to attack the stomach rather than the bowels. It comes on suddenly, and is very severe and prostrating. For it, the treatment must be prompt, warming, and anodyne. Paregorie or laudanum may be given at once, in spiced syrup of rhubarb. Oil of cajuput, six or eight drops on a lump of sugar, is very good for this kind of attack. A mustard-plaster over the stomach, and, if the feet be cold, a hot mustard foot-bath, will be proper.

Babies' Colic must be treated on the same principles as flatulent Colic in the adult. Moving the bowels, causing the wiud to move, and relieving the pain; these are the "indications." Sweet- or castor-oil or magnesia (again in spiced syrup of rhubarb) will be right for the first purpose. Essence of Peppermint (a drop at a dose, or, for a child under six months, a drop in two doses, in syrup) and camphor-water (not spirit) in teaspoonful doses, or milk of assafeetida, a teaspoonful, may represent the carminative (wind-moving) medicines for infants. If they, with a hot flannel, wet if need be with essence of ginger, do not relieve, put the babe into a warm, almost hot, bath, and give it one drop of landanum. Seldom will it require more than this.

Lead Colie is attended by shrinking instead of swelling of the abdomen; the bowels are also very costive. Pressure relieves or eases the pain. It is produced by lead-poisoning in some way or other. If exposure to this has just taken place, a moderate dose of Epsom salts will act as an antidote to the lead (making an inert sulphate of lead). Later, a milk diet will be important. Sweet-oil may be repeatedly given to act gently upon the bowels; and suffering may be relieved by opium in some form, in moderate doses, especially at night.

Collapse. The lowest possible state of the system short of death. The skin is cold, blue, or ashy white, shrunken, and damp; the eyes are glassy and half open, or staring without movement; breathing is short, quiek, and laborious; the pulse is rapid and thready, hardly to be felt, or absent. Such a condition is seen in cholera, in bad cholera infantum, the chill of pernicious fever, and after extensive burns or scalds, heavy falls, or railroad accidents; whatever shocks the system beyond its power (at the time at least) of reaction. Stimulation, with warmth and perfect rest, is the approved treatment for Collapse. Ammonia (aromatic spirit, in half-teaspoonful doses) and alcohol (whisky or brandy, in teaspoonful to tablespoonful quautities), at short intervals, even every fifteen or twenty minutes at first, lengthening the time as reaction comes on; these are what we must chiefly rely on. Direct heat, by sand-bags, vessels of hot water, etc., may be applied to the body at the same time. As soou as the pulse fills up, the skin grows warm, the breathing free, and the countenance natural, all stimulation must be at once withdrawn. If it be pushed too far, or kept up too long, fever and perhaps inflammation may follow, and interfere with

Color-blindness. See Hygiene, Care of the Sight.

Coma. Deep stupor, from which the patient cannot be croused. It is met with in apoplexy, fracture of the skull, dead-drunkenness, and opium-poisoning.

Comedones. See Acne, under Skin Discases.

Congestion. Accumulation of blood in a part of the body, more than is natural. Active congestion exists when the blood flows through an organ in unusual amount; passive congestion, when it collects without quickly circulating through it.

Congestive Fever. Better named Pernicious Fever; which see.

Conjunctivitis. See Eye, Diseases of.

Constipation. See Hygiene, on the Excretions.

Consumption. Pulmonary Consumption (that is, of the lungs) is commonly meant by this; called phthisis pulmonalis in medical works. Some families are particularly liable to this; several of their members, occasionally all, dying of it. Other cases begin after an attack of illness, especially a bad cold (bronchitis), measles, or whooping-cough. Sometimes, however, consumption begins without any such antecedent; perhaps first with loss of appetite and weak digestion; then a hacking cough, slight, but continued; pallor, loss of flesh and strength.

No time of life is entirely free from the possibility of the setting in of Consumption; but much the greatest number of cases occur between the ages of fifteen and thirty. Fewest, perhaps, are those which take

place in childhood.

Galloping Consumption (acute phthisis) goes through all its course, ending in death, in from four or five (seldom) to eight, ten, or twelve weeks. Much more often Consumption lasts for one, two, or more years; rarely, a dozen or twenty years. More than half the cases reach their

end in from eighteen months to two years.

Cough, at first hacking (unless it follows an attack of bronchitis), and gradually deepening and increasing in violence, is one leading symptom. As the disorder advances, showness of breath becomes more and more troublesome. Expectoration is at first moderate in amount, and whitish or yellowish-white; it becomes thicker and thicker; more and more abundant, streaked with blood, yellow or greenish-yellow; at last it comes in roundish lumps, which will not all float on water. Wasting of the body is what has given its name to the disease, Consumption. Appetite is poor, digestion difficult; late in the case, diarrhee comes on. From the first, the pulse is usually quickened. In an advanced case, hectic fever is characteristic. It comes once (possibly, though rarely, twice) a day, mostly in the afternoon; with heat and dryness of skin, greater rapidity of the pulse, and a bright red flush in the middle of each cheek. Copious perspiration (night-sweats) also marks an advanced condition of the disease. The hair falls out, the eyes have a pearly lustre, the joints look as though enlarged, the feet swell, the voice is enfeebled, the night is disturbed with wearisome spells

of coughing; hemorrhage from the lungs occurs, early or late, perhaps several times, in two-thirds of the cases. Yet, with all these distresses, wonderful cheerfulness and hopefulness are more common than the reverse. Towards the very last, in a protracted case, delirium may come on. Pleurisy now and then complicates the trouble. Death may result either from gradual exhaustion, copious hemorrhage, excessive collection of phlegm which cannot be conghed away, or the sudden breaking of

an abscess (vomica) of the lung, producing suffocation.

Prevention of Consumption, in those whose family or individual l. tory shows predisposition to it, has been considered under Hygiene (th of the Breathing organs and their function). Its treatment is as much hygienic as medical. Whatever promotes or economizes strength favors delay in the progress of the case, and adds to the chances (which are not many, but exist) of recovery. Nourishing food, including milk (never skimmed, but rich with cream), beef-tea, and whatever else, easily digested, the appetite will accept, are proper. Cod-liver oil is a naturally prepared medicinal food. A tablespoonful of it thrice daily will not be too much, if the stomach will bear it. Get a good, reliable, not too thin, oil. Cod-liver oil is nasty; but most people can get accustomed to it, and can take it after a mint-drop, or in the froth of ale, or in coffee; or alone with the addition of a little salt, as if it were fish. Gelatin capsules of it are now sold, which prevent its being tasted at all. Warm weather makes it harder to take cod-liver oil. Some can only bear it in the winter; a few cannot take it at all. For these, cream or rich milk will be a tolerable substitute; and plenty of good strong beef-tea (two pounds of beef to a pint) will help in the same direction.

Dr. Robert Koch, of Berlin, in 1890, announced his supposed discovery of an almost certain cure for consumption of the lungs and other tuberculous diseases, in their early stage, by injecting under the skin a few drops of an extract of tubercle dissolved in glycerin. This, he thought, would cause the tuberculous matter to be thrown off, and we revent the progress of the disease. Great hopes were excited, and scores of patients, in Europe and America, were subjected to this treatment. A number of them seemed for a time to improve under it; a few were apparently made worse by it; and within six months it was given up by most physicians. The idea of this treatment was snggested by the belief that tubercles in the lungs and in other parts of the body are caused by minute bacilli (seen only through a microscope).

Various tonics, especially iron and quinine, are often given in Consumption. These may be left to the attending physician; as may also be the cough medicines, after a few words of remark. A weak stomach

must not be worried with medicine of any kind, in such a weakening disease. Syrup of wild cherry bark will be a good expectorant early in the attack; adding to it paregoric in small doses, when the cough grows troublesome, at night. Wistar's cough lozenges will also then come in well. At a late stage. Sution of morphia is usually relied on to promote night-rest.

Keeping the skin wa. m, by sufficient clothing, especially about the chest, is very necessary. Flannel under-clothing will be best, with an extra rabbit-skin, or doubly thick flannel, over the breast. Dr. Mays, of Upper Lehigh, Pa., asserts the cure of several cases of consumption by thoroughly warming the patients' chests, in a manner thus described by him:

"I had lately made, by Messrs. Tiemann & Co., of New York, a steam-jacket of tin metal, which, from a somewhat protracted use, seems to fulfil all the ends I had originally in view. The inside surface of the jacket is covered by a lining, an inch in thickness, composed of cotton wadding, covered with several thicknesses of flannel. This lining is moistened with water and heated before the jacket is adjusted to the chest. Thus arranged, it will be observed that it strictly fills all the requirements of a strong and powerful external stimulant, and, while its action is the same in kind to that of a hot flaxseed poultice, only a great deal stronger, it possesses many prominent advantages over ordinary poultices and other appliances previously employed. It envelops the whole chest completely. It is light and readily adjusted. It retains its position on the chest without difficulty. It is easily managed and operated. It maintains a constant and uniform temperature. It requires no renewal every hour.

"The patients are allowed to remain in the steam-jacket for a varying period, from two to five hours each day. The steaming, besides causing an intense thirst, also calls forth a copious perspiration, and, as a precautionary measure against a too sudden change in the bodily temperature, the patients are advised to dress dry and go to bed, cover up well immediately after the jacket is taken off, and to remain there until sufficiently cooled off. The thirst is so great that a patient frequently drinks from two to three quarts of milk, or of milk and water, during three hours' steaming."

But the air is of more importance, perhaps, to a consumptive than anything else. Shall he change his climate? If he live in our Northern States, it will be desirable for him, when practicable, to spend the winter (from the first of November to the end of March) in the South; in

^{*} Medical News, Philadelphia.

Florida, Colorado or California better than anywhere else. That is, if he is well enough to travel. If in the last stage of Consumption, a bed-confined invalid, it will be better to remain and die at home. I knew one consumptive to spend five successive winters in Florida and summers at Newport, losing very little from year to year. The first winter spent North, because of a lameness, was his last.

Yet pure air, even in the North, may answer well. Dr. Trudeau, in his sanitarium near Lake Sarame, Adirondacks, New York, reports recovery of many consumptives under a careful fresh-air treatment.

Convulsions. Under Hygiene of Infancy, a good deal has been said on this subject. Convulsions may be, at any age of life, either occasional or habitual. The time when occasional convulsions are much most likely to happen, is the period of teething (dentition); between six months and thirty months of age. They are also less dangerons then than later, although sometimes even the first one may be fatal. A grown person may have a "fit," when hurt by a blow on the head, when exhausted by bleeding, or when much agitated in mind. Also, the condition of pregnancy, and still more childbirth itself, predisposes to very serious (puerperal) convulsions.

Habitual convulsions are either epileptic or hysterical. In the former, the patient is entirely unconscions; knows nothing at all that is going on. In the latter, some consciousness is retained. The spasmodic muscular movements are usually less violent in the hysterical than in the epileptic convulsions; and the hysterical form is much the most frequently eurable. Indeed, we may say that those having the former generally get well from them, and those affected with the latter only recover in exceptional cases.

Everybody knows a fit when he sees it; by the regular jerks of the limbs and muscles of the face, on one, or more often on both sides of the body. Epileptics also frequently foam at the mouth. Hysterical attacks have uncontrollable laughter or erying, in many cases, before the "jerks" begin; and during the latter, the body is sometimes rigid; perhaps arched, resting on the back of the head and the heels. After an epileptic fit, deep stupor follows in some cases; in others, temporary but vic ant and dangerous frenzy (madness).

What to do for a convulsion is tolerably simple. We can seldom shorten it much; but we ought to try to do so, and may succeed at least in not promoting its continuance. If the patient is known to be epileptie, he should be laid on a soft bed or pillowed-floor, with everything loosened about his neck, and as much fresh air around him as can be obtained. Then it will pass off in a few minutes. When a grown

person not epileptic has a convulsion, we should try to learn his previous condition and the cause of the attack. If he is of a full, strong habit, and the face is flushed, the head hot and the pulse strong, I think (but some other doctors may not) he ought to be bled moderately from the arm. Then apply a large mustard-plaster to his back, and cold water to his head. Also, give him a purgative injection into the bowels (if there is time for it). The same treatment exactly applies to purporal (ehild-bed) convulsions, when there are proofs of a full-blooded and not exhausted state of the system. Otherwise (that is, in a weak and thinblooded person of either sex), bleeding is out of place. A warm or hot bath will then be better; followed by mustard-plasters to the back, pit of the stomach, and lower limbs; taking care, of course, that the skin be not blistered by them. If the feet be cold, apply hot brieks, or bottles, or bags of sand or salt to them at once. (Be sure the hot bricks, if used, do not burn the patient; I knew that to happen once, as the poor fellow had no feeling at the time.) In weak, nervous cases of convulsions, breathing ether (or even chloroform) is often a good remedy; it is so in the full-blooded cases after bleeding or eupping to the back of the This can hardly be ventured upon, however, in the absence of a physician.

For infants' convulsions (as said under Hygiene of Infancy), the same principles of management apply; only bleeding from the arm is almost never suitable, and, as a nerve-tranquillizer, milk of assafætida, a tablespoonful thrown into the bowel by means of a small syringe, will be a help, if the fit lasts long. The warm bath also is more easily and beneficially used in infantile convulsions than in those of adults. Lancing the gums is a valuable means of relief, whenever they are swollen, or even tense and irritated (as shown by the child worrying with them before the fit). A clean cut down to the tooth is the right thing. A sharp penknife will do in the absence of a regular gum-lancet.

Prevention of Convulsions requires all sorts of care of the general health; adapted, of course, to what that may be. Some may require purging and low diet to render them less plethorie; more will need toning and building up. (See Epilepsy.)

Corns. A Corn is an overgrowth of the epidermis or outer coat of the skin. It is nearly always caused by pressure, as that of a tight or ill-fitting shoe. Hard Corns may be sliced off carefully with a sharp knife, not cutting "to the quick." Then put on the place two thicknesses of adhesive plaster, cut into little rings, and a third piece, not so cut, to cover the central part. This will protect from pressure, and allow the corn (at least after the same has been done several times) to stop growing.

A soft Corn is inflamed and tender. You must soothe it first, with bread poultices at night, and wearing, when moving about, a slipper or a shoe with a hole made for that toe. Then, when the soreness is all out of it, treat it with careful paring and plasters as above described.

Cough. See Bronchitis, Hooping-cough, and F medies, p. 285. Coup de Soleil. See Sunstroke.

Cow-pox. See Vaccination.

Coxalgia: Hip Disease. A chronic inflammatory affection of the hip-joint; one of the manifestations of a scrofulous constitution. It begins almost always during childhood. Pain is felt first in the knee; but the knee is not tender to the touch, nor swollen; and if the bent knee be tapped from below, it will hart at the hip-joint. Soon the child gets to walking lame, bending the knee on the affected side so as only to touch the toe to the ground. After a while it is disabled from walking; the hip-joint is likely to have matter formed in it, and the head of the thigh-bone may undergo inflammatory decay (caries). It is not always so bad as this; if attended to early, recovery may take place in the course of a few months.

The principles of treatment are two: to relieve the joint from pressure, and to build up the system of the child. For the first, splints are made, with arrangements for stretching the limb, so that the head of the thighbone is kept from pressing into its socket; or, if the limb is not stretched (as was the older practice), it is at least kept at rest. The "building up" must be done by good food, salt baths, sea or mountain air in summer, iron, and cod-liver oil.

Cramp. A spasmodic contraction of one or more muscles. It does not always shorten the muscle, but only makes it hard and painful. Some, especially elderly, persons often have eramps in their legs and feet. Others get them on stepping upon a cold floor, or when bathing in cold water. Lives have been occasionally lost by a swimmer being attacked with eramp when in deep water. Epidemie cholera almost always has eramps of the limbs among its symptoms. They are much less common in cholera-morbus.

To relieve eramp, the best thing I know, besides sufficient warmth, is to grasp and press firmly the muscles affected. Bandage them tightly if the attack is obstinate, always being sure to apply the bandage to the foot as well as to the leg, so that the foot will not be made to swell from checking the return of blood through the veins.

Cramp of the Stomach. See Colic.

Cretinism. A kind of idiocy, with general stunting of the body, accompanied mostly by goitre (which see) of the throat. It is little known anywhere except in some of the valleys of the Alps.

Croup. There are three varieties of Croup: 1. Sudden, spasmodic night Croup. 2. Moderately inflammatory catarrhal Croup. 3. Dangerously inflammatory membranous Croup. The second may glide into the last, unless properly treated.

Night Croup comes on without warning, at or before midnight, in children from two to four years of age. The child, well on going to bed, wakes with a short, barking cough, and difficult hoarse breathing. This difficulty is distressing. By giving it half a teaspoonful of syrup of ipecac, at once, and repeating this in fifteen minutes if not relieved, and yet again if need be, there will be, in most cases, case given to the breathing, and the child will go to sleep. If vomiting follows the taking of the ipecae, no matter. If not, it will work off by the bow-



PALSE MEMBRANE IN TRACHEA.

els in the morning. Should this desing not at once auswer the purpose, put the child for ten minutes into a warm bath; then wive it dry and warm in bed, and bathe its throat with "hartshorn and oil"; that is, equal parts or either water of ammonia or aromatic spirit of ammonia and sweet-oil. When a child has frequent attacks of night-croup, milk of assafactida is a good thing to add (in equal parts) to the syrup of ipecacuanha.

Cutarrhal Croup often begins in the night, though less suddenly; and while the above treatment relieves the breathing at the time, the child is not free from hoarseness and a short barking cough all day. When night again comes on, near midnight, its cough grows sharper, and the croupy difficulty of breathing returns. This is likely to happen three nights in succession; with prompt treatment, seldom more. We should, in this hind of attach as a likely to happen the seldom more.

this kind of attack, give a good dose of purgative medicine in the morning; citrate of magnesium or Rochelle salts will do. Also, keep the child in doors in one room if the house is not equally warmed throughout. Give it small doses of syrup of ipecae. (ten to twenty drops, according to age) every three hours through the day; then half-teaspoonful doses, only if it has real distress of breathing, in the night.

Membranous Croup is a much more serious affair. Not a few physicians consider all cases of it to be examples of diphtheria. I am sure this is a mistake. I saw many cases of membranous croup (and medical books gave full accounts of such) years before diphtheria was known in this country. Diphtheria is an epidemic disease, and somewhat contagious from person to person. Membranous Croup is an inflammatory disease, occurring in children (and occasionally in adults) anywhere and

at any time. General Washington died of it. Ther is membrane formed in the windpipe in certain cases of diphtheria; but it is then first formed on the tonsils and in the "finces"; that is, the upper opening part of the throat. In true Croup it is confined to the air-passages, the larynx and trachea, or, even, sometimes, extending down into the bronchial tubes.

We know a case of inflammatery, threatening to become membranous, Croup, by its beginning (at least as often as not) in the daytime; and

continuing with little change through the day and night; also, and especially, by the fever that attends it. Always be concerned about a case of croup in which there is fever and illness all day. There are, however, times when the difficulty of breathing is worse. When the case goes on, these become more frequent and seve ; and the breathing at last is no longer he wee, but hissing and whistling; from the great narrowing of the windpipe, obstructed by membrane formed in it. If relief comes, the sign of it is a soft mucous ruttling in the throat with the breathing. Otherwise, within two, three, or four days usually (sometimes less than two days), the windpipe become, more and more obstructed, and death ensues at last from suffocation.

Treatment of membranous Cronp cannot be rightly undertaken by an unprofessional person. All that we can say here about it is, that, when no medical advice can be obtained, the pressing rand of relief for the paroxysms of difficulty of breathing must Bronchial False MEMBR NE. be met (as in night Croup) by something



relaxing which promotes secretion; and for this, ipecae. is the safest thing; to it being added half-teaspoonful doses of powdered alum, in a case of alarming obstinacy. Tracheotomy (opening the windpipe by an incision), the last esort of physicians in cases otherwise hopeless, will not, of course, be ventured upon by any untrained and unskilled hand. Cne measure may a mentioned as not difficult to carry out, and likely to soften the membrane, whose detachment gives the only chance of recovery; making the patient breathe vapor from water poured on unstaked lime. In the absence of an "initial r," this can be done

most simply by placing a bowl, containing the lime and boiling water, under the upper sheet of the child's bed; it being then covered with the sheet, face and all, for a few minutes at a time. A teapot may be used instead, whose spout (when it is boiling) will give out the vapor from the lime near the little patient's month and nostrils.

I have seen recoveries from membranous Croup; but it is one of the most dangerous of the acute disorders to which children are liable.

Crusta Lactea. Milk Crust; an affection of the skin in young children. See Skin, Diseases of.

Cyanosis. The "Blue Disease." So called because the infant born with it is blue all over, from imperfect aeration of the blood. Its cause is incomplete development of one of the great blood-vessels (pulmonary artery) near the heart; or the non-closure of the opening, which exists before birth, between the right and left sides of the heart. There is no enre for this affection. All that can be done is to place the child on its right side at once after birth, and to make sure also that the trouble is not merely a temporary imperfection of breathing; in other words, that we have not a case of asphyxia instead of Cyanosis. We conclude that it is the latter only when the child breathes and cries as usual, and yet continues blue, as a permanent condition. Such a child seldom lives many days. Rare examples, however, have been known of those partially cyanosed surviving for years.

Cystitis. See Bladder, inflammation of.

Cysts. These are cavities formed in various organs, containing finid. They originate either in the enlargement of a natural cell or cavity, or from the development of a parasite (cysticercus, bydatid) within the organ. Ovarian cysts are the seat of ovarian drops. On this, see Women, Ligeases of.

Dance, St. Vitus'. See Chorea.

Deafness. This is of several kinds and different degrees. 1. Congenital; that is, being born deaf. Such enddren are also necessarily dumb—deaf-mutes. 2. From advanced age. This is partial only; mostly a dulness of hearing, and some old people do not suffer any such loss. 3. From disease, as small-pox, scarlet fever, or severe inflammation of the ear, destroying or impairing the condition of the consider (little bones), or the tympanic membrane, of the ear. 4. From a violent explosion near the head, rupturing the tympanic membrane. 5. Partial and often



EAR-TRUMPETS.

temporary deafness, from a "cold," thickening the drum-membrane, and obstructing the small canal between the ear and throat (Eustachian tube) with mucus. 6. Matter filling the middle ear, from inflammation. 7. Collection of wax, formed in excessive amount, in the outer channel of the ear.

The last of these is the only kind which can be properly attended to by any unprofessional treatment. Ears are almost as delicate and easily injured as eyes; they will not bear violence without injury. When wax is thick and over-abundant in the ear, the outermost part of it may be, gently and carefully, got out with an ear-pick. When some

of it remains at the bottom of the passage, it may be softened and loosened by repeatedly pouring warm water, or glycerin and water (equal parts), or almond-oil, into the ear from a teaspoon or a little glass tube with an elastic suction-end. Syringing is often used for this purpose, but the spoon-pouring is gentler and better. I have known persons to be made dizzy and faint by having their ears syringed.

There are specialists who practise ear-surgery, and who are called upon to treat cases of chrouic deafness. Far be it from me to disparage their skill and ability; but they would probably acknowledge the great difficulty of their calling, and admit that it allows of fewer successes

than are obtained by oculists.

Degeneration. See earlier in this volume, on the Nature of Disease. It may be added now, that degeneration consists in the substitution for healthy, active tissue in any organ or organs, of a lower kind of formation. So, in the heart, fat may take the place of muscular fibre (fatty degeneration); in the arteries, mineral matter may form instead of the natural coats of the vessels (ossification). There are also other kinds of degeneration. In old age, such changes are simply modes of slow decline of life, ending at last in death. Intemperance, over-fatigue, acute diseases, etc., anticipate old age in certain cases, bringing on degenerations in different organs, such as have been mentioned.

Delirium. A disorder of the brain, shown by random talking, gestures, and perhaps more active movements. It occurs often in fevers, especially in typhus and typhoid fevers. It is to be distinguished from insanity, in which there is a more lasting mental derangement. Delirium

may come and pass away within a few hours.

Delirium Tremens: Mania-a-Potu. This is the most horrible kind of Delirium; commonly well named "the horrors." It is brought on by intemperance; most frequently from the use of distilled liquors (ardeut spirits, that is, whisky, gin, brandy, rum), but sometimes from fermented alcoholic drinks. It may be fatal in a first attack. If re-

peated, it becomes each time more and more dangerous to life.

Trembling, as one symptom, has given part of the name of this affection. Sleeplessness also belongs to it. When the patient gets a long sound sleep, he almost always wakes up well, or nearly so. Weakness of the stomach, loss of digestive power, is another part of the worst cases, making it much harder to get them through the attack. But the most terrible part is the brain trouble; the mental affection. All kinds of dreadful images beset the victim, and seem real to him. Snakes, rats, wild beasts, and armed pursuing cuemies, are around him day and night. The horror is in himself; most of all when alone, and in the dark. He might say with Milton's fallen Lucifer, "myself am hell."

In rare instances only, the illusions which take the place of realities in this delirium are, though very real-seeming, without horror.

If ever obliged to deal with a patient so affected, remember, first, that the cause of his malady is alcoholic poisoning. He must be rid of that. If you are afraid (as many are) to stop abruptly his supply of drink, at least make him "taper off" rapidly. For his habitual half gallon or quart or so of whisky daily, substitute at once a tablespoonful every three hours; which will make about two wineglassfuls in the day and night. The next day make the interval twice as long—every six hours. Then withhold it all day, and give him a single wineglassful at nine or ten o'clock at night. Let him drink also a pint of hop-tea in the course of the day. If seeming strong enough to do right off without whisky, let him have for a few days a bottle of ale or porter daily.

Nourishment for such a coudition must be strong and easily appropriated. Beef-tea (not filtered, but well skimmed), to which plenty of red pepper is added, may be given freely; in the weakest cases, beef essence. Any light animal food that he likes may be added; as chicken broth, etc. Milk will be very suitable if he will take it, as is sometimes the case.

If a warm bath can be prepared conveniently, a stay in it of half an hour, towards night, being rubbed dry quickly afterwards, will promote sleep.

As to medicine. If you must act in this emergency without medical advice, laudanum is, on the whole, the best resource. Begin at night, with thirty drops. Should he not sleep after three hours, give him thirty drops more. Then, if he continues wide awake, wait six hours, and begin with fifteen drops every four hours. Let the dose at half-past nine or ten o'clock at night be doubled—thirty drops. Dare we push this opiate treatment further, if it still falls short? I hesitate to recommend it to any unprofessional person. But I may say that I have known larger quantities of it, similarly used for four, five, or six days, followed at last by a long sleep and recovery. For other plans of treatment, the reader must be referred to professional medical works.

Dementia. Wreck of the mental powers; imbecility, coming on in a person whose mind was previously sound. It often follows acute or chronic insanity. It is more hopeless than mania or melancholia, the other chief varieties of mental derangement.

Dengue. See Break-bone Fever.

Diabetes Mellitus. A disease characterized by the presence of sugar in the urine. It is a wasting disorder, but slow in progress; often lasting for months or years, but seldom cured.

What does the sugar come from? Certainly either from the food

taken, or from the substance of the tissues of the body. Since the body wastes away gradually, and yet not very fast, and a good deal of sugar is passed daily, it is probable that both the food, after it gets into the blood, and the tissues, furnish the sugar. The liver always has in it some sugar after death, and contains a sugar-forming material, glycozen, during life. Whether the liver is to blame in this case or not, a bad habit of sugar-making exists in the system. How may we discourage (if not prevent), instead of promoting, this habit? Reasonably enough, it is thought, by letting the patient take no sugar-producing food. Not only sugar itself, but starch, everything containing starch, is to be withheld, in accordance with this view. As nearly all vegetables and fruits contain a great deal of starch, meat and bran bread are the chief ingredients of the commonly advised diet of diabetic persons. Milk is excluded, recause it contains lactose, the sugar of milk.

As for medicines, there will always be time enough for these to be considered and directed, in Diabetes, by a competent medical authority. To discover the sugar in the urine requires some knowledge of chemistry. (See "Essentials of Practical Medicine;" or works on Medical Chemistry.) There are no special symptoms of Diabetes Mellitus (beyond the discharge of a very large amount of heavy urine) sufficient to make certain the presence of the disease without a chemical analysis of what is passed.

Diet tables for Diabetic patients have been constructed. The following will answer for that purpose. One so affected should not eat:

Sugar, in any condition.

Wheat, rye, or Indian corn Bread.

Potatoes, Turnips, Parsnips, Carrots,

Peas, Beans, Rice. Arrowroot, Sago, Tapioca.

Pastry, Puddings. Fruit, fresh or preserved. Calf's Liver.

Diabetics may eat:

All kinds of butcher's Meat except Liver.

Ham, Bacon, corned Beef, dried Beef.

Poultry, Game. Fish, fresh or salted.

Soup (except vegetable), Beef-tea, etc.

Bran, gluten, or Graham Bread.

Cheese, Butter, Eggs, Cream.

Spinach, String-beans, Asparagus, Lettuce.

Cabbage, Cauliflower, Broccoli.

Tomatoes, Onions, Radishes, Celery.

Jelly, not sweetened. Custard, made without Sugar.

Nuts and Pickles in moderation.

Diarrhœa. Excessive and liquid discharges from the bowels. Sometimes this occurs by itself, but in many cases it is a symptom of a general disease; as in typhoid fever, eholera, and advanced pulmonary consumption. There is also a form of "consumption of the bowels," with wasting, in which diarrhœa is the most conspicuous symptom.

Diarrhea by itself (idiopathie) is the most common in warm countries and in summer time. Infants are especially liable to it in summer. (See Cholera Infantum.) Treatment of Diarrhea has been already considered pretty fully in this book under Remedies: How to Check Diarrhea; which see, page 270.

Diathesis. A morbid constitutional condition or predisposition: as the scrofulous, gouty, rheumatic, or syphilitic diathesis.

Dilatation of the Heart. See Heart, Diseases of. Dilatation is enlargement of the heart, without thickening of its substance.

Diphtheria. An aeute disease of the general system, with violent inflammatiou of the throat, in which a thick yellowish-white membranous deposit occurs, sometimes extending into the windpipe and causing diphtheritie eroup. The disease is generally *epidemic*; but, with elose contact, as kissing, or inhaling the breath of one affected, it has been shown to be contagious. Princess Alice of Hesse, a daughter of Queen Victoria, is considered to have been the victim of a kiss, by which she caught the disease from one of her children, just recovering from diphtheria. Several physicians have died of it, in consequence of inhaling the breath of patients on whom they were performing the operation of tracheotomy.

Although described as sometimes seen by aneient writers, and in modern Europe and America at long intervals (as in New England in 1736, and New York in 1771), Diphtheria never prevailed extensively either in Europe or this country before 1855-6. Now it is often absent from many places for years together, and then may break out, in a village quite as often as a city, or in a single family, even; destroying in such cases a number of lives in succession, especially among children.

As to the causation of Diphtheria, the two most important practical points are, one, that it is sometimes personally contagious; and the other, that it is promoted by an impure atmosphere; such as that of large tenement-houses, close alleys, leaky drains, stagnant sewers, etc. Reason exists for believing also that impure drinking water tends towards the same result. Diphtheria is, in part, like typhus and typhoid fevers, a filth-bred disease.

How shall we know an attack of Diphtheria from one of common sore throat? Unless Diphtheria is known to be prevailing at the time, do not suppose it at all probable that any case is of that disease. Multi-

tudes of people have quinsy, and greater multitudes slight inflammation of the fauces and pharynx, without any Diphtheria. In the latter, there is a severe illness: the throat is very sore; and, when you press down the tongue with the handle of a tablespoon, you may see on one side or both, back of the tongue, patches, whitish or dull yellowish-white (late in the attack sometimes almost brown), looking like hardened phlegm. They are almost of the nature of mucus, only more solid, and not separated from the lining of the throat. Be sure not to mistake for such diphtheritie deposits, either 1, small bits of phlegm, ordinary mucus; or 2, small pimples or enlarged and inflamed follicles of the throat. To make sure, let the patient (if old enough) wash out the throat with pure ware.; and then look again. If mucus, the patches will have been washed away. If either pimples (papules) or enlarged follicles, the washing will make their small size and regular rounded shape distinct. A diphtheritie throat, moreover, is all red and swollen with inflammation. Bad cases have this to extend also into the uostrils, with an acrid, nasty discharge from them. If there be a raw place anywhere on the body, as from a blister, diphtheritie membrane will be apt to form on it also.

Diphtheria is not generally a very rapid disease. Sometimes its progress for several days is gradual and insidious. The child or other patient does not appear to be so ill as he is. But in three days or so, most generally, it shows itself to be bad enough. Very many get well; but a considerable fraction of cases do not, but die within about a week. On recovery, great debility is commonly left, and sometimes partial paralysis, affecting the muscles of speech and of swallowing, or, it may be, the lower limbs.

What are we to do for Diphtheria? I am reminded by this question of what I heard a celebrated physician, the elder Dr. Hodge, of Philadelphia, tell of himself. When he had been some time in practice, and married, a child of his had a convulsion. "For heaven's sake," said Doctor Hodge, "somebody go and run for a doctor!" So I must say to the reader when a case of Diphtheria occurs: go for a doctor. It is impossible for me to dogmatize about its treatment. A dozen or two plans for it are set forth in medical books and periodicals. I will only say that those of my cases in practice have done best in which I gave early and large doses of chlorate of potassium; five grains for a child under ten years of age, and twenty grains for an adult, every three hours, dissolved in water. Of course the patient must be kept comfortably warm and quiet in bed. An early moderate dose of citrate of magnesium, or Rochelle salts, or Tarrant's aperient will be suitable. The throat may be bathed repeatedly outside with soap liniment or "hartshorn and oil," and gargled with alum water or a weak solution of chlorohydrie (muriatic) acid mixed with honey. One of the most agreeable and useful things, however, will be the swallowing slowly of small pieces of ice, at tolerably short intervals. Liquid food must be given from the start; milk, beef-tea, chicken-broth, etc. For the account of further particulars, and various modes of treatment, I must refer the reader to "Essentials of Practical Medicine," or some other professional medical work.

Diplopia. Seeing double; two objects instead of one. Hemiopia (more rare) is seeing only half of an object at a time.

Dipsomania. See Methomania.

Dissecting Wounds. Poisoned wounds, got while handling recently dead bodies; as in post-mortem examinations made by physicians, or in the dissecting rooms of medical colleges. Similar results follow from even very slight wounds, as the puncture of a needle or a _n, into which matter from ulcers, abscesses, or any unhealthy sores, has been allowed to enter. During my carly medical experience, I suffered from three such wounds; two of them producing serious illnesses. They are often fatal. In my own, as in most other cases, inflammation of one or more of the lymphatic (absorbent) vessels took place. A bright red line, very tender to the touch, ran up my arm to the armpit. There, in my worst case, a glandular abscess formed, as large as an apple. When it softened and was opened, I began to improve and get well.

Prevention of such poisoned wounds is always attainable, even when one's hands are immersed in the products of decay and death. First, never touch such things if there is the least scratch on the hand. Secondly, if a knife, needle, pin, or edge of bone breaks the skin while at work in such materials, at once wash and then suck the part thoroughly; and do not expose it to the same things again. This is not a pleasant precaution, but it is very effective and important.

Diuresis. Excessive discharge of urine. Diabetes means the same thing; only in case of sugar being found in the urine the term mellitus (from mel, Latin for honcy) is added to the latter name.

Dracunculus. Guinea-worm; one of the parasites which, in tropical elimates, occasionally live in the human body.

Dropsy. A collection of watery fluid, either in the connective tissue all over the body, or in some of the great cavities; as hydrothorax, dropsy of the chest, hydrocephalus, of the head, ascites, of the abdomen; anasarca, general dropsy; ædema, watery swelling of a part of the body. Of the causation of Dropsy, enough for our purpose has been said under the Nature of Diseases. Concerning its treatment, see Remedies; under the heading Dropsy (page 290).

Drowning. See Accidents and Emergencies, in the last part of this book.

Dumbness. Every one born deaf must be dumb (mute), because, without hearing, he cannot learn to speak. Of latter years, a system has been invented by which deaf persons can, with long perseverance, be taught to speak by looking at and following the motions of the tongue, lips, and throat. A few are without speech from malformation or defect of the organs used; i. e., the cords and muscles of the larynx, the organ of voice. Impediments of speech from such causation are not uncommon. Idiots (born imbeciles), and those who become imbecile from disease affecting the brain, are sometimes dumb, simply from want of sense.

Dysentery. An inflammatory affection of the lower bowel; with frequent, small, and bloody discharges, passed with pain and straining. The belly is tender to the touch or on movement; fever is often present in severe cases. Dysentery is most common in and near Philadelphia in August and September; but it may occur in scattered cases at any season. Some localities, especially in tropical climates, have it every year as a rent of endemic disease. Eating unwholesome food, as unripe fruit, is one of its causes; being suddenly chilled after great warmth is another.

In treatment of Dysentery, rest in bed is indispensable. A large warm mush and mustard poultice should be laid over the abdomen, and covered with oiled silk. At the very start, half a tablespoonful of castor-oil, with ten drops of laudanum and a tablespoonful of spiced syrup of rhubarb, will be a good dose. Leaving to the physician to prescribe the rest, it may be said that ipecac. in small doses (not more than a grain at once, best in pill) is one of the most useful medicines in Dysentery; opium has to be resorted to tolerably early, also in small doses; from one-eighth to half a grain, according to the suffering and number of discharges, every three or four hours; later, obstinacy of the case may require sugar of lead, half grain to a grain several times a day, as a sedative astringent; and laudanum and starch injections into the bowels (twenty, thirty, or forty drops of laudanum in a tablespoonful or two of starch) constitute an important part of the management of severe cases. Food only of the simplest and most soothing kind is allowable in Dysentery; arrowroot, sago, tapioca, corn-starch, made with milk to make them more nourishing, will be the best things; with rice-water for a drink. Chicken-broth may be the first variation from these; afterwards beef-tea, etc. In convalescence, care must be used not to get up and move about too soon; also, not to venture on all kinds of food before the bowels are altogether settled. Chronic Dysentery depends

usually on ulceration of the lower bowels. It is sometimes difficult to cure, even under the care of a skilful practitioner.

Dysmenorrhæa. Painful menstruation. Some women suffer considerably every month; others only occasionally. Besides such treatment as belongs to professional skill and experience, domestic precantions and measures suitable are these: Avoiding fatigue of body or mind for a day or two before, as well as at, the regular time for the change; remaining at rest in bed or on a couch through the needful time; applying a flannel wrung out of hot (not merely warm) water over the lower abdomen; and taking some warming antispasmodic or anodyne drink. Such may be spirit of camphor, twenty drops, with compound spirit of lavender a teaspoonful, in a wineglassful of hot water, in a mild case. In a severe one, a teaspoonful or two of paregoric should take the place of the camphor; and such a dose may be repeated, if pain is great, in two or three hours. Married women who have children are likely, if subject before to Dysmenorrhæa, to get rid of it.

Dyspepsia. Habitual indigestion. Its most common causes are, eating indigestible food; taking too much food; cating too fast; swallowing the food without proper chewing; and mental worry. I have known it to be produced in a workingman by drinking a bowlful of strong coffee three times a day. Symptoms of Dyspepsia are: pain or discomfort in the stomach, increased after eating; belching, from flatulence; sour taste in the mouth; sometimes "water-brash," i. c., a fluid coming up from the stomach into the mouth; in certain instances "heartburn," the feeling really starting in the stomach, though seeming to be about the heart; poor appetite; constipation of the bowels; low spirits (hypochondria). Some dyspeptics cannot forget their stomachs at all, and also compel all their acquaintances to remember their unhappy condition. This is often a very hard disorder to cure; but it is not immediately dangerous to life.

Treatment of Dyspepsia requires, first, great care in the diet. When everything disagrees, the patient is often not a good judge of what is best for him. Meat, tender and good, especially beef, lamb, turkey, and chicken, must, with stale bread, oatmeal mush, and crackers, make the bulk of his nourishment. He must eat slowly, take time for it, with his mind as much at ease as possible.

Secondly, his habits of mind and body must be improved. Something to do every day, will be advantageous; exercise out of doors is very important; but over-fatigue, and worse, over-worry with business, will not suit him at all. Let him always sit awhile, talking or reading (not studying), after a meal.

Thirdly, constipution must be relieved. Fresh fruit, especially peaches, or the best apples, or in their absence stewed prunes or dried peaches, will generally help much. Rhubarb is the best of mediciner as a "peristaltic persuader" for the dyspeptie. Friederichshalle or Hunyadi Janos water will do now and then for a change.

Fourthly, tonics are appropriate, especially the simple bitter tonics; as gentian, quassia, columbo, etc. Probably the most convenient of all is the compound tincture of gentian; a small desserts poonful, in a little water, after each meal.

Fifthly, acidity may be counteracted by occasional doses of lime-water, soda, potash (bicarbonate of potassium), or, when costive, magnesia. Vichy lozenges and "soda mints" are good for this purpose.

Sixthly, although the poor and irregular meals often necessarily taken in travelling are not beneficial, yet change of place, scene, and diet is generally good for a dyspeptic person. It helps to get his attention away from his own ailments; and it is a fact about a disordered stomach, that the more you think about it the more it won't behave itself.

Dyspnæa. Difficulty of breathing. It is met with in croup, asthma, dilatation of the heart, dropsy of the chest or abdomen, epidemic cholera, and some other affections. Its worst degree (short of asphyxia, suffocation) is called orthopnora; the patient being obliged to sit up in order to breathe at all. Ireatment of it belongs to the disease which causes it.

Dysuria. Difficulty in passing water. See Urine, Retention of.

Earache. Most common in infancy and childhood. When a baby too young to talk screams with pain, not relieved at all by a hot flannel over its stomach, and not accounted for by pins, hunger, thirst, or temper, touch the central part of its car. If this, on pressing it, makes it shrink and cry more loudly, you may be pretty sure it has Earache. Drop into it, first, a tenspoonful of almost hot water. Should this not seem to do good, follow it with two drops of warm sweet-oil, added to one drop of laudanum. Obstinate cases may be treated with poultices to the ear, of hops, mush, etc. For these send for a doctor.

Ear, Inflammation of: Otitis. A painful ear, continuing so all day, and tender to the touch, must be inflamed. This may be, and often is, a slight affair, which will get well of itself in a few days; but sometimes it is extremely severe, possibly extending to the brain. A bad case will end in the formation of pus (matter), which discharges either through the outer channel (meatus) of the ear, or, more slovely, by the

Eustachian tube, into the upper part of the throat,

Very little treatment is available for ear inflammation. Almond oil to drop in, is soothing; and so is gently applying, all over the margin of the ear-opening, the cold ercam of the apothecary. Severe pain may be relieved, as in simple earache, by a drop of laudanum, followed by a poultice of hops or warm mush.

If a poultice is used, it ought to have a piece of fine gauze between it and the ear, to prevent the unterial from getting into the passage. Leeches are often applied with good result to an acutely inflamed ear; and, at a later stage, a small blister just behind the ear may hasten the cure.

Ears, Ringing in: Tinnitus Aurium. This may have several causes. If it be in one ear alone, it is almost certainly due to some fault in that ear. When both ears are alike affected, the cause may be in the ears, or, quite as often, in the general state of the brain. Quinine, taken in large doses, produces in most people ringing or roaring in the ears; and so does salicylic acid. Staying in the house for days together without exercise will bring it on in some persons.

General nervous exhaustion is frequently attended by it. All these are causes affecting both ears, through the condition of the brain.

In the ear itself, obstruction to the conduction of sound, as by wax, or the stoppage of the Eustachian tube, will sometimes cause this symptom. It also comes, with dizziness, as premonitory of *Menière's discuse*. This is a rare affection. On the whole, while it is unpleasant, ringing in the ears alone, without other signs of serious disorder in the brain, does not necessarily indicate anything very dangerous.

Eczema. A disease of the skin, with a more or less water; eruption, often scabbing. See Skin Diseases.

Elephantiasis. Enlargement of a limb, or of the neck or trunk, "elephant-like." See Shin Diseases.

Embolism.

F16. 219.

Obstruction of a blood-vessel by an embolus; that is, a small fragment of blood-fibrin washed the ough the circulation from an organ which is the seat of inflammation. An embolus, acting as a plug, may so arrest the supply of blood by an artery as to cause the death of the part (as an arm or leg) by mortification (gangrene).

Emphysema. Distriction of the cells of a lung, or of the connective tissue under the skin, by air. It is not a common occurrence, in either situation.

FLUG (EMBOLUS) OF ARTERY.

the body.

Empyema. A collection of pus in the pleural cavity of the chest; following pleurisy, or suppuration of the lung from inflammation and abscess. Most frequently it is the result of severe pleurisy. If a spontaneous opening between the ribs does not give it exit, physicians often deem it best to ict it out by an operation; as pus will not, like serum, be absorbed, and is always a source of danger to life when it remains in any cavity of

Endocardit's. Inflamination of the lining membrane of the heart It is attended by much distress, and may be fatal in a few days. When not so, lasting injury may be left, in changes in the valves of the heart. See Heart, Diseases of. Inflammatory Rheumatism is the principal antecedent of endo- as well as of pericarditis.

Enteric Fever. See Typhoid Fever.

Epilepsy. The "falling disease;" habitual or periodic convulsions. The patient falls, after little or no warning, becoming unconscious at once. His limbs jerk, and his jaws are closed with violence; sometimes biting the tongue. Foaming at the mouth is common. In a few minutes, usually, the attack is over; but drowsiness, perhaps stnpor, or occasionally wild frenzy, follows in a certain number of cases. The fits may come every day or oftener; or at intervals of days, weeks, or months. Epilepsy is hereditary in some families. Otherwise, it may be brought on by sensual excesses, abuse of tobacco, fright, or any other cause of great nervous disturbance or exhaustion. It is very hard to cure. Bromide of potassium has more power than any other drug in lessening the number of fits; but its large administration has inconvenient effects on the system. Epilepsy, after long continuance, mostly impairs the condition of the mental faculties. Yet several of the most celebrated men have been epileptics: Cæsar, Mohammed, Petrarch, Newton, Peter the Great, Napoleon I., Lord Byron.

Epithelloma. A tumor or morbid growth, consisting chiefly of the minute forms called epithelial cells; such as are natural to the surface of the skin, and to the mucous being of the mouth, throat, etc. When these multiply irregularly, or are found growing in parts to which such cells do not naturally belong, the tumor is considered cancerous; and, as a rule with very few exceptions, it is incurable. Sometimes, when cut away, or otherwise destroyed, very early, it does not return. Microscopic examination is accessary to determine the nature of such a tumor.

Eruptions. See Skin Diseasea; also, Exanthemata.

Erysipelas. A spreading inflammatory affection of the skin. Beginning mostly, but not always, at a part which is inflamed, or which has been wounded in some way, it extends gradually over the skin. Sometimes a large part of the body is thus involved. Worst of all is Erysipelas of the head; as delirium and other signs of inflammation of the brain may then follow, indicating great danger. Elsewhere, how ever, extensive Erysipelas may exhaust the strength, very much as in the case of a burn over half of the body; or deep inflammation, even of one or two of the limbs, may cause so much formation of pus under the skin as to give great trouble,

Erysipelas prevails especially in ill-ventilated hospitals. Now and then, however, a single case occurs, under other circumstances, which we cannot explain. It is not contagious from person to person. Contact with it, however, seems to give a liability to generate the infection of puerperal fever. Physicians and nurses should never go from attending upon or visiting a case of erysipelas to take charge of a case of labor.

Early local treatment may avail much in this disease. When the first burning sensation, with tenderness to the touch and redness, comes on in a part, apply to it at once and repeatedly fresh cold cream or pure tallow or lard. As a conflagration may be prevented by the timely use of a bucketful of water, so we may prevent, at the start, a possibly very serious attack of Erysinelas.

In treatment of the disease, when fairly developed, nothing is gained by trying to suppress the eruption. Soothing it is very proper; as by oxide of zinc ointment, weak lead-water, lime-water and oil, etc. Heading it off. to prevent its extending from the trunk or face to the head, is an old expedient; sometimes it may succeed, but not always. It is attempted by painting the skin thickly with tincture of iodine, just begond the inflamed part. Cooling medicine, as citagenesium or Rochelle salts, citrate of potassium, acetate of ar inclusion, is appropriate to the early, feverish state of an attack of Erymass. Simple, unstimulating, but nourishing liquid diet is also in place; milk, beef-tea,

outmeal gruel, etc. Under such a simple treatment, I have seen a large number of cases of this disease recover, in hospitals as well as in private practice. The most trusted remedy for Erysipelas, however, with most physicians at the present duy, is tincture of the chloride of iron; fifteen or twenty drops every three or four h. Some also give alcohol freely to erysipelatous patients. That some them, especially in hospitals, may require it, is entirely probable. I must mention, however, that of all the cases of Erysipelas under my care in twenty years, all of whom got well, not one took, by my advice, a drop of ulcohol.

Erythema. A mild superficial inflammation of the skin, spreading somewhat, but without the severity of erysipelas. See Skin Discusses.

Exanthemata. The acute eruptive and febrile disorders; namely, small-pox, varioloid, chicken-pox, scarlet fever, and measles. Each of these has or will have its place and separate consideration in this alphabetical series. They all come out within one or two weeks after exposure to the contagion.

Small-pox has the eruption to begin on the third day, as pimples, becoming watery, and then suppurating, pitting, drying, scabbing, and falling off. It lasts in all about three weeks.

Varioloid resembles small-pox, except that in all respects it is milder, and runs its course in a shorter time.

Chicken-pox (raricella) looks like very mild variole l, but with more scattered vesicles; aming out in successive small crops, and seldom suppurating. The whole attack may be over in from a week to ten duys.

Scarlet fever has generally (in this like small-pox) pain in the head and back, with sick stomach, perhaps vomiting, at the beginning. On the second day, soreness of the throat appears, the throat and tongue being very red. About the ame time, bright diffused redness is seen on the face, trunk, and limbs, increasing until, in marked cases, the whole surface of the body has a red and swollen look, with a very hot fever also.

Measles does not have the cruption to begin until the fourth day (sometimes later). Cough and redness of the eyes and running at the nose come sconer, perhaps with the first malaise of the beginning sickness. The measles eruption is in irregular patches or "blotches," and, on looking closely, we see that it is made up of small pimples, larger than any seen in the scarlet fever eruption. The redness, moreover, is less bright, and the heat of skin less intense, than in that malady. Soreness of the throat is occasionally met with in measles, but it is not a characteristic symptom. The duration of measles is from seven to



SCARLET FEVER



MEASLES.



ten days; of scarlet fever, about the same. Measles may leave behind it weak eyes, or a chronic cough. Scarlet fever, if severe, may, though recovered from, cause blindness or deafness. More often it is followed by dropsy. Scarlet fever is, of the two, much the most dangerous to life.

Exophthalmic Goitre. A singular disease, in which the eyeballs protrude, the throat swells as in common goitre (bronchocele, Derbyshire neck, enlargement of the thyroid gland), the heart and arteries throb



EXOPHTHALMIC GOITRE.

with violence, especially upon exertion. It is a disorder of long continuance, sometimes recovered from, but far from always. Its treatment is difficult, and a subject of different opinions among physicians. The two remedies that I have seen do the most good in its management are digitalis and iron. It is very important for the patient having it to avoid hurrying the action of the heart by quick or laborious movements of any kind. The nearer at rest from exertion he is, the better. (Fig. 220.)

Eye, Diseases of. Inflammation of the eye may affect only the surface covering of the eyeball and lining of the lids, when it is called conjunctivitis; or the cornea, corneitis; the hard fibrous coat, sclerotitis; the ring around the pupil, ivitis; or the retina, retinitis. A general inflammation of the eye is called ophthalmia. This is common; but the degree in which the different coats are involved varies much.

In home practice, the care of conjunctivitis is most likely to occur. In that, the eyelids and ball are red, the lids swollen; moderate pain and great soreness of the eye are felt; light cannot be borne with comfort. All use of both eyes must be given up for the time. Iced sasse-fras-pith water may be applied freely and often over both closed lids, with a cannel's-hair peneil; or, less beneficially, by laying a light rag wet with it upon the eye. The patient must remain in a rather dark room during the height of the attack; but this must not be continued many days, as it is unfavorable to the general health. Leeches may do good in a severe case, in which the whole eye is painfully affected. An obstinate case, especially if both eyes are inflamed, may also call for the application of a small blister across the back of the neck.

Chronic conjunctivitis is attended by an enlargement of the superficial blood-vessels, causing "granular lids," which continue red and swollen, the eyes being irritable and "weak." Having suffered much inconvenience from this during the first twenty years of my life, I may here mention what (after trying many things) most aided in euring it. This was the frequeut painting of the outer surface of the lids with lead-water; using a soft camel's-hair pencil. My lead-water was made by putting one drop of Goulard's extract of subacctate of lead in about a fluid-ounce of clean water; and my custom was for years to return to it whenever March winds, or any outer cause, renewed the irritation of my eyes. After the lead-water, anointing the lids at night with cold cream is a good practice.

Sclerotic inflammation is in most cases rheumatie in origin; fibrous tissues are the ones generally subject to rhenmatism. It is more painful than conjunctivitis; but it is much less common. Wine of colchicum root is an anti-rheumatic remedy, and oil of cajuput, on the same indication, may, in sclerotitis, follow a brisk saline purgative dose. Rags wet with laudanum may be laid upon the eye from time to time to

assuage the pain,

Iritis is not very common, but is in many cases connected with constitutional Syphilis. When there is room to suppose this (or, indeed, whether so or not), calomel, blue mass, or the protiodide of mercury, will be likely to be prescribed by the medical attendant in the case.

Retinitis and optic neuritis (inflammation of the optic nerve), as well

as corneitis and choroiditis, are too difficult of diagnosis and special management to be considered except in professional works.

Blindness may be caused by: 1. Failure or paralysis of the "eyebrain" or of the optic nerve, as happens in some old people, and in what has been until lately called amaurosis. 2. Cataract; that is, opacity of the crystalline lens in the centre of the cye. This opacity may, in an advanced case, be easily seen, as a milky appearance, behind (seemingly in) the pupil. 3. Destruction of part of the refracting apparatus by disease, as small-pox. 4. Opacity of the cornea, which is the transparent coat at the front of the eyeball, set (like a window in a sash) in the selerotic coat. Other causes of partial or total blindness exist, but these are the most frequent and important.

Oculists have pushed their special studies and experience so far of late years, that even general practitioners of medicine and surgery are accustomed to leave, when they can, the treatment of eye affections to them. It will, therefore, be quite beyond our present scope to go farther into that subject. On crrors of vision, and their correction, see Hygiene: Care of the Eyes, page 159.

Faceache. Tio-douloureux (popularly called "tic doloroo!"). See Neuralgia.

Facial Palsy. Although not unfrequently consequent upon brain disease, palsy of one side of the face is, in the larger number of cases, especially in young subjects, the temporary result of inflammation from cold of the sheath of the "seventh nerve," which passes through an opening just below the ear. The effect of it upon the countenance is odd. The patient may smile with the healthy side of his 'ace, while the other side is quite without expression. As above said, such cases recover, as a rule, in a few weeks, requiring little if any treatment, besides what is suggested by the "cold" in which the trouble took its rise.

Fainting. Syncope. Under some depressing or exhausting causation, the heart gives out, and refuses to send blood to the brain and other parts. Therefore, becoming unconscious, the person falls, unless supported. The face is pale, the pulse absent, the skin cold, the breathing almost null for the time.

What shall we do? Lay the fainting person down at once, so that aired blood may flow from the heart and lungs to the head, reanimating the "centre of respiration" (medulla oblongata) as well as restoring consciousness. Keep all erowding at a distance. Open the windows to let in fresh air; or carry the "faintee" out, still in the horizontal position. Sprinkle cold water in her (it is mostly a woman) face. If at hand, hold smelling salts (animonia) near, but not too near or too long, to her nostrils. So, a mere faint will soou pass off. If kept in the erect position, in the midst of a crowd in a close room, one who faints may have the "syncope" to pass into actual death.

Prevention of a faint, when threatened, may be had upon the same priuciple; by the person who feels like it dropping a handkerchief, or anything else, and stooping down to pick it up. This will attract very little attentiou; and the lowering of the head will be apt to freshen up the brain and avert the attack.

Famine Fever. See Relapsing Fever.

Fatty Degeneration. As before spoken of, this is the substitution of fat for higher tissue, such as muscle, liver-substance, etc., of different organs. Fatty degeneration of the heart has been most fully studied by physicians. It is not common before late middle life. Coming on gradually, its existence may for a long time not be discovered. Sometimes only death makes it certain. Its signs are those of weakness of the heart; especially a sense of exhaustion and shortness of breath on exertion. The pulse is usually feeble and slow when at rest, often irregular. Fainting spells may occur; sometimes with snoring respiration, like apoplexy; but unlike that, in passing off with no succeeding palsy.

Also, in the "syncopal apoplexy" of heart degeneration, the skin is cold, the pulse weak; while in true apoplexy, the head at least is warm, the face flushed, and the pulse full and slow.

Fatty degeneration is not enrable. What can be done is to husband the strength, and avoid trying the heart by any great or sudden exertion or excitement. Runture (breaking or tearing) of the fatty heart is a not uncommon mode of death in those affected with it.

Favus. A very disagreeable disease of the hairy scalp. See Skin Diseases.

Felon. A severe inflammation of a finger, ending in suppuration. If the matter forms or finds its way under the fibrous sheaths of the tendous ("leaders") of the hand, it is very painful; and, unless opened by a surgeon, tedious. Professional opinion generally favors (besides poultieing with bread or flaxseed) early incision, down to the bone; so as to let out the matter before it spreads around in the deeper parts of the hand.

Fever. General remarks on this subject have been made under General Disorders (page 237). Medical text-books give account of the following varieties of Fever: Cerebro-spinal, Intermitient, Remittent, Pernicious, Puerperal, Relapsing, Scarlet (equally a fever with Measles and Small-pox), Typhoid, Typhus, and Yellow Fevers. On each of these something is said in the present alphabetical series.

Filaria. A genus of minute parasites of men and animals. One of them, filaria sanguinis hominis, swims about in the blood-vessels of human beings, in some tropical climates. Mosquitoes (or kindred insects) are charged, not without plansible evidence, with conveying them with their bills from one person to another.

Fissure of the Anus. See Anus, Fissure of. Fissure of Nipple. See Nipple, Cracked.

Fits. See Convulsions.

Flatulence. Wind in the stomach or bowels; causing uneasiness and more or less pain, and tending to escape disagreeably either upwards or downwards. See Dyspepsia and Colic. For slight occasional attacks of Flatulence, ten or fifteen drops of Essence of Ginger, or five to ten drops of Essence of Peppermint (diffused in water), or five or six drops of Oil of Cajuput on a lump of sugar, or a "soda mint," will be mostly a sufficient remedy. The eure of the disposition to indigestion, however, which causes the flatulence, should be attended to, when it recurs often.

Frost-bite. Possibly sometimes the result of simple exposure of the feet to cold: more often, or and by suddenly heating them when they have be the colding in from walking or skating in cold weather,

and putting the feet at once to a hot fire, is an almost certain way of getting frosted feet. The manner of this is like that in which plants are killed by frost. Heat and cold alter the bulk of fluids more than that of the solids that contain them; and sudden expansion and then contraction, or vice versa, bursts the delicate cells of the plant structure, and strains, if it does not burst, animal cells and tubes.

Frost-bite is an acute inflammation of the skin, thus produced. If the feet are actually frozen, mortification is endangered. Several of Dr. Kane's companions in his Arctic expeditions lost their toes in this way.

Treatment of Frost-bite (chilblain) may consist of the application, during the height of the inflammation, of lead-water, glycerin, and laudanum (a fluidounce, i.e., two tablespoonfuls, of lead-water, half as much glycerin, and a teaspoonful of laudanum). Afterwards, bathing the feet morning and night in tepid oak-bark tea or alum water (precise strength not important); followed by cold cream or simple cerate. Cabbage-leaves are often used for this trouble in domestic practice.

Gall-stones. Hardened bile, of which small masses pass along the duct from the liver and gall-bladder to enter the duodenum (first part of the small intestine). Very severe pain attends this passage; relieved as soon as the gall-stone escapes from the bile-duct into the bowel. Occasionally such stones remain in the gall-bladder for a considerable time. In a few cases, the gall-bladder, or duct, bursts, letting its liquid contents into the abdominal cavity. This is a fatal accident. (Fig. 221.)

Gangrene. See general remarks (page 232) on Mortification. Dry Gangrene is the kind now and then seen in aged people, who thus die at the feet before the rest of the body. Signs of Gangrene are, coldness, "mushiness," blackness and loss of feeling in the part. Briefly, it dies and rots; then sloughing off;—a "line of demarcation" forming between the living and the dead tissue, if the process stops. Often, however, it goes slowly npwards towards the centre of the body, depressing vitality more and more until it ends in death.

To arrest the progress of Gangrene is often impossible. Strengthen-

Fig. 221.



GALL-STONES IN GALL-BLADDER.

ing the patient's system to endure it, and to throw off the dying part, is the main thing. Amputation of a limb is sometimes resorted to; this will only save life if mortification does not begin again in the stump. Washes of a stimulating character are suitable for Gangrene. I doubt whether any are better than pure whisky and dilute nitric acid (twenty drops to a half-pint of water), used, one or the other, twice a day. Charcoal ponltices are sometimes applied for cleanliness (powdered charcoal mixed with bread and water). Antiseptic washes, to relieve the offensive odor, may be made of solution of chioride of soda (a teaspoonful of Labarraque's liquid to a half-pint of water), or permanganate of potassium (ten grains in a half-pint of water).

Gangrene of the lung is a rare but nearly (or quite) always fatal disorder. It is recognized by the horribly offensive putrid odor of the breath. Supporting measures, by quinine, beef-tea, milk, and suitable alcoholic stimulation, are all that can be done for such a case.

Gastric Fever. Old, rather than recent, medical books use this des-

ignation for cases, now recognized as not all of one character. Children, when suffering with indigestion, often have considerable fever with it; this is one variety. In children, also, malarial remittent may occur, with disorder of the stomach as a symptom; and typhoid fever, in children, has vomiting with it, tolerably often (in adults it is rare in that disease). Either of these may correspond with what, sixty years ago, was called Gastrie Fever, or Infantile Remittent.

Gastritis. Inflammation of the stomach. Acute Gastritis, by itself, is very rare, except from an injury or from poisoning. Irritation, with moderate inflammation, of the stomach, duodenum, and liver, is what manifests itself in a bilious attack. Chronic Gastritis is not uncommon. It differs from dyspepsia (to which it has a resemblance so far as habitual indigestion is concerned) in the presence of tenderness on pressure at the pit of the stomach. Stimulating articles, such as ginger, pepper, etc., increase the distress of Chronic Gastritis. Blund, soft food is best for it; arrowroot, sago, tapioca, rice, lime-water, and milk. Medicine appropriate to it had better be left to the physician. Sub-nitrate of bismuth and nitrate of silver (pills of one-quarter grain, with one-quarter grain of opium) are fuvorites here with many practitioners.

Gin-Liver. Cirrhosis; Hob-nailed Liver. One of the results or manifestations of alcoholic poisoning; often brought on by long-continued intemperance. Symptoms of it are, indigestion, sickness of stomach, constipation, sallowness of complexion, debility, wasting, abdominal dropsy, and enlargement of the veius over the surface of the abdomen. Treatment of it is null, beyond breaking off alcoholic indulgence, and promoting the general health by attention to all the obvious needs of a failing system. The course of the malady generally occupies several months, ending with delirium, stupor, perhaps convulsions, and death.

Cirrhosis of the Liver, however, sometimes occurs without intemperance. It is a degenerative affection, and may, though seldom, be brought on by other causes which depress the vitality of the system.

Glanders. A contagious disease of the horse, now and then taken by grooms or hostlers. Beginning with inflammation of the nostrils, it extends to the throat, face, and eyes; with fever, pustules on the skin, and diarrhea. Death results in three or four weeks.

Glaucoma. A painful disease of the eye, often ending in blindness. A characteristic of it is, excessive tension of the fluids of the eyeball; so that, to a delicate touch, it feels harder than natural. With the phthalmoscope (a mirror throwing strong light into the eye, and partial with a hole through which an oculist can look), there is seen a cup-like depression at the entrance of the optic nerve (cupped disk). For the treatment of Glaucoma, see special books on Diseases of the Eye.

Goitre. Enlargement of the thyroid gland, in front of the neck. It is occasionally met with in various places; but is very common in the

valleys of the Alps, and in some other mountain districts. What there causes it is not certainly known. Excess of mineral substances in the drinking water is a possible cause; too little sunshine with too great dampness may be another; and a third may be (at least intensifying these) close intermarriage of families. Cretinism, which is a stunted condition of the body, with imbecility, often accompanies the Goitre of Switzerland. Both are found to be, if not curable, at least capable of nuch improvement, when their subjects are removed in early life to other and more healthy situations. For the treatment of



Goitre as it may occur occasionally anywhere, iodine has a high reputation; but it is not an infallible remedy. See Ophthalmic Goitre.

Gonorrhæa. A contagious disease of impure intercourse; for which, see works on Surgery.

Gout. Simple Gout is an acute and very painful inflammation of the toes and fingers, whose most frequent cause is high living; that is, free indulgence in wine or malt liquors, with rich animal food, and but little exercise. In rare instances, it comes without using any alcoholic beverages. Once fastened upon the constitution, it may (as a diathesis) show itself as flying Gout; now in the joints, and then in the stomach or the heart. Also, it is hereditary in many instances. Children of gouty parents, as they grow up, may have regular gout of the toes (podagra, or arthritis, of old medical books), or, as often, gouty attacks of the stomach, or dyspepsia, or neuralgia. The last-named is very common in such families.

In the treatment of attacks of regular gout, colchicum is a standard remedy; wine of colchicum root, in ten- to fifteen-drop doses. With it, at first, magnesia is a good medicine; afterwards, soda or potassa (bicarbonate of sodium or potassium) or lithia in moderate doses, continued for several days. The morbid agent of Gout appears to be an acid—uric or lithic acid—some of which is always present as a result of "waste of tissue," but which is in excess in the system in this disease. Laudanum may be applied on light rags (covered with oiled silk) to relieve the pain of the inflamed small joints. Sometimes Opium may be taken internally; especially in the form of Dover's Powder (see

Opium, under Remedies), both to relieve palu and to promote perspiration. Repeated gouty inflammations of the toes or fingers may leave the joints irregularly swollen with chalky deposits, which almost crumble under pressure. For gouty attacks affecting the stomach or heart, prompt use of anodyne and stimulant remedies is a for a teaspoonful of whisky or brandy, or of Hoffmann's anodyne allowed, if relief does not soon come, by twenty-five or thirty drops of laudanum; also, a mustard-plaster over the seat of the spasmodic pain, and a hot musterd foot-bath, as soon as possible.

Gravel. Small stones, or sand, formed in the kidneys, and passing thence to the bladder. There they cance irritation, with pain or burning in passing water. Most generally, Gravel consists of particles or masses of uric acid or its compounds; the same that are found in excercin the blood in gout. Alkaline treatment is proper for it, along with something soothing, and a light, nustimulating diet. Bicarbonate of sodium ("soda") in ten-grain doses, with half-teaspoonful doses of sweet spirit of nitre, taken several times daily in flaxseed-tea, will usually give ref. The use of the sweet spirit of nitre is to increase the flow of urine, and so dilute and wash away the excess of uric acid or other deposit.

Grip or La Grippe. A common popular name for the epidemic of Influenza (page 486), which spread over the world in 1889, 1890, and 1891. Beginning in Russia in 1889, it moved gradually westward, affecting several countries in Europe, and finally also the United States and Canada. A similar but more irregular course followed in 1890, and again in 1891. Multitudes of people were attacked, especially in the large eities. More prostrating than former epidemics of Influeuza, a considerable number of deaths were ascribed to it, and the general mortality was largely increased on account of the frequent complication of pneumonia and the aggravation by it of other diseases. In London, during one week in the early part of 1891, 500 deaths occurred from diseases of the breathing organs alone. In Chicago, during one week in March, 1891, 70 deaths were ascribed to the Grip and 240 to Pneumonia-an unprecedented mortality from such diseases. In New York, about the same time, 146 deaths from all causes occurred in 24 hours, and 196 policemen were at that time on the sick list, chiefly from the Grip. In Philadelphia it was not quite so bad, although almost every one had an attack; and in the week ending March 24, 1891, the deaths numbered 463, which was 17 more than in the corresponding week of the previous year, and largely beyond the average for that time in a number of years. In that week 54 deaths were ascribed to consumption of the lungs and 39 to pneumonia.

The Grip varies a good deal in its symptoms. So much, in the beginning, does it resemble a common "cold" that every one who has canglit cold from any exposure is ant to suppose that he has "La Grippe." (This term is from the French, but it is considered in better taste to translate it into our good short English word, descriptive of the strong hold it takes-the Grip.)

Usually, first come headache, backache, often leg-ache, reminding physicians of dengue, or break-bone fever. But dengue has never spread over the world like this epidemie. Morcover, in almost all cases a cough occurs in the Grip, with rnuning at the nose, and often sore-throat. Fever commonly comes on the first or second day. In a great number of cases it is slight, and passes off, as all the symptoms may, in one, two, or three days. In other instances it may last a week or two; rarely a slow fever keeps on for several weeks. Occasionally delirium occurs during the fever; some persons have, it is asserted, taken their own lives in the frenzy thus produced. Almost always recovery from an attack of this disorder is attended by weakness out of proportion to the violence of the symptoms, and this weakness may last for weeks, or even, in some degree, for months.

WHAT TO DO FOR THE GRIP .-- In mild cases very little treatment is necessary. In all, early simple measures will be likely to have excelleut effect. I have had some which began like severe attacks, to give

way very promptly to this simple way of proceeding:

Give the patient first a tablespoonful of Tarrant's Aperient Powder, or of Rochelle Salts, or a wineglassful of Solution of Citrate of Magnesium. Put a long mustard plaster, half mustard and half wheat flour or Iudian meal, and five or six inches wide, up and down the back, and leave it on until it burns quite smartly, so that he quite wishes to have it off. (When it comes off, if the skin feels sore, apply a large piece of liuen or soft musliu, covered with tallow or "cold eream" of the apothecary, with another piece outside of this to keep the grease from the bed-clothing.) Give him plenty of lemonade to drink-cold if his fever is hot; hot if, instead, he inclines to be chilly. If his feet are at all cold, or even cool, let him sit, near bed-time, for five or six minutes with them in a pail of moderately hot water in which a haudful of mustard has been stirred. If the cough is troublesome, make flaxseed tea (pouring a pint of boiling water on a tablespoonful of flaxseed, but not boiling it), and add lemon-juice and sugar, for his drink. Seven or eight out of ten cases of the Grip, treated early in this mild fashiou, will get well without further trouble. The other two or three will need a doctor to take the responsibility.

Physicians not all agreed as to the management of severe cases

of the Grip. Some will give a great deal of quinine; others, whisky right along, in considerable doses; still others, opinm or morphia. Dover's Powders, which contain oplum, are favored by many. Large use is made by a number of practitioners of a class of medicines called antipyretics, such as antipyrin, antifebrin, and phenaestin. In large doses these (of which the safest probably is Phenaestin) lower the heat of the body in fever by a powerful action on the nervous system. My impression is strong that the use of very large doses of quinine is not called for in the Grip; that whisky had better be omitted in the majority of cases; and that the employment of the "autipyretics" just mentioned is experimental; and as the mortality from the Grip has been greater than that of previous visitations of Influenza, such practice is not likely to be permanently confirmed and adopted.

For the weakness attending and following the Grip, nonrishing food, as beef-tea, &c., is important, with avoidance of severe exertion, quinine (6 or 8 grains a day), iron in some cases, and, especially in summer, change of air—to the mountains or the sea-shore.

Guinea-Worm. See Dracunculus.

Hæmophilia. A special disposition of the body towards bleeding, even from very slight wounds; as lancing the gums, extracting a tooth, etc. This is uncommon, but runs in families. There is no known cure for it; but it should always be remembered in connection with the management of those who have such a family history. Operations which would be perfectly safe for others may, with them, be daugerous. Thus a well known clergyman of Philadelphia, in the prime of life, bled to death from the removal by a surgeon of a small wen on his side.

Hæmoptysis. See Hemorrhages.

Hay Fever. See Asthma.

Headache. Various causes may produce pain in the head; as, fulness of blood (congestion of the brain); neuralgia; rheumatism of the scalp; blood-poisoning, as by alcohol, etc.; fever; uramia, from suppression of the secretion of the kidneys; sympathy with irritation of the stomach, bowels, or womb; disease of the brain. It is not always easy to make sure which of these accounts for a particular case of headache. Fulness of blood shows itself by flushing of the face and heat of the head; often, also, by the swollen arteries standing out at the temples. Neuralgio pain is almost always on one side (hemicrania), and extending down to the face; also, it is attended by tenderness on pressure. In rheumatism of the head, the muscles which move the head are apt to be sore on motion; and rheumatic symptoms occur in other parts of the body. Blood-poisoning, fever, ween a, and sympathetic irritation are recognized in view of the history of each case. When disease of the brain is the cause of pain, it is usually confined to one spot, comes in spells or paroxysms, and is accompanied by other signs of disorder of the brain.

To relieve headache, we must endeavor to ascertain to which of these varieties it belongs, and act accordingly. There is, of course, no summary or universal remedy for it. See Neuralgia, and page 261.

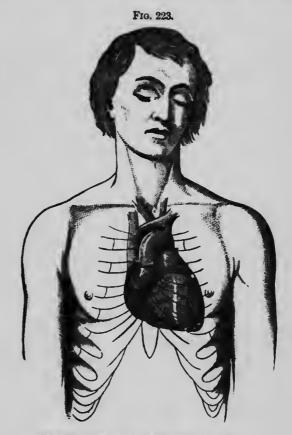
Sick headache is a regularly or irregularly recurring affliction which some people are subject to all their lives. It may be hereditary, running through several generations. Coming on either gradually or suddenly, its subject is "laid up" for the time by its severity, with more or less nausea, perhaps vomiting, for from one to three days. Cure of the tendency to such attacks has baffled many a physician in its search. If anything will ward off the expected "spell," I believe it will be the use, from the first moment of threatening, either in the stomach or in the head, of compound gentian pills (see Gentian, under Remedies), two twice daily for two days.

Towards relieving an attack which has come on, nothing is likely to

be better than a teaspoonful of magnesia, with half a teaspoonful of aromatic spirit of ammonia, mixed in a wineglassful of water.

One of the most likely things to bring on an attack of sick-headachs is, waiting an hour or two beyond one's usual time for a meal, especially dinner.

Heart, Diseases of. Palpitation is not a disease, but a disorder of the heart; a good example of a functional disturbance, as distinguished



POSITION OF HEART IN A HEALTHY MAN.

from an organic disease. Palpitation is a violent beating of the heart, more or less distressing, according to its degree. It may be caused by strong coffee, very strong tea, tobacco, alcoholic drinks, sensual indulgence, or indigestion (dyspepsia). Even sedentary life, all the time indoors without exercise, promotes it, as one of the symptoms of nervous-

ness. Avoidance of all these causes is the substance of the treatment of simple Palpitation.

Inflammation of the heart affects chiefly either the inner or the outer membrane covering it. One form, therefore, is Endocarditis, and the other Pericarditis. In the former, injury to the valves is endangered. In the latter, effuse n of sernm may log the heart's movements, or they may be obstructed by adhesion of the pericardium to the heart. Both forms of heart inflammation o eur most often in connection with acute inflammatory rheumatism. In both, life is in danger during the attack, besides the after-effects above mentioned. The symptoms of both are much alike: pain and distress about the heart, with violence of its movement, hurried breathing, bad dreams, perhaps delirium, and fever. Only by auscultation and percussion, which require trained skill, can their respective signs be distinctly made out. In treatment of such serious affections, of course, medical aid should be ealled for. In its unavoidable absence, we can only encourage perfect rest in bed, with the shoulders moderately raised; simple, unstimulating, ehiefly liquid, diet; at the beginning, a dozen or two leeches, if they can be had, over the region of the heart; if not, a mustard-plaster on the back, opposite to the heart; and, later, a small blister just below the situation of the heart's beat.

Valvular disease of the heart is, as already said, a frequent result of Endocarditis. It most frequently affects the valves of the left side of the heart—either the mitral or the aortic valves (see Anatomy). One or both of these may be distorted in shape, so as to keep the valve imperfectly shut, or not sufficiently open, in the alternate contractions and dilatations necessary to the circulation. "Physical examination," that is, in this case, anscultation, enables physicians to determine, almost with certainty, the exact conditions of these valves. The effects of such impediments to the heart's action on the circulation of the blood are serious, according to the nature of the valvular change in each case; to the strength of the heart to overcome the difficulty presented; and to the amount of exercise, labor, or excitement, by which the heart's action is increased. A marked difference between mere palpitation and organic disease of the heart is, that exercise lessens the tendency to palpitation, but makes worse the suffering from valvular obstruction.

In the case of Valvular Disease, however, neither medicine nor surgery can get at the heart to repair its injured mechanism. General care of the health, with avoidance of active exertion or much excitement, is all that can be advised or practised toward lengthening life. With such care, in a few instances, gradual restoration may take place; in many, the condition of the heart remains nearly the same, with tolerable

health, through months or even years. In many bad cases, and in more moderate ones where care is not taken (as sometimes as ems inevitable in patients of the laboring class), the results of heart-disease go on to show themselves. These are, greater and greater distress with the heart's action and in breathing, often worst at night; and dropsy, of the feet first, afterwards of the abdomen and the body at large (anasarca). Weakness increases, and at last death closes the scene.

Enlargement of the heart may be either overgrowth (Hypertrophy) or stretching (Dilatation). Hypertrophy is a true thickening of the muscular walls. Sometimes it may result from habitually excessive exercise; as in violent gymnastics, rowing in races, running at cricket, etc. More frequently it is brought about by the natural effort of the heart to overcome the resistance to the movement of the blood caused by valvular obstruction in the heart itself. Like any other muscle, the heart grows with exercise—that is, if it is well nourished, and has intervals of rest. But if not these, then over-labor weakens it; and, when the obstruction is considerable, the heart is stretched, dilated; its walls at the same time becoming thinner (attenuated). This is Dilatation of the Heart. The "physical signs" of this, as well as of true Hypertrophy, are fully set forth in professional works. Besides dropsy and debility, gradually increasing, a special liability of sufferers with Dilatation of the Heart is to attacks of congestion of the lungs.

The management of both varieties of enlargement of the heart requires the same carefulness to avoid exertion and excitement as in the case of valvular disease. This is all that, in Home Medicine at least, can be well specified about it.

Fatty Degeneration of the heart has been spoken of in its own place. Heart-exhaustion has been met with in a number of cases, such as those observed by myself and others in our Army Hospitals during the Civil War. It was brought on, for example, during the disastrous "Peninsular Campaign" in Virginia, by the soldiers having to march a great deal at "double-quick" rate, with very little rest at night, poor food to eat, and bad water to drink. Although some of these men looked pretty well, and might be supposed to be able to do something, their pulses were feeble and easily hurried; and slight exertion would knock them up at once.

Heartburn. See Dyspepsia.

Heat-stroke. Usually called Sun-stroke. Better described under the former name, because many cases occur in the shade; some even (in India and China) at night. Nine-tenths of the examples of this are met with in large cities. Very few people are sunstruck on the harvest-field, or when running upon cricket grounds. What causes the differ-

ence? Clearly it must be the atmosphere of towns. Depression of the vital energy by foul air makes excessive heat take worse effect. Moreover, intemperance predisposes greatly to this kind of attack. Those who suffer Heat-stroke are nearly always fatigued when it comes on. To avoid it, the three things to do are: to live in the country during the summer if you can; never to drink any whisky, wine, or beer; and not to use severe exertion when the thermometer is over 90° in the shade.

Symptoms of Heat-stroke may be of either of two kinds, or of a mixed Perhaps the last are the most common. Extreme cases may be, 1. True Sun-stroke, or Heat Apoplexy; in which the head is chiefly affected, with congestion, from the direct effect of the rays of the sun; 2. Heat-collapse, with paleness and prostration, the patient being conscious even to the last. In both of these varieties, the pulse is generally rapid. In a few of the apoplectic kind it may be slow; in most of those it is full, until near the fatal end. Both are very dangerons to life.

What to do? Very plainly, heat is the cause of the attack, and cold gives its main hope of cure. If the face be red and the head hot, the pulse full, the breathing snoring, and the patient nuconscious, lay him in the shade with his head and shoulders raised, and apply ice-water freely to his head. At the same time put large mustard-plasters to his legs. If, on the other hand, the face is pale, the body as warm as the head, the pulse we dirapid, the patient conscious but fainting with debility, lay him . / he shade, the head no higher than the feet. Pour cold water o. head, trunk, and limbs (taking care, of course, not to do this too often, so as at last to chill him). Give, by the mouth, half a teaspoonful of aromatic spirits of ammonia, or, it sooner on hand, a teaspoonful of whisky or brandy, or a tablespoonful of wine; and repeat the same, if need be, in half an hour. All other treatment had better be left to the judgment of an attending physician.

Hemicrania. Pain on one side of the head. See Headache and Neuralgia.

Hemiplegia. Palsy of one half of the body. See Paralysis. Hemorrhage. See what is said on this subject under Remedies (p. 286).

As to the origin and nature of Hemorrhages, they may be either, 1. Active; 2. Passive; 3. Traumatic (from injuries); 4. Symptomatic; 5. Critical; or 6. Vicarious. Active Hemorrhages are those preceded by an increased flow of blood towards the part. Passive are the result of weakness of the walls of the small blood-vessels, or too great thinness of the blood. Traumatic bleeding, from wounds or injuries, belongs to

the domain of Surgery. (See Accidents and Injuries; nearly the last portion of this book.) Symptomatic Hemorrhage occurs from the nose in the early stage of typhoid fever, and later from the bowels; from the lungs in consumption; from the stomach, as black vomit, in yellow fever. Critical Hemorrhage takes place sometimes in that and in some other fevers; just before convalescence. Vicarious bleeding is now and then met with, from the nose, stomach, or bowels, in women whose menstrnal flow has been interrupted.

Medical authors give the name epistaxis to bleeding at the nose; homophysis is spitting of blood; homaturia, passing of blood in the urine. For the treatment of Hemorrhages, see Remedies (p. 286).

Hemorrhoids. See Piles.

Hepatization. A term applied to the condition of an inflamed lung, in the middle stage of pneumonia; in which it is full of blood and lymph, making it red and firm to the touch, like the liver.

He.nia. See Rupture.

Herpes. Tetter; a watery emptive affection. See Skin Discases.

Hiccough (pronounced Hiccop). This, called singultus by physicians, is a sudden spasmodic motion of the diaphragm (see Anatomy), causing jerking breathing. It comes very often from slight indigestion, or from prolonged laughter or erying. In a person of ordinary health it is of no importance. Drinking a wineglassful of cold water, slowly, will generally stop it; at any rate, it will go off itself.

When the system is greatly prostrated by disease or injury, hiccough is a very bad sign. It does not make the patient worse, but it shows that he is sinking, nigh unto death. In such a condition, the only proper treatment is that adapted to the general state of exhaustion.

Hip-Disease. See Coxalgia.

Hodgkin's Disease. First described by Dr. Hodgkin, of England, this consists of a general morbid enlargement of the spleen and lymphatic glands, all over the body. It is now generally called *Pseudo-leukemia* in medical books, on account of the changes in the blood.

Hooping-Cough. Pertussis, in medical books. A disease generally affecting any one but once in a lifetime; contagious, also, although without any eruption on the surface of the body. Coming on rather gradually, like a bad cold with cough, the spells of coughing become more and more severe. In about a week, the child (or other patient) coughs so violently as to get red in the face, often sick at the stomach, especially after eating, and out of breath. At the end of a paroxysm of coughing the breath frequently, in inspiration, makes a whooping

sound; hence the name, whooping- or hooping-cough. But its subjects do not always whoop. The essential part of the disorder is the paroxysmal cough, continuing also for six, eight, or ten weeks. The patient may, particularly when in the open air, be for several hours without coughing; and then comes on a terrible spell, as though he might cough his breath away. As it goes on, considerable thick expectoration is brought up. Death does not often occur in the paroxysms, although they look very alarming. Feeble children are sometimes exhausted by the continuance of the disease. Now and then, in those predisposed to consumption, this may follow it.

Treatment of Hooping-cough must at first, as with any other cough, be directed to soften and loosen the cough; as by syrup of ipecaeua...la. Later, the spasmodic (nervous) element has to be dealt with. Assafactida is here suitable; for children, the milk of assafactida, in teaspoonful doses; with syrup of squills as a simple expectorant. Among the other antispasmodies used in Hooping-cough by physicians, the best are musk, and the fluid extract of hyoscyamus. Of the latter, I have known two-drop doses, to a child ten or twelve years of age, very effective in lessening the violence of the spells of coughing. A warming-plaster ou the chest, or in the worst cases even a small blister, will contribute to the cure.

While a child with Hooping-cough is not too ill to be moved, being often in the fresh air will be good for it, taking it out of doors every sunny day at least. If a case be much protracted, with wasting and weakness ensuing, iron, cod-liver oil, and salt bathing may be called for, to build up its strength.

Hydatids. Watery growths in different organs, caused by the presence of stationary parasites; *echinococci*. They may infest the liver, lungs, brain, or other parts. Little can be done for them, but they do not, as a rule, produce rapidly injurious effects, the patient often living for years after their formation. Sometimes relief is obtained by tapping the watery tumor and drawing the fluid off.

Hydrocephalus. Water in the head, literally; dropsy of the brain. Nearly always, this occurs in the first few years of life. Some children are born with it. The largest human head I ever saw was one in the Museum of the College of Surgeons in London; it was that of a child two years old, enormously enlarged from water slowly forming upon the brain while the sutures between the bones yielded, and the membranes and bones all grew larger to accommodate the increase of the distending fluid. Commonly, however, death takes place from pressure within a few weeks or months. No active treatment is likely to cure this affection, unless it be the early use of saline purgatives and diuret-

ics, according to the patient's strength. Carefully tapping one of the distended sutures may be thought of by a physician in a case lasting longer than usual.

Hydrophobia. A not well chosen common name for the effect sometimes following the bite of a mad dog or skimk. It occurs in about one-tenth of all those who are bitten by rabid animals. A very remarkable thing about it is the length of time after the bite before the symptoms occur. This is generally a month, sometimes two months, or possibly more. I doubt the genuineness of cases said to have happened a year after the bite.

Some people deny or doubt the existence of such a disease as hydrophobia. Even physicians who have never seen it have sometimes supposed that the cases must be examples either of hysterics or of tetanus (lock-jaw). But two cases which I saw (one under my own care, in a boy eight years old) left no doubt whatever that it is an entirely specifie disease.

The characteristic symptom of Hydrophobia is, an irresistible spasmodie gasping, or sudden and forcible drawing in of the breath, whenever any strong impression is made on the patient's senses; as by attempting to drink, by a flash of light, or a loud sound; or even by the passing of a wave of cool air over the face. There is usually also delirium. In my patient's case this was angry, furious. He did not, however, bite nor bark. I believe they never do, unless in the hysterical cases, imitating hydrophobia, in persons frightened into the belief that they have it, after having been bitten. There is no fear of water; great thirst exists. But the patient cannot swallow liquids, because the effort to do so causes gasping and choking. Death always follows, in from three or four to eight or ten days. If ever a case of real Hydrophobia has been enred, it has been by use of the most powerful narcotics in heroie doses, as woorara (prepared in South America by Indians for poisoned arrows), chloroform, etc. I gave my little patient enough chloroform to breathe to have killed ten men, but it only mitigated the spasms from time to time. Certainly, however, his suffering was much lessened thereby.

Prevention of Hydrophobia requires two things. First, kill every dog as soon as he is reasonably suspected of being mad. Secondly, ent out or cauterize (burn out) the bitten part, whenever praeticable, as soon as possible. If a hand is bitten, for example, at once tie a handkerchief tightly about the wrist, to eheck the flow of blood. Also suck the part promptly and strongly; spitting out the blood, of course. Next, let a surgeon amputate the bitten finger, or cut out the bitten flesh, or apply to it a red-hot wire, or a piece of caustic potash or lunar caustic (nitrate

of silver). Burning thoroughly will almost certainly answer without amputation. Pasteur has confidence in carbolic acid.

How shall one know when a dog is getting mad? He is at first sick, indeed ill; aneasy, restless, snapping at things in the air; out of his common habits and temper altogether. He may be still kind to his muster; but this is not to be trusted. Whenever a dog barks or growls hoursely, moves around crazily, and fights or snaps at imaginary enemics, muzzle him, tie him up, and watch him. He ceases to eat his natural food, swallowing dirt instead; and soon, if loose, will run aimlessly at large, biting at every living thing, large and small, in his way. But it is unmerciful to suppose a dog to be mad without good reason. If suspected, and chained up out of the reach of any one so us to do harm, he can be watched safely, and perhaps saved from an undeserved death. (See page 484.)

Hyperæsthesia. Excessive sensibility; shown by n very slight touch of a part giving pain. It shows a morbid state either of the nerves at the surface, or of the nerve-centres of sensation in the brain.

Hyperopia or Hypermetropia. An error of sight, the opposite of near-sightedness or myopia. In the latter, the image of an object falls short of the retina, nuless the object is brought very near to the eye. In Hyperopia, the image falls behind the retina, except when the object is at a considerable distance. The far-sight or long-sightedness of old persons is in part of this nature; but Hypermetropia occurs not unfrequently also in young persons. It is corrected by convex glasses; myopia, the opposite, by concave glasses. (See page 162.)

Hypertrophy. Overgrowth. (See Heart, Diseases of.) A corn is a Hypertrophy of a part of the skin; and so, with some change, is a wart. It is not common for overgrowth of any organ to interfere seriously with the health; but it is considered possible for this to happen; the brain, for example, becoming too large for the skull. As a rule, the soft parts, as the brain, govern the growth of the hard parts in adaptation to them.

Hypochondria. Low spirits; despondency about one's own health. The derivation of the word is from two words in the Greek, meaning under the cartilage; that is, of the rib; referring to the liver. The ancients supposed dull spirits to proceed from disorder of the liver or of the spleen. Hence also melancholy; literally, black bile. See Dyspepsia.

Hysteria. A many-sided derangement of the nervous system, nearly, but not quite always, affecting women. Young women of ansemic habit (i, ϵ) , with poverty of blood) are its most frequent subjects. Its symptoms show morbid excitability of the sensori-motor and emotional appa-

ratus; now in one way and then in another, even in the same case varying from time to time.

"Hysterics" are paroxysms of crying or laughter, or of various movements, beyond the patient's control. Sometimes real convulsions occur; imitating epileptic convulsions, but without loss of consciousness. Imitation of various diseases is common in those who have Hysteria; not only imitation, indeed, but functional disorders of a very positive kind, yet transient in duration. Such are hysterical palsy, hysteroepilepsy, hysterical blindness, and hysterical hydrophobia. Morbid men-





HYSTERO-EPILEPSY.

tal traits are often very remarkable; a strong craving for sympathy sometimes leading to pretended disorders.

In treatment of Hysteria, moral and hygienic management are generally as important as medicine. The patient must be instructed and influenced to exert self-control. Her general system also must be strengthened. Iron is apt to be needed, to improve the quality of the blood. Salt-bathing, milk for food, and abundance of sleep, are to be recommended. Light gymnastics, or active exercise in rowing, riding on horseback, etc., will do good, if kept within the limits of the patient's strength. To mitigate the nervous disturbance in hysterical attacks, assafectida, valerian, and camphor are often serviceable.

Some physicians believe that (as its name indicates) disorders of the womb have much to do with Hysteria. Undoubtedly they sometimes produce or increase it; but they are not essential to it.

[Hydrophobia is asserted by Pasteur, of Paris, France, to be often prevented by inoculating the person bitten with a specially-modified matter taken from an animal which has had the disease. An institution for this treatment has been established in New York under Dr. Gibier (1890). It is not proved that it is a certain preventive; but, if sure that a bite was that of a mad dog, the desperate danger may justify, when practicable, so desperate a remedy as soon, if at all, as possible.]

Ichthyosis. Fish-skin disease. See Skin Diseases.

Icterus. See Jaundice. Idiocy. See Imbecility.

Ileus. A painful attack, depending on some form of obstruction of the bowels; which see.

Imbecility. Feeble-mindedness; sometimes congenital (beginning at birth), when it is called idiocy; in other cases produced by disease or injury affecting the brain. It varies in degree very much; from mere dulness or natural stupidity down to absence of all intelligence or even affection. In some cases the moral nature scens to be the most involved; the child lacking attachment to its mother, brothers, or sisters. Often one or two of the mental powers may remain in considerable development. I have known an imbecile to have a real talent for mechanical construction, although he could hardly be taught to speak at all.

With an immense amount of patience and loving attention, almost every imbecile person can in time be so improved as not to be burdensome; many can even be made useful and self-supporting. This can be best accomplished in institutions established for the purpose; such as the Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-minded Children, near Media, Pennsylvania.

Impetigo. A pustular eruption upon the skin. See Skin Discases.

Incontinence of Urine. Much most frequently, this is a trouble of children at night. In adults it may be caused by a severe injury or disease of the spinal marrow; or, possibly, by disease of the bladder.

Cure of this difficulty in children is sometimes quite hard to obtain. Important directions about it are these: let the child drink but little liquid of any kind within two or three hours before going to bed. Be sure that it empties the bladder just before getting into bed; and that it does not then have the feet cold. If, notwithstanding these precautions, it still wets the bed, let some one take it up late in the night to relieve the bladder. Impressions upon the mind, of the nastiness and (not too heavily condemned) discredit of such a habit, will mostly assist much in the final cure of incontinence.

Infantile Paralysis. A form of palsy in children, not very uncommon, and more frequently recovered from than almost any other variety of paralysis. It comes on rather suddenly, with feverishness, and perhaps disorder of stomach; in bad cases, with convulsions. The lower limbs are chiefly affected, and the palsy is seldom complete; that is, some motion, although feeble, is possible, and sensation is not entirely lost. One important fact is, that, unless care be taken to prevent it, the helpless limbs will, from wrong positions, become deformed. Club-foot

is thus sometimes accounted for; which might, with attention, have been prevented.

Treatment of Infantile Paralysis requires warm rubbing of the spine and limbs; the warm or even hot salt-bath every day or two, drying the patient quickly afterwards; and sun-baths, or, at any rate, carrying the child frequently out into the sunshine and fresh air. Cod-liver oil is generally suitable; electricity is, as a rule (used with moderation and caution) beneficial; and physicians are likely to prescribe strychnia in very small doses, watching its effects. If, while a child is taking strychnia or nux vomica, it becomes very restless, inform the physician of the fact, and meanwhile withhold the medicine until he gives further advice.

Infantile Remittent. A name given by medical writers, down to near the present time, to a combination of symptoms, not very regular, which are now considered to be better otherwise classified. The term gastric fever was also similarly used. There is reason to believe that most of the severe cases are really typhoid fever; some, in malarious regions, gennine remittent fever; and those of short duration, indigestion with feverish symptoms. Under those heads, therefore, all that need be said in regard to treatment will be found.

Inflammation. See this heading under Nature of Diseases, in an earlier part of this volume (page 227).

Inflammations of the different organs of the body are also treated of, each under its own head, in this alphabetical succession.

Influenza. Epidemic catarrh. This appears to be a real epidemie, not dependent on bad weather or individual exposure; but, at certain times, like the *epizootic* of horses, passing over the whole country and affecting almost everybody, old and young. Its *symptoms* are those of a "bad cold all over"; with rather more headache, pain in the back, disturbance of the stomach, fever, and weakness, than in ordinary bad colds. Old people, and very feeble younger persons, may die of Influenza; with others it can seldom be said to be a dangerous illness.

Treatment of this affection does not need to differ from that of a severe general "cold," except that it bears better and gains more from the use of quinine. If, when the first symptoms commence, two- or three-grain doses of quinine are begun with, repeated within two or three hours until eight or ten grains are taken within twelve hours, the attack may often be aborted or averted. If not, there will be no advantage in taking more than six grains of quinine afterwards, distributed through the day.

Other measures, if an attack be actually developed, are, a brisk dose of a saline cathartic, as citrate of magnesium, Rochelle, or (if one don't

mind a nasty dose) Epsom salts; flaxseed lemonade as a frequent drink; a warm or hot mustard foot-bath at night. Of course the patient must keep warm, in one room; if ill, in bed. Allusion may be here made to other ways often used to abort a cold or an uttack of Influenza. Some try to do it by taking a hot ulcoholic drink (egg-nogg, whisky-punch, etc.) on going to bed. Others, by a ten-graiz dose of Dover's powder (containing a grain of opinm) at bedtime. Such measures do succeed, in a certain number of cases, in producing free perspiration, and warding off an expected attack. But if they do not succeed, they make things worse; more headache, hotter fever, and greater weakness following. It is a "kill or eure" kind of practice; an objection which does not apply to the use of quinine in the way above mentioned.

In-growing Nail. See Nail, In-growing.

Insanity. Derangement of the mind. Idiocy is deficiency of mental capacity, from birth; Imbecility, such deficiency whether the person was born with it or has lost his faculties from disease or injury.

Insanity is understood to depend upon disorder of the brain, the instrument of mind. If any examples of it occur from purely mental "entanglement," the brain being sound, they must be very few; and such are not recognized as possible by most authorities on the subject.

Varieties of Insanity are: 1. Mania. 2. Melancholia. 3. Dementia. Mania is divided into General Mania and Monomania; in the latter, the patient being deranged chiefly on one subject only; also, into acute and chronic Mania, according to its duration. Either the intellectual or the emotional powers may be predominantly involved; when the latter re most so, it is often called moval (emotional or impulsive would be better) Insanity.

Melancholy is characterized by gloomy and desponding thoughts and feelings, which occupy the whole mind for the time. It is less often cured than acute mania; but recoveries from it do occur.

Dementia is the total wreck of the mental capacities. Its subjects are more helpless than any other human beings except infants in arms. From it, recovery is never to be expected.

Treatment of Insanity requires the skill of those devoted especially to it. Experience shows that, since the immense improvement in the hospitals and asylums for the insane, which dates from about the beginning of this century, almost every insane patient has the best possible chance of cure when he is taken early to such an institution. There he will be secure from danger of injuring himself or others; and will have, besides skilful medical treatment, every surrounding circumstance to promote the healing of his perturbed mind. Comfortable rooms, beautiful grounds, books, musical instruments, evening entertainments,

tranquillizing religious services; and, latterly, in many such places, opportunity for work; all these are abundantly furnished in the best modern retreats, as they might be called, which are fitted out as hospitals for the lasane. There, nearly or quite half of those entering with first attacks are cured, within from three to six months; and of those not cured, the condition is so much more tolerable than elsewhere, that a visit to such a place may give rise to the question, whether anywhere else in the world there is a larger proportion of enjoyment to suffering, than within the domain of a well-constructed and well-managed hospital for the insune.

It is true that in a certain small number of cases of patients who are not inclined to violence, and who are only partially deranged, treatment at their own homes, or at least in private houses, may answer well; and may even be better than to disturb their feelings by taking them to an institution. But these are exceptions, and ought always to be judged of by a physician who is well acquainted with insanity.

Insolation. See Heat-stroke.

Insomnia. Sleeplessness. Much has been said of this under Hygiene (Mental Hygiene). It may be brought on by alcoholic intemperance, excessive use of strong coffice or tea, or brain-strain by worry or overwork. In every case, the first thing in its treatment must be the removal of the cause. Without this, a cure cannot be expected.

When the cause is removed, sleep may be promoted in several ways; whose success will depend chiefly upon the nature of each case. All of them may be tried when necessary. Such are, a warm bath just before bedtime; lying with the head and shoulders moderately raised; avoiding study for an honr or two before the usual hour for retiring; dumb-bell exercise for twenty minutes just before getting into bed; rubbing all over near bedtime (see Massage, under Nursing, page 389).

Medicines for Insomnia need to be used with much judgment, or they may do harm instead of good. Such is the case especially with ale, wine, etc.; as well as with bromide of potassium or sodium, chloral, and all kinds of opiates. These cannot be recommended to be taken or given without competent professional advice.

Intercostal Rheumatism. Rheumatic pain and soreness between the ribs. It is sometimes troublesome and tedions; but, by itself, not dangerous. Warming applications, of any convenient kind, constitute the substance of its particular treatment.

At the very beginning, direct heat is often the best thing; for instance, a flat-iron, as hot as can be borne, laid upon or passed over the part repeatedly. A flesh-brush, or a common hair- or clothes-brush, may rub out a considerable pain, in some cases. A mustard-plaster is always

safe and likely to do good; later, a Burgundy pitch or Alleock's porous plaster, to remain on for a week or two, for continued relief and protection of the part from cold. One who is liable to Intercostal Rheumatism should wear flannel, silk, or thick meriuo next the skin all winter, and thin flannel all the year round, for security against weather changes.

Intermittent Fever. See Ague.

Intestinal Obstruction. See Obstruction of the Bowels.

Intussusception. Stove-pipe-like inclusion of one part of an intestine in another portion, above or below it. See Obstruction of the Bowels.

Iritis. Inflammation of the iris, the circular arrangement of muscular fibres around the pupil of the eye. It is recognized by the occurrence of irregularity in the form of the pupil, from adhesions of the iris when inflamed. In order to prevent these from permanently narrowing the pupil, it is usual to drop into the eye a (two to four grains to the fluidounce of water) solution of atropia, every day or two. See Eye, Diseases of.

Itch. See Skin Diseases.

Jail Fever. See Typhus Fever.

Jaundice. Yellowness of the skin, from biliary coloring matter deposited in it. This must result from either, 1, the liver not removing the coloring matter from the blood, and its finding its way out through the small blood-vessels over the body; or 2, the bile being secreted from the blood by the liver, but being then reabsorbed into the blood from the gall-bladder, on account of obstruction of the gall-duct by gall-stones.

There is no special remedy for Jaundice. The treatment of those having it must be addressed to its cause, so far as made out; and to the general condition of the system at the time. In a recent case, calomel or blue pill, taraxaeum and uitromuriatic acid, are usual remedies.

Kidneys, Diseases of. Pain in the Kidneys is felt in the back, on each side of the spine, about three inches below the edges of the ribs. Congestion of the Kidneys may be produced by cold and wet. It is attended by pain, with scanty, high-colored urine. Inflammation of the Kidneys (nephritis) is yet more painful; with bloody urine in some cases, and other changes in that fluid, discovered with the aid of the microscope. Bright's Disease is a more prolonged affection, with albuminous urine, and changes in the structure of the Kidneys. (See Bright's Disease.)

Congestion or commencing inflammation of the Kidneys may be advantageously treated by the application of cups; dry in a feeble person, cut so as to draw blood in a patient of tolerable strength. If this be not done, a large mustard-plaster should be applied to the small of the back. Placing the feet in hot mustard water will be suitable; and so will be the free drinking of flaxseed-tea; sweetened to taste, but without lemon-juice. It is desirable in such cases to promote the free action of the skin to relieve the kidneys. When pain is very considerable, Dover's owder at night will be appropriate, to favor sleep and perspiration. Other treatment would better be left to a physician.

Larynx, Diseases of. Inflammation of the Larynx (upper wind-pipe; see Anatomy) is called by physicians Laryngitis. The most common form of acute Laryngitis is Croup; which see. Chronic Laryngitis is a slow affection, always giving time for treatment by a physician. For its further consideration, therefore, the reader is referred to technical medical books. (See Fig. 225.)

Lepra; Leprosy. For these (which, as the terms are used, are not the same), see Skin Discases.

Leucocythæmia; Leukæmia. Both of these names refer to the same disease. It is characterized by the presence of an excessive proportion of white (colorless) corpuscles in the blood. Symptoms of it are: debility, swelling of the abdomen, general dropsy, often vomiting or diarrhea, jaundice, and bleeding from the nose or gums. The liver, spleen, and lymphatic glands are often enlarged in various degrees. Tenderness to the touch of some of the bones exists in some cases; a chronic

Fig. 225.



LARYNGOSCOPE.

cough in others. The only certain recognition of it is obtained by examining blood taken from the patient with a microscope. Then the number of the white corpuscles (leucocytes) is found to be, not, as in health, one to fifty or a hundred of the red corpuscles, but one to six, four, or three of the latter.

There is no reasonable expectation of recovery from well-marked Leucocythæmia; but the patient may live with it for several years. Medicine can do very little for it; general hygienic management is very important towards prolonging life.

Leucorrhæa. In popular language, "the whites." A feminine disorder, consisting of a mucous vaginal discharge; coming either from the uterus or from lower down. It results from irritation, followed by relaxation of the parts. *Prolapsus* (falling of the womb) is a very common cause of it. Even without that, it is often quite chronic.

Treatment may be needed with iron or cod-liver oil internally, to "tone

up" the general system. Tincture of the chloride of iron will be the best preparation, or ammonio-ferric alum; the latter best when the discharge is profuse; as that medicine is astringent. Local applications are important, used either as suppositories or by means of a vaginal syringe as injections. A suppository for this purpose may be made by mixing ten grains of tannin with enough cacao butter to make a mass for the vagina. For washes, used by injection, oak-bark tea, lime-water, and solution of alum (a drachm to the pint of water) may be mentioned as available. Some practitioners advise simple hot water (110° to 120° Fahr.) as the best.

Leukæmia. See Leucocythæmia.

Lice. See Parasites.

Lichen. A pimply (papular) eruption. See Skin Diseases.

Lithiasis. A disposition in the constitution to the formation of an excess of lithic or uric acid; shown sometimes in gout or gravel, in other cases by neuralgic or other manifestations of the action of uric acid in the blood.

Liver, Diseases of. This organ is frequently the seat of congestion; produced by "catching cold," by errors of diet causing indigestion, or by the chill of intermittent fever. Its symptoms are: pain under the lower ribs on the right side and under the right shoulder-blade; constipation, with lead-colored passages; a furred tongue, bitter taste in the mouth, sickness of the stomach, dizziress or headache, and yellowness (which may be slight) of the eyes and skin.

Treatment of this condition requires a simple, not fatty, diet, and medicine to act moderately on the bowels, and, if possible, to increase the flow of bile from the liver. Much experience has shown that blue mass or calomel, in small doses, will help to relieve liver-torpor. I advise, therefore, two grains of blue pill at bedtime, followed in the morning by a teaspoonful of magnesia; or, if constipation has been great, and the system feverish, a dose of citrate of magnesium or Rochelle salls. Should the "biliousness" not be entirely relieved, a grain of blue pill may be taken night and morning for a day or two more.

Chronic Congestion of the Liver has some of the same symptoms continued, in varying degree, for weeks or months; pain in the side and under the shoulder-blade, indigestion, a bad taste in the mouth, constipation, and more or less yellowness of the eyes and skin. It will not do to go on taking blue pill, even for a week at a time. We may follow it with nitromuriatic acid, three drops twice daily, in water (in a glass; do not put a silver spoon into it, as it acts upon silver). This may be continued, if need be, for weeks together. Dandelion root-tea, or extract of dandelion (tarazacum) is a favorite medicine for this trou-

ble with many who have tried it. Of the extract, ten grains may be taken once or twice daily. Chloride of ammonium (muriate of ammonia of the old chemical system), in five-grain doses, twice a day, will be likely to assist in improving the action of the liver.

The Liver is also subject to acute inflammation (hepatitis). may occur as part of an attack in which also the stomach and small intestine are involved; called a "bilious attack" in common language; by physicians, "gastro-hepatic catarrh." But liver-inflammation also comes sometimes alone. It may follow acute congestion. The symptoms are the same as those of the latter, only the pain is more constant and severe, and there is tenderness on pressure on the right side, along the edge of the ribs. Vomiting also may be present, from sympathetic affection of the stomach; and diarrhoea, caused by the irritant quality of the bile. Ferer attends in severe cases. Abscess of the Liver may follow acute inflammation. Sometimes the symptoms of the latter (inflammation) are quite obscure, and the existence of the absecss is first made known by some of its consequences. There is danger connected with liver-abscess, because the pus formed in it may escape into either the chest, through the diaphragm, or into the peritoneal cavity of the abdomen. In the latter case, collapse and death will result. If it enter the chest, it may pass into the lung and be coughed away. If not, an empyema remains (which see). Best, of course, and most frequent, is the opening of the abscess either into the bowels or through the skin, with the external discharge of the matter contained. By using the aspirator, with a fine hollow needle, physicians can, in case of suspected abscess, examine whether pus be present or not; and when this is made certain, it may be let out by means of a careful puneture or incision. Such treatment requires much skill and judgment in the practitioner. The early treatment of acute Inflammation of the Liver is nearly the same as that of acute Congestion. Cut cups, however, or leeches, may be one of the first measures used; and afterwards a blister upon the right side. Blue pill had better be given in smaller doses than in cases of congestion; half a grain three times a day for three days will be enough.

Cirrhosis of the Liver has been considered already under the heading, Cirrhosis. For other affections of the Liver, as cancer, fatty and waxy degenerations, yellow atrophy, etc., the reader must be referred to professional works.

Lock-jaw. See Tetanus.

Locomotor Ataxy. Λ slowly progressive disease of the nervous system, centring in the spinal marrow. Its most marked symptom, which has given the disorder its name, is a loss of control over the legs in walking. This is shown in a kicking or jerking way of stepping

out; very different from the dragging walk of simple palsy (paraplegia). If the patient shuts his eyes while standing, he will fall, the ordinary guidance by the sensibility of his feet being lost. Another curious symptom is the absence of the tendon-reflex movement of the legs. That is, when one leg is crossed over the other, and a smart blow is made with the hand just below the knee, the leg does not jump, as it does in a healthy state of the nerves and nerve-ceutres. Severe darting pains also, chiefly in the legs, belong to this disease. Gradually, perhaps after a number of years, the patient weakens, with increasing loss of muscular control, until death.

There is no cure for Locomotor Ataxy. Medicine has been so far shown to have only palliative, if any, effect. As with all slow chronic diseases, care of the general health may do much to prolong life and lessen suffering.

Lumbago. A painful affection of the small of the back, generally met with in elderly people. The same name is given commonly to two different kinds of attack. One is muscular; a form of rheumatism. This may come on very suddenly, making it impossible for the patient to rise and walk, almost to move at all. Keeping very still, and having warming applications made to the part (mustard-plasters; or spirits of turpentine and sweet oil, or, with tougher skins, pure oil of turpentine; or painting with tineture of iodine) will generally bring on recovery in a few days. Some old people, however, have frequent attacks. Such should always wear flannel, and be careful to avoid having wet feet or sitting in draughts. The other kind of Lumbago is neuralgic. See Neuralgia.

Lungs, Diseases of. Inflammation of the Lung is pneumonia; pulmonary consumption is phthisis. For the purposes of this work, a sufficient account of these diseases is given under the two headings, Pneumonia and Consumption.

Lupus. A creeping, eating disease of the skin, hard to cure. Dr. Koch, of Berlin, Germany, in 1890 claimed to be able to cure it with "tuberculin," which he made by dissolving tuberculous matter in glycerin. The difficulty of making and preserving such matter is much in the way of its use, even by skilful surgeons.

Malarial Fever. The three varieties of this, all produced by the same causation, are Intermittent, Remittent, and Pernicious Fever. See, for the first and last of these, Ague; for the second, Remittent

Mania. See Insanity.

Mania-a-Potu. See Delirium Tremens.

Measles. One of the Exanthemata (which see), or eruptive febrile diseases. It is contagious; and usually occurs but once in a lifetime. To this general rule, however, there are many exceptions.

Symptoms. First, the eyes become red, the nose runs, and the patient begins to cough. His head aches, and he feels badly all over. One would suppose he had a very bad cold. On the fourth day of this, however (ossibly a day or two later), a red, small-pimply, blotched or patched eruption breaks out on the face, neck, breast, arms, abdomen, and legs. It is not of so bright a red color as scarlet fever, nor so hot and swollen; nor so continuous over the body and limbs. There is fever, and perhaps sick stomach or moderate diarrhea; in young ehildren sometimes convulsions. The attack passes its height usually in about a week; often in even less time. Few patients die of measles, except under unfavorable local conditions (as in camps during war), when epidemics of malignant (black) measles occasionally break out and are quite atal. On convalescence, weak eyes are often left behind, or a chronic cough; endangering consumption in those predisposed to it.

Treatment of Measles is simple. Nursing is the main thing, to conduct the patient safely through it. If the bowels are bound at the start, I would give a moderate dose of a saline purgative (citrate of magnesium, Rochelle salts, or magnesia); moderate, because of the possibility of diarrhoea coming on in the course of the attack. Yet I believe the greater danger attends constipation, in all such diseases. The blood, in them, needs purification; and purgation of the bowels promotes this by carrying off waste matter freely from the body.

The cough may be treated with small doses of syrup of ipecac., and, later, syrup of squills; also flaxseed lemonade; perhaps even a small blister on the upper part of the breast in severe cases. There is no specific remedy for any of the "exanthemata." Much care must be taken on first going out after recovery. The air-tubes and lungs will be very sensitive at such a time, and exposure to cold and wet must be avoided for several weeks. A warming-plaster on the breast will be a good protection.

Hardly any disease is more contagious (catching) than Measles. Therefore, children who have not had it should be carefully kept away from any one sick with it; in another house, if possible. The disease

may be taken by another just before the rash is out; and also for a week or more after recovery has taken place. Forty days, from the beginning of the attack, is the period of absence from school prescribed by some authorities on the subject. Thirty days, in the case of Measles, appear to me to be enough. Danger to life is much less from this disease than from scarlet fever; and, as hardly any one is likely always to escape from it, a healthy child over five years of age may about as well have it at one time as another. A third person, as a physician or a nurse, going right from the chamber of a patient having Measles, may possibly give it to another liable to it; but such things seldom happen; especially when considerable time and distance intervene between their visits.

German Measles appears to be a sort of hybrid or cross between Measles and Scarlet Fever. It has a rash which is redder (deeper red) than that of Measles, and more in patches than that of scarlet fever. There is also more decided sore throat, and less prominent cough, than in Measles. It is less daugerous than scarlet fever, and not so contagious as Measles. It requires no peculiarity of treatment; only good nursing to steer the patient through it. Some call it French measles.

Megrim, migraine; hemicrania. See Neuralgia.

Melancholy. See Insanity.

Membranous Croup. See Croup.

Menière's Disease. See Ear, Diseases of.

Meningitis. See Brain, Inflammation of; also Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis.

Menorrhagia. Excessive menstrual flow. This may be either its too frequent occurrence, or too great an amount of discharge; but both often occur together. Causes of this trouble are: general relaxation of the system; over-excitement; thinness of the blood; and over-fatigue, especially long standing, or walking too far. Hemorrhage from the womb, not menstrual (metrorrhagia), may be due to ulcer, cancer, or other tumor of the womb; or, during pregnancy, miscarriage (abortion), or misplacement of the after-birth (placenta pravia). (See Miscarriage.)

Treatment of Menorrhagia must depend on the general condition of the patient. Most of those so affected are thin-blooded, i. e., anæmic. For these, iron is called for; the tincture of the chloride, taken thrice daily in fifteen-drop doses, for several weeks at a time. If headache follows the use of the iron, leave it off for a few days, and then try it in smaller doses. It does not agree with all.

Near the expected time, or at once if it occur sooner than expected, the patient must lie down, and remain at rest till it is over. If very profuse, fluid extract of ergot, half a teaspoonful every hour or two,

may be taken. Not often will this be needed if the patient keeps quiet. For really exhausting uterine hemorrhage, local measures are needed, as squeezing half a lemon in the vagina; injecting, with a vaginal syringe, hot vinegar and water (110° to 120° Fahr.). As a last resort, plugging must be used. This is Dr. T. Gaillard Thomas' plan: Pieces of cotton soaked in water, pressed and flattened out by the fingers, each about the size of a very small biscuit, may be pushed into the cavity of the vagina, until it is entirely filled. When, however, there is no time to spare, wads of dry cotton may be pressed in for the same purpose. We need hardly repeat that such a procedure is only appropriate for an extraordinary hemorrhage, by which the patient is evidently being weakened at the time.

Menstruation, Errors of. These are, Amenorrhæa, suppression of the monthly change; Dysmenorrhea, painful menstruation; and Menorrhagia, excessive discharge, either in amount or frequency. See these three headings, respectively.

Methomania. Also called Oinomania and Dipsomania. A morbid and uncontrollable eraving for intoxicating drink, the result of continued intemperance. The only hope of its cure, short of a miracle, is to be obtained by its subject being kept in a retreat where he cannot get liquor, for at least from three to six months. A year would be much better. All temptation to include being out of his reach, in time the morbid appetite will pass away; so that, if he will, he may avoid a return of his bad habit. It is necessary for such a one, however, always to abstain from everything alcoholic. Wine tasted at the "communion table" has, in a number of instances, caused the downfall of reformed inebriates. Institutions for the treatment of this terrible penalty of excess are now maintained in several places in this country; the Franklin Reformatory Home in Philadelphia is one of such, where about one-third of all entering are restored.

Milk Crust. An infantile eruption, occurring during dentition. See Skin Diseases.

Milk Leg. Phlegmasia Dolens. This has nothing to do with the milk, as was once imagined, although it is an affection of mothers after childbirth. We may quote, in its description, Dr. Dunglison:

"It occurs, for the most part, in the second or third week after delivery: it is limited to the lower extremity, and chiefly to one side, exhibiting to the touch a feeling of numerous irregular prominences under the skin. It is hot, white, and unyielding, and is accompanied, sooner or later, with febrile excitement. After a few days the heat, hardness, and sensibility diminish, and the limb remains cedematous for a longer or shorter period. The disease frequently, if not generally,

consists in the obstruction of one or more of the large veins. Owing to the presence of the gravid uterus, the flow of blood being obstructed, the liquid part of it is thrown out into the cellular membrane of the limb. Sometimes the vein is found completely obliterated."

In the treatment of this disorder, besides perfect quiet in bed, cooling washes or ointments are suitable. Very gently bathing with sweet oil saturated with camphor will do, for cases in which there is moderate heat and not very great tenderness to the touch. If the inflammation is very intense and hot, painting it (with a camel's-hair pencil) frequently with lead-water, to which a little laudanum has been added, will be the best plau for a day or two; afterwards, bathing as above, or applying oxide of zine ointment. When the inflammation has subsided, bandaging, from the ankle and foot upwards, will aid in taking down the swelling.

Miscarriage. Abortion; premature delivery, too early for the child to survive. Those born at eight months often live; even seven-months' children have been known to do so, though seldom. Abortion is most likely to take place during the first six months.

Causes of miscarriage are: acute attacks of disease in the mother, or predisposition from weakness or chronic disease, such as constitutional syphilis; accidents, such as falls or blows; mental excitement, by fright, anger, or sudden joy; over-fatigue; and certain drugs, as ergot, savin, etc. Sometimes disease of the fœtus (infant in the womb) itself produces its death, and consequent abortion.

Symptoms threatening this casualty are: a general feeling of uneasiness, pain in the back, and afterwards also in the abdomen, coming and going like lesser labor pains; and a vaginal discharge, first mucous and then bloody. If, however, the miscarriage occurs during the first three months, there may be very slight symptoms besides the flooding which brings away the fœtus. This (the fœtus), of course, is very small during the early months.

When abortion is threatened, the patient must lie down and remain very quiet. If pregnancy has advanced beyond the fourth month, and pain is considerable, let an injection of landanum (forty drops) with starch into the bowels be made with a small syringe, with a view to tranquillize the womb. But always a physician should be summoned as soon as the threatening symptoms appear. If it become plain that the thing is going on, and the feetus will come away, the practitioner will find it necessary in some cases to hasten it, so as to get through with the least hemorrhage. In spontaneous abortion, this (the flooding) is the only danger. When criminal abortion is produced by instruments (the only certain way of bringing it on), there are other dangers also; the

womb may be injured, and inflammation of it or of the peritoneum (peritonitis) may take place and be fatal.

Here is the place to say that the intentional causation of abortion is always a crime, akin to murder. The child is a living human being, with a right to continued existence, from the moment of conception. One circumstance only can rightly qualify this; the certainty, determined by competent physicians (and in such a case there should be consultation) that, from deformity or disease in the mother, the child cannot be born alive, and the unsuccessful labor will endanger the mother's life.

It is wonderful what lax and false ideas about this matter some generally well meaning people have. I have known intelligent married people to ask advice as to how a commencing pregnancy may be cut short, simply because it interfered with their convenience in taking a journey. Yet the same persons would not think of quietly choking the baby, once born, because it was troublesome. Morally, there is not much difference. To every married couple, parentage is a blessing; the family is divinely ordained, as the natural and needful complex unit of society. Let no one, in selfishness or folly, commit the fault of disturbing this in its living development, by an act which has the double quality of petty murder and of domestic suicide.

Moles. These are either marks of dark color, on the face, neck, or body, or swellings of the small superficial blood-vessels. Neither can be removed without an operation; which must be left to the judgment of a

Monomania. Mental derangement on one subject. See Insanity. Homicidal and suicidal propensities, not controllable by the will, are examples. The latter may be hereditary, through severa! generations. A very annoying form is kleptomania; a morbid disposition to steal; sometimes met with in people too rieh to have any ordinary temptation towards stealing. Pyromania is an insane desire to set fire to

All these may be easily confounded with real wiekedness, prompting criminal acts. Ingenious lawyers often avail themselves of the "plea of insanity" to shield guilty elients. It ought to be held that the presumption always is that a person is sane unless clearly proven to be otherwise; and also, that partially insane persons are often responsible for their actions. The only exemption from legal penalties should be when it is shown that the disease of the mind present took away the control of the will, so that the person could not act otherwise, and so was not accountable. Moreover, the proof of insanity should be followed by the confinement of the insane criminal, for the security of the community. Such a person is not safe to be at liberty. Any one commit-

ting homicide, and acquitted on trial because of insanity, should (as is the law in England) be thereafter detained in a secure asylum for the rest of his life; with no chance or power of pardon or release. This would effectually meet the difficulties now existing in such matters.

Mother's Marks. See Moles.

Mouth, Diseases of. Leaving to Dentists the care of the Touth, except in regard to Toothache (which see), we may speak of Sore Mouth as of several varieties. These are, 1. Simple inflammation. Aphthæ. 3. Thrush. 4. Ulcer. 5. Gaugrenc. 6. Salivation. Nurses' sore mouth. 8. Seurvy.

Simple inflammation of the mouth may come from anything corrosive, as creasote, sulphuric acid, etc. Both of these substances whiten the surface by their action, but cause swelling, pain, and tenderness. Either, if swallowed in even very moderate quantity, will poison, fatally. (See Poisons.) Treatment of such an inflammation requires cooling and soothing. Ice, gum-arabic water, flaxseed-tea, glycerin (diluted half and half with water), and almond-oil, are here available. Later, borax-water, alum-water (followed by pure water, lest it act upon the teeth), and water made yellowish and milky by the addition of tincture of myrrh, will do good.

Aphtha have been already considered. See Aphtha.

Thrush begins with simple inflammation of the mouth (nearly alwr of an infant), and, after a day or two, a number of small whitish poi which come together, forming a curd-like appearance. These may soil off and be renewed. In bad cases they become brownish in hue. The child's mouth is hot, and siekness of stomach, perhaps with fever, is common. The attack may last from one to two or three weeks. It is never fatal, unless in a child otherwise very much run down.

Chlorate of potassium is the usual medicine relied upon in this affection. From three to five grains three or four times duily may be given in powder to an infant under four ears of age. Magnesia will be a suitable laxative for the bowels. Feeble infants may also require quinine as a tonie, in hal rain or quarter-grain doses; some of them, stimulation, by adding a Lw drops of whisky to a portion of their milk. To the mouth we may apply at first gum-arabic water; then glycerin and rose-water (one part to four or five); borax in solution (two drachms in four ounces), or borax in powder, equal parts with sugar; later, tincture of myrrh in water (half a teaspoonful in a wineglassful), or alum-water. All of these may, indeed, be used in succession, if the case be obstinate. The best way to make any application to an infant's month is by means of a camel's-hair peneil; a fine sponge or clean soft ray may do, though not so well.

Ulcer of the mouth is often called canker (cancrum oris). It begins on the cheeks, gums, or lining of the lips; but it may reach as far as the entrance to the throat (fauces). The ulcer is graylsh or yellowishwhite, with a red inflamed margin; the cheek often swells with it. It is usually painful; the breath is very heavy, and fever may be present. This complaint may last for several weeks, even months; but it is almost never fatal. It is most common in children from two to six years of age, but may attack adults.

Treatment of cunker or ulcer of the month must be adapted, first, to the general condition of the patient. If this is low, tonics may be required; as quinine, iron, cod-liver oil. Sometimes the use of an acid medicine, as aromatic sulphuric acid, will have an immediately good effect. Chlorate of potassium may be given-five grains or less for an infant; twenty grains, several times a day, for an adult. Keeping tho bowels regularly open is important.

To the mouth, the same applications as are mentioned above for thrush will be appropriate here also. Besides, it will be safe and well to touch each ulcer once or twice a day with a crystal of bluestone (sulphate of copper); or, very lightly, with a stick of lunar caustic (nitrate of silver). Between the times of other applications (above-mentioned) let the finger or a small camel's-hair peneil smear each ulcer frequently with a powder of equal parts of prepared chalk and gum-arabic well ground up together; or a paste, of prepared chalk moistened with glycerin.

Gangrene of the mouth is rare, but serious and dangerous. state of the general health predisposes to it. It is mostly seen in children, in almshouses, etc. Beginning as an ulcer, ash-colored, on the gunus or inside the cheek, the parts swell, and in time slongh or mortify; becoming dark and offensive in odor. The cheek is "eaten through;" other ulcerations form, an aerid fluid is discharged, the teeth may fall out. Low fever and prostration attend, with diarrhoa, cold perspirations, and finally death. The only hope in this disease is in arresting

In treatment, quinine and tineture of chloride of iron are needed from the first, with milk diet, beef-tea, and wine whey or whisky punch carefully proportioned and administered. Ten or fifteen drops of whisky every two or three hours will be enough to give to my infant. To the mouth, at the beginning, the applications above mentioned for ulcer will be suitable, with extreme care to keep the mouth clean all the time. A very soft spange wet with lime-water will be good to swab it out with (A sponge so used must be well scalded to be fit for use more than once.) When mortification has begun, a solution of ehlorinated soda (a teaspoonful in a wineglassful of glycerin) may be applied.

If obstinate, other local remedies are, solution of creasets in glycerin or in water (from three to twenty drops in half a wineglassful); permanganute of potassium (ten grains in a fluidounce of water); chloride of sino (one grain in a fluidounce of water). Any of these can be best applied with a camel's-hair pencil to the parts.

Salivation, from large doses of caloniel or blue mass, was once a frequent affection. Nowadays, physicians do not salive to their patients. If any of them, by some accident, should do so, he will be at hand to direct the treatment; so we may leave it to him. It needs only to be said, that the signs of mercurial some mouth, or salivation, are—a copious flow of saliva, a metallic taste in the mouth, swelling and soreness of the gums, and tenderness of the teeth when pressed together. Formerly, bad salivation would now and then cause some of the teeth to fall out. "Nous avons change tout cela." We never do so any more,

Nurses' Some Mouth is, as its name shows, an affection of those who are suckling infants. Sometimes it may come even before the child is born. It begins with small, hard, painful swellings on the tongue and charl, which ulcerate and become very sore. There may be general indisposition and fever with it.

Treatment of this disorder requires chlorate of potassium as the principal medicine, in ten- to twenty-grain doses, three or four times daily. If the patient be feeble, iron and quinine will also be in place, with good nourishing diet, including plenty of milk. To the mouth, the applications above mentioned for Ulcer will be appropriate.

See Scurvy for the sore mouth which is a part of that disease.

Mumps. A mild contagious disease, which most people (not all) have but ouce; characterized by inflammation and swelling of one or both of the parotid glands. These are situated one on each side of the neck, just below the ear. In their healthy condition, they are so small that we do not either see or feel them; in Mumps they grow quite large and sore, and are hurt in the act of swallowing. There is little if any fever, and the attack lasts in all about a week. In a few instances, the disease undergoes a transfer (metastasis) to the brain or some other part; and then it may be quite a serious illness. I never knew or heard of any one dying of mumps.

Very little treatment is worth while. Let the patient stay in-doors, on soft diet, take a moderate dose of citrate of magnesium or Rochelle salts, and bathe the swollen "chaps" with soap liniment, to which a little laudanum has been added. That is about all that need be done.

Once in a while, in a child especially, one of the parotid or submaxillary glands may undergo enlargement, not from mumps, which lasts for a considerable time. The diagnosis in such a case may require careful consideration on the part of a physician.

Musca Volitantes. "Flying flies," literally. These-are spots or speeks, rings or strings, floating before the sight of one or both eyes. They often look like chains of small pearls; rising when the eyes are turned upward, and slowly settling down again. They are tiny, semi-opaque, solid particles floating in the vitreous humor of the eye, in front of the retina. One may have them, as I have myself, for twenty or more years, without their interfering with sight. Fixed dark spots, coming between the sight and objects in view, and gradually growing larger, are more ominous; they may increase so as to end in blindness.

Myalgia. Muscle-pain; as neuralgia is nerve-pain. Fatigue causes temporary myalgie pain; an exhausted person may have it, especially in the back, without exertion. Its treatment requires rest and warmth, sometimes anodynes (as laudanum) to the parts affected.

Myelitis. Inflammation of the spinal marrow. See Spinal Marrow, Diseases of, in extended medical works.

Myopia. Near-sightedness; resulting from too great length of the eyeball, or too great convexity of the crystalline lens; making the image of an object fall short of the retina, unless it is very near to the eye. It is corrected by concave glasses, pushing the images farther back, so as to reach the retina. See Hygiene, Care of the Sight, page 405.

Myxœdema. A rare, incurable, constitutional disease of women past the middle time of life; consisting of a general swelling (without inflammation) of the connective tissue under the skin, especially on the upper half of the body. The face has a waxy-bloated appearance; the breast becomes large all over; stupidity or mental derangement follows, and death occurs within a few months.

Nail, In-growing. A wrong name; it is out-growing (or swelling) flesh, invading the nail, that is really the matter. The nail never grows into the flesh, while the latter keeps its natural place. But whenever anything causes the soft flesh of the toe, generally the great toe, to inflame, a long or sharp-edged nail against it aggravates the pain and soreness very much. It becomes excessively tender to the touch, and

sometimes lames the foot in walking.

First, then, we must soothe and heal the inflamed part. Lying in bed, with a bread or flaxseed poultice on the toe; applying simple cerate freely over the sore place, night and morning; if very angry, limewater and oil, in equal parts. When it gives way a little, then we should very carefully cut away so much as can be done of the sharp end and edge of the nail next the flesh. Take a small, soft bit of lint or linen, cut for the purpose, smear it with simple cerate, and, with the back of a penknife or the blade of a pair of scissors, gently push it in between the nail and the flesh, and let it stay there. Renew this every day, unless it seems to keep its place well.

If necessary, by a small strip of adhesive plasier, we may draw the flesh away from the nail also. In slow cases, collodion may be poured in, or applied with a hair pencil, to fill up the crack between nail and flesh; or compound tincture of benzoin, which makes a delicate artificial cuticle. A few cases may need "taking down proud flesh" by touching

with bluestone or lunar caustie.

Rare instances occur of malignant disease of the toe, involving the nail. Such cases may require a surgical operation. None is ever necessary for the cure of simple so-called "In-growing Nail."

Navel, Started. Umbilical hernia. See Hernia.

Nephritis. See Kidney, Inflammation of.

Nettle-rash. A red, slightly swollen eruption, in wheals or patches, which burn and sting, as if the part had been touched by nettles. See Skin Diseases.

Neuralgia. Nerve-pain; that is, pain having its place, or cause, in a nerve. It may have place in a nerve, when its cause is at the nerve-centre, or in the blood and general system. Inflammation of a nerve-sheath may give rise to it, but not inflammation of other parts.

Faceache (tic douloureux), when not produced by disease of a tooth or inflammation of the cheek or jaw, is one example of Neuralgia. Hemicrania is Neuralgia of one side of the head. Lumbago, pain in the small of the back, may be either Neuralgia or myalgia (muscle pain). Sciatica is pain affecting the scintic nerve, which lies along the back of the hip, thigh, and leg. Other nerves may be likewise affected. Tenderness on pressure often accompanies the pain. It is generally sharp, shooting, or darting in character.

Treatment. Three times out of four, at least, a neuralgic person is anæmic; that is, deficient in good, rich red blood. Nourishing food, pure air, warm clothing, and iron are the chief blood-restorers. Other medicines, possibly suitable, as quininc, valerianate of zinc, belladonna, morphia, etc., may be left to the physician to advise. Only severe cases will require the taking of opiates, or other anodynes, by the mouth or by hypodermic injection.

To the seat of pain, various remedies are applied, with varying degrees of success. Laudanum, soaking a rag with it and putting it on the part, covered then with oiled silk; paregoric, used in the same way; chloroform, so employed, which burns like mustard when kept from evaporating; menthol, the Chinese or Japanese remedy, now prepared in solid sticks; simple hot water, or anything hot; direct sunshine; the half of a cut lemon; equal parts of chloral hydrate and gum camphor, rubbed together; these are among the things frequently so employed. More severe, is raising a small blister over the part, and sprinkling on the raw surface a powder consisting of a grain of acetate of morphia and ten grains of gum-arabic. Other powerful local anodynes are tincture of aconite, rubbed into the part until the skin tingles; and ointment of veratria, ten to twenty grains in an ounce of lard. These last (morphia, aconite, and veratria) are, when wroughy taken, deadly poisons; not suitable to be reckoned among ordinary household medicines. They are among the edge-tools of the practice of medicine, hardly to be handled safely without the advice of a physician.

Neurasthenia. Nervous debility. On this, I may quote part of a

page from my "Essentials of Practical Medicine:"

"Neurasthenia is a term conveniently applied to a general deficiency of tone and strength in the nervous system; producing symptoms variously affecting either the organic, sensory, muscular, or psychical functions. If the first of these be involved, we have nervous dyspepsia, occasionally diarrheea or vomiting; amenorrheea, dysmenorrheea, or menorrhagia; perhaps retention of urine, etc. When the sensory apparatus exhibits the results of neurasthenia, neuralgia is the most common symptom; sometimes, however, anasthesia occurs instead, or paralysis of special sensation; e. g., blindness or deafness. In the muscular apparatus, the same condition produces a tendency to convulsions, general or local. Psychical symptoms of neurasthenia are extremely various in both sexes. In females, all of the above disorderly conditions and actions have been commonly grouped together under the name hysteria." (See Neurataxia; alco, Hysteria.) "But they occur in men and boys also, under circumstance, sustaining the view that in either sex the relation to the reproductive system is rather accidental than essential."

"Undoubtedly, neurasthenia bears an increasingly large part in the diseased states with which the physician has to deal in the artificial life of modern society, especially in great cities. Causes of neurasthenia are chiefly as follows: sexual or sensual excesses or abuses; very large use of tobacco; continued 'worry,' i. e., fretting and wearing care about business, domestic, political, or other affairs; too laborious brain-work with insufficiency of sleep; social dissipation, with the same effect of deficiency of rest; unhygienic habits of bodily and mental inertia, typified by the corset, the veil, the novel, and the sofa. Predisposition to nervous debility, with some or all of its attendant ailments, is, beyond question, often hereditary. It is promoted, sometimes, by inheritance of the gouty constitution."

Treatment of Neurasthenia must vary according to the form which it takes, as well as its cause. When brought on, as it often is, by overfatigue of mind or body, or by anxiety, social excitement, etc., total rest for a considerable time is the most important thing. The late Professor S. Jackson, of Philadelphia, urged strenuously the idea of this; which has been developed into a system of "rest-cure," by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell and others. In its completeness, this system requires the nervously exhausted patient (mostly a woman) to be separated from her family and friends, unless possibly one of them, acting as her nurse. She must lie in bed, and see no visitors, read no books nor papers, and write no letters. Life must be, to her, for a time, a comfortable blank; diversified by her daily hour or two of rubbing (massage) by a manipulator; and, perhaps, the application, once or twice a day, of electricity. Her diet consists chiefly of milk, of which she is to take a great deal; as much, indeed, as she can swallow and digest. After from three to six weeks of this régime, she may, in favorable cases, be allowed gradually to leave her bed, read a little, see somebody, and, at last, return to the world.

No doubt a certain number of over-driven people (especially those who are victims of social dissipation) are benefited by going through a period of this extreme isolation and quietude. Rest, however, may often be obtained sufficiently without banishment from home, or even total isolation, at home, from one's friends. Good medical judgment is necessary to decide about this in each case.

Other treatment for Neurasthenia includes the use of tonics, as iron, quinine, nux vomica, phosphates or hypophosphites, etc.; and, when available, sea-bathing (or at least sea air), or visiting mountains or other resorts for change of scene.

Neurataxia. This term has been proposed by me, meaning loss of harmony and coördination in the performance of the functions of the nervous system, to designate the state of things in hysteria, as something

more and other than mere nervous debility or neurasthenia. Other authors have not, however, I believe, as yet adopted the term Neurataxia. See Hysteria.

Neurosis. A general term, applicable to any disorder of the nervous system. Hysteria, epilepsy, and chorea, for examples, are, or may be, called neuroses.

Night-Sweats. See Consumption.

Night-Terrors. A child, from three to eight years of age, goes to bed apparently well. In an hour or two, perhaps later, it screams with sudden fright, and calls for its father and mother; sitting up in bed, but not knowing any one who goes to it.

Lift the child at once from the bed, well wrapped, of course, and carry it around the room once or twice. Pass over its forehead and face a napkin or towel dipped in cold water. Give it then a teaspoonful of camphor water. Let it relieve its bladder, put it to bed again, and it will sleep till morning. Then do not wake it up; let it sleep its sleep out, to tranquillize the brain. During the next and following days, see that it eats nothing indigestible at supper; that it is neither over-violent in exercise nor has its mind much excited towards the end of the day; and that there is enough fresh air admitted into the chamber where it sleeps.

Night-terrors do not show that the brain is diseased. But they do prove that it is very sensitive; and extra care should be taken not to aggravate this, in any way, into something more serious.

Nipple, Sore. Cracked Nipple is one of the troubles to which mothers and wet-nurses are liable. To prevent it, the nipple should be wiped dry with a soft napkin immediately after the child has left it. On the slightest soreness being felt, apply cold cream ("ointment of rosewater" of the apothecary); this being very gently wiped off before the babe is put again to the breast. Lime-water, alum-water, and oak-bark tea (one at a time, of course), are good astringents to wash a tender nipple with; using a fine soft sponge for the purpose.

When a nipple has actually cracked, it must be helped to heal, by soothing and protective applications: as compound tincture of benzoin (very good) or collodion (best with one-fiftieth part of glycerin added), applied with a camel's-hair pencil. Either of these will make a thin coating over the fissure, like an artificial skin. A nipple shield must be worn, or a breast-pump used, to avoid the pain and irritation of suctious the child, when a nipple is cracked or very tender.

Nurses' Sore Mouth. See Mouth, Sore.

Obesity. Excessive increase of fat about the body. See Hygiene (p. 123).

Obstruction of the Bowels. Much more than mere constipation, this is one of the most dangerous of accidents. It is less uncommon in young children than in older persons. Its causes are obscure; various kinds of obstruction may occur. Sometimes hardened feces (exerement) may collect, from long neglected constipation, into such a mass that the lower bowel has not power to expel it. In a few cases, curds of undigested milk have blocked up the rectum in the same way. These, or accumulated feces, when discovered by examination, may be scooped out with a spoon.

Intussusception is the tueking or slipping of one portion of intestine, stovepipe-like, into another. The outer part then contracts upon it, holding it fast. Twisting of an intestine may take place; or even its getting tied in a knot. There are, also, still other conditions, besides strangulated hernia (rupture) which may cause a mechanical obstruction of the bowels. (See "Essentials of Practical Medicine.")



INTUSSUSCEPTION OF INTESTINE.

Symptoms of Obstruction of the Bowels are: 1. Obstinate, unmovable constipation; purgative medicine having no effect. 2. Vomiting; at first of food taken, bile, etc.; later, of fecal matter (excrement; "ster-coraceous" vomiting). 3. Pain and great distress, with coldness and prostration. 4. In some cases, without any natural discharge, blood passes from the bowels. 5. When the obstruction is low down, the belly may be much swollen with wind (meteorism). 6. In certain instances, with less general swelling, a firm tumor may be felt in one part of the abdomen.

Often, the greatest degree of medical skill will not enable a practitioner to make sure of the exact nature of the obstruction; while of the existence of it there is no doubt. The treatment of such cases, therefore, is subject to great difficulty. Probabilities are all that can be acted upon.

Whenever a person has constipation of the bowels which does not give way after taking ordinary active purgative medicines, send for a physician. Meanwhile, let the patient be put into a quite warm bath (96° or 97°) and remain in it for fifteen or twenty minutes. After being thoroughly dried, if the doctor has not yet arrived, let the patient, lying on a bed, be lifted up by the heels by one or two other persons; hoping thus to displace the wrongly caught portion of gut, if it be intussusception. If no relief follows, and medical aid cannot be obtained, the only other process I can suggest for an unprofessional person to venture upon is, to inject, with a common enema-syringe of either kind, two or three pints of warm water, not violently, but steadily, one quantity after another. Sometimes this will loosen things out, happily.

It is now not nucommon, in such a desperate state of things as some cases of Obstruction of the Bowels present, for surgeons to open the abdomen by a careful ineision, to ascertain the nature of the trouble, and rectify it. This operation is not without danger; but unrelieved obstruction is almost always fatal. If no such operation is concluded upon, after other measures fail to give relief, it is usual to administer opium in regular doses (a quarter to a half grain every three or four hours while awake) to tranquillize the system; and, at the same time, only liquid food in small quantities being given by the mouth, or rectum (lower bowel), waiting to see what nature can do. Perhaps in one case or two out of fifty spontaneous recovery may result.

Odontalgia. See Toothache.

Œdema. Watery swelling; local dropsy. See Dropsy.

Œsophagus, Stricture of. A narrowing of the lower gullet, making it very difficult to swallow anything. It is a rare affection; one of its causes being, swallowing a corrosive poison, in quantity not quite sufficient to cause death. For its *treatment*, see professional works.

Oinomania. See Methomania.

Ophthalmia. See Eyes, Diseases of. Egyptian Ophthalmia is a violent form of inflammation of the eyes, often producing blind ess. New-born babies sometimes have a very serious kind of suppurative ophthalmia, which, without skilful treatment, may destroy their sight. It should receive immediate attention from a physician. An excellent wash for it is alum-water; a teaspoonful of alum in a tumblerful of water; a little at a time being gently poured between the lids, several times daily.

Ophthalmic (or Exophthalmic) Goitre. Also called Thyrocardiac Disorder. In this singular and not common disease, three things are united, which seem to have no necessary connection: enlargement of the thyroid gland in the neck, throbbing of the heart and arteries, and

staring prominence of the eyeballs. It is a slow chronic disorder; recovery from it may occur, but it often lingers for months or even years. A person suffering from it should live a very quiet life, avoiding much exertion or excitement. Digitalis, veratrum viride, iron, and electricity are the remedies that seem to give the most hope of benefit in its treatment.

Opisthotonos. Bending the head and body backward, in tetanus (lock-jaw) or hysteria, so that only the head and heels touch the bed. It is a symptom, merely: not itself a disease.

Orthopnæa. Difficulty of breathing, so great that the patient must be propped up all the time. It exists in many cases of advanced heart-disease, lung-disease, and also abdominal dropsy; in the last-mentioned case, the fluid pressing against the diaphragm when the patient lies down. Orthopnæa is temporarily present, also, during an attack of asthma. Remedies for it are, of course, those required for the disorder of which it is one of the symptoms or effects.

Ovarian Dropsy. See Women, Diseases of.

Ozcena. A chronic disease of the inner nostrils and neighboring cavities of the upper jaw bones, with an offensive discharge. It is very hard to cure; the treatment approved by specialist practitioners is beyond the scope of domestic medicine. One simple measure alone may be here referred to, which is likely at least to palliate the complaint, and cannot do harm: smelling tar, from a wide-mouthed bottle, warmed at the time, for several minutes together, three or four times daily.

Palpitation. See Heart, Diseases of.

Palsy: Paralysis. Loss of power, or of feeling, or of both together. It may result from disease of the brain, as when it follows apoplexy; or from disease of the spinal marrow; or of a nerve, as when paralysis of one side of the face is produced by a cold.

Hemiplegia is Palsy of one side of the body; Paraplegia, of both legs and feet. General paralysis involves all the limbs together, and some other parts. Sometimes there is local paralysis, of one or a few muscles; or a local anasthesia, i. e., loss of sensibility of a part.

Infantile Paralysis has been spoken of in its place. Much the larger number of cases of palsy occur in elderly people. One variety is shaking palsy (paralysis agitans). Hysterical paralysis is more often curable than any other kind.

For the treatment of Paralysis, there is always time enough to obtain deliberate medical advice and attendance. Among the remedies likely to be recommended, are, counter-irritation, at an early stage; later, massage (which see, under Nursing), electricity, hot baths, and small and care-



WASTING PALSY.

fully regulated doses of strychnia. Paralysis following apoplexy, and other cases of it in old people, are seldom recovered from; and repeated attacks are very apt to follow, until the fatal end. Yet there are some instances of paralytics living for many years.

Parasites. Epizoa is the scientific name for external parasitic animals. Lice, fleas, ticks, and bed-bugs are such, large enough to be seen as well as felt. The itch animalcule (see Skin Diseases) is discoverable only with the aid of a microscope. Lice and fleas are true insects; ticks and itch animalcules are more nearly related to spiders (arachnida).

To get rid of lice, a "hand to head" warfare, armed with a fine-toothed comb, is the most effectual process; cracking all the nils, or eggs, lodged on the hairs, as well as the creeping things; and dusting afterwards with staphysagria to finish them. Washing the head (and body if there; as one sort, crab-lice, infest a part of the body) with

strong soapsuds, after a general extermination, will complete the work. A woolly or tangled head of hair had better be shorn first.

Fleas are famous jumpers, and so not easy to catch. They make large and rather sore bites. By shaking and beating out clothing, and bathing, one can get rid of personal followers; but beds and bedding are worse. Flea-powder (much needed and used in the East) is probably either pyrethrum or cocculus indicus. I proved the worth of one kind, I think pyrethrum, in Egypt. It acted like chloroform on the intruders. They slept and so did we; and in the morning we swept them out, à la Sennacherib.

Bed-bugs, small, round, flat, black, bad-smelling vagabonds, hide themselves well in all sorts of cracks and crannics; in bedsteads as well as in beds and clothing. They are ugly to look at, and bite unpleasantly. To get rid of them, besides persevering detective work, the bedstead and its surroundings must be attended to. Corrosive sublimate dissolved in alcohol, or alcohol and water (two or three grains in a fluidounce) is

Fig. 228.



MALE LOUSE (MAGNIFIED).

Fig. 229.



FEMALE LOUSE (MAGNIFIED).

the most effectual wash for such a purpose. Benzine also will answer very well.

Ticks get on the body from plants; as wild raspberry bushes, etc., in the country. They are annoying, that is all. The most objectionable lodger in or under the skin is the chigoe, or jigger, a kind of flea of South America.

Mosquitoes are rather itinerant visitors than parasites. To protect oneself from them, a cloud of smoke is in some places available. Otherwise, they are not likely to bite a face or hands wet with spirits of camphor. The state is a good application to "kill" the itching of the bites. Ammonia, however, is still better. Pennyroval, a common weed, has the reputation in the country of keeping off mosquitoes.

There is a very small arachnid (acarus) sometimes present in the follicles of the face, when there is a pimply (papular) eruption, called acne. Of this, and the sarcoptes of itch, more under Skin Diseasse.

Parotitis. See Mumps.

Pellagra. A very serious affection of the skin, known in Southern Europe. See Skin Diseases.

Pemphigus. See Skin Diseases.

Pericarditis. Inflammation of the outer covering of the heart (pericardium). See Heart, Diseases of.

Peritonitis. Inflammation of the peritoneum; the delicate serous membrane lining the abdomen, and enwrapping all its contained organs; stomach, intestines, liver, kidneys, etc. On account of its extent, and the vital importance of these parts, Peritonitis is always a suffering and dangerous disease. It may be caused by blows or other injuries; by exposure to cold and wet; the bursting of an aneurism, or of an abscess of the liver or bowel (typhlitis), or perforation of the stomach or bowel by an ulcer (as in typhoid fever); by some of the "accidents" following child-bearing; or by tuberculization of the abdominal glands, or of the peritoneum itself.

Symptoms of Peritonitis are, diffused abdominal pain and tenderness, increased by the slightest pressure or movement, even taking a deep breath; vomiting, constipation, swelling of the belly, and fever, with a very rapid, though not full, pulse. In bad cases, there will be also delirium, extreme restlessness, and prostration, tending towards collapse and death. Simple Peritonitis, however, is recovered from, under favorable circumstances, in a considerable number of cases. Tubercular Peritonitis may always be expected to end fatally, after a long and slow progress. Puerperal Peritonitis, when not epidemic (puerperal fever) though serious, is not nearly always destructive of life; when, however, it occurs as a part of epidemic or endemic Puerperal fever, at least half of those affected are likely to die.

Treatment of Peritonitis will not, of course, be undertaken by an unprofessional person, when it can be avoided. In lecturing to medical students as professor of the Practice of Medicine, my instruction has been that, in simple acute Peritonitis, bleeding from the arm should be the rule, and lecching the abdomen (fifty to a hundred American lecches) should follow; only decidedly feeble patients affording exceptions. Experience warrants me in believing that such is good practice. If any inflammatory disease, besides inflammation of the brain, can be benefited by drawing blood, I believe this to be the case with acute Peritonitis. I regret that a different habit of thought and practice has prevailed in the medical profession since about 1860. There are signs of a gradual return to the old and sound view, that, while bleeding may be abused, so as to waste a patient's strength, there are some instances where it will save it from the worse weakening of a dangerous disease.

After leeching, or without it if you cannot get it, poulticing with

flaxseed-meal, softened with a little lard, after pouring upon the poultice a teaspoonful of laudanum, will be well. When there has been no leeching, some practitioners lay over the abdomen a light piece of flannel wet with oil of turpentine, as a counter-irritant. Others prefer a coil of india-rubber tube, through which ice-water is made to flow constantly, without wetting the patient.

Perfect rest in bed is indispensable in Peritonitis. No purgative medicine is considered suitable, except enough to maintain a moderate daily movement of the bowels. Yet an injection of pure sweet oil, or oil mixed in warm soapsuds, may be used to empty the lower bowel, every day or two. The only food allowable must be soft and light; as arrowroot, tapioca, sago, rice-water, scalded milk, or, if feeble, beeftee or chicken-broth.

No medicine has favor in the treatment of Peritonitis except opium. This is given in half-grain doses, more or less, every three or four hours while the patient is awake, to keep down nervous and inflammatory excitement. If "resolution" of the inflammation occurs, the patient will get well in a week or two. If, instead, it goes on to suppuration (forming pus or matter in the peritoneum), it will almost always end in death. See Puerperal Fever.

Chronic (i. e., not acute; prolonged, slow) Peritonitis may be tubercular in nature, but is not always so. If not, there is hope, though
doubtful, of recovery. In its treatment, besides rest, less opium than in
the acute form, if any, is called for. Tincture of iodine may be painted
over the abdomen as a counter-irritant; or a blister of moderate size may
be there applied. Ointment of iodoform has latterly acquired a reputation in similar cases. I have seen excellent results follow the nightly
application of cerate of carbonate of lead (two drachms of carb. lead
mixed with an ounce of simple cerate).

Pernicious Anæmia. See Anæmia.

Pernicious Fever. See Ague, of which it is the worst form.

Pertussis. See Hooping-Cough. Pharyngitis. See Throat, Sore.

Phlebitis. Iuflammation of a vein. This does not often occur. When it does, the blood is apt to congulate in the vein, forming a clot or thrombus, obstructing the vessel. Fragments of such a clot may be carried in the blood to the heart, and thence into the arterial system; if one of these fragments chokes or plugs an artery, it constitutes embolism (the fragment being an embolus). Embolism of the main artery of a limb, in a feeble person, may so interfere with its nourishment as to cause it to undergo mortification. See, also, Milk-Leg.

Photophobia. Dread of light; excessive sensitiveness of the retina,

so that the patient cannot open his eyes in the light. This is common both in acute and in chronic ophthalmia, and in inflammation of the brain.

Phrenitia. See Brain, Inflammation of.

Phthisis. See Consumption.

Piles. Hemorrhoids of medical works. These are small swellings, hard or soft, either just without or just within the anus (outlet from the lower bowel). Internal piles often bleed; sometimes enough to weaken a person a good deal. External ones, when hard, are in some cases not troublesome; but they are liable to attacks of inflammation, which may be very painful. With some patients, they are sore and painful at all times; especially when the bowels are moved.

Causes of Piles are, neglected constipation; excessive use of purgative medicines; sedentary living; standing on the feet a great deal, or sitting on hard seats. Pregnant women are often subject to them. The complaint is hereditary in some families.

Treatment of a "fit of the piles," that is, an attack of soreness and inflammation, should begin upon the very first feeling of soreness at the part, with the free and frequent application of tallow, cold cream, oxide of zinc ointment, or vaseline. Early greasing may put out an attack, like a commencing fire. Also, the bowels must be regulated; not purged, but kept gently open by moderate means. Besides fruit, the best things for persons having Piles are rhubarb, sulphur, and confection or fluid extract of senna.

Obstinate external piles may require persevering treatment with astringent ointments; as of galls, tannin, carbonate of lead, or creasote. Sopping or sponging the parts with cold water agrees with some; hot water, or soapsuds, with others. A short remedy is, cutting or ligating (strangling) the tumors, as a surgical operation. Sometimes, instead, they are treated by injecting them with carbolic acid.

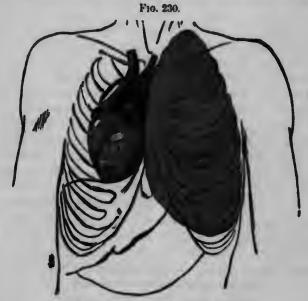
Internal piles may need attention particularly on account of free bleeding. Cold water will usually help to stop this; so also (there is no contradiction—both make small blood-vessels contract) will hot water (110° Fahr.), if injected with a small syringe. Alum may be added to the water; or a few drops of tincture of chloride of iron. If there is serious hemorrhage, the patient must lie still in bed.

Plague. A very destructive oriental epidemic disease, most prevalent in summer (though not at its hottest) and in large cities. In the seventeenth century, it caused tens of thousands of deaths in London, Marseilles, and other European centres of population. Its worst localities formerly were Constantinople, Alexandria, and Cairo. It has not been known anywhere in Europe for more than a century; nor in

Egypt for twenty-five or thirty years. Sanitary improvement is gradually extinguishing it everywhere. Plague has never visited this country; so we need not here dwell farther upon it.

Pleurisy. Inflammation of the pleura; that is, the delicate scrous membrane which envelops the lungs and lines the inside of the bony chest. "Taking cold," injuries (as penetrating wounds), and tuberculisation (as in consumption) are its most frequent causes.

Symptoms of Pleurisy are generally easily recognized. Every breath gives pain, a sharp stitch. This happens because the layers of the pleura which rub over each other (one layer on the lung and the other on the inside of the ribs), when inflamed, adhere to each other, by the lymph



PLEURITIC EFFUSION DISPLACING HEART.

which exudes on them. Expansion of the lung in breathing, or rather, we should say, lifting the ribs to breathe, drags on such adhesions painfully. There is little cough in simple Pleurisy; more in pleuro-pneumonia, when the lung also is inflamed. The attack may affect one side only, or, in exceptional cases, both. Fever attends a decided attack. On auscultation, there may be heard over the inflamed part a friction sound, corresponding with the lymph-adhesion above spoken of.

The second stage of Pleurisy is that of effusion of serum into the cavity of the plenra. This is like the "raising" of a blister, but on a larger scale. With it, the "friction sound" on auscultation disappears;

and dulness on percussion becomes manifest, from the presence of fluid instead of air on the affected side. In bad cases, this presses the lung almost into a solid mass; and if the same thing happens with both lungs, death must result. Another unfavorable, though slower, course, is for the serum to change to pus; constituting empyema. Serum may be gradually absorbed; pus cannot. Hence the patient with empyema is worried out, with hectic fever, etc., in a few months, nuless there is either a spontuneous or a surgical opening, to let out the pus. Within the last twenty-five years, physicians have acquired much more confidence than formerly, in assisting nature to get rid of large amounts of serum, or of any considerable amount of pus, collected in the chest. Even water, left long there, displaces one or both lungs, and sometimes the heart, and seriously cripples breathing, if not the circulation of the bod.

Treatment of acute Pleurisy, at the start, lifty years ago, cheave began with bleeding from the arm. This has, to my regret, new gone out of fashion. While there are, no doubt, not a few persons tho would not bear bleeding well, some attacked with Pleurisy would get through their attacks much better for it. Leeching or cupping the inflamed side, I believe, ought to be the rule in Pleurisy, with very few exceptions. Even in consumptive patients, dry cups may be used with advantage.

Almost forgetting, in these remarks, that *Home* medicine, rather than professional "theory and practice," is our present subject, I return to it by saying that in every attack of illness resulting from exposure to cold, as Pleurisy mostly does, unless in a patient already exhausted from previous disease, I would, in the absence of a physician, give one early dose of a mild purgative. (That is, of course, unless there happens to be diarrhosa also present at the time; which is rare.) As to other medicine, I do not feel ready to urge it without the personal judgment of a physician upon the case. To him also must, of course, be left the question of possibly tapping the chest for an oppressive or rapidly increasing effusion. A blister on the side is a common and entirely reasonable application, at about the beginning of the second stage of the disease.

Pleurodynia. Intercostal rheumatism; that is, pain, increased on taking a long breath, in the muscles between the ribs. This pain is much less sharp and severe than that of pleurisy. It may be treated by the application, first, of a mustard-plaster; and when all the effect of this has gone off, a warming-plaster (Burgundy pitch, Allcock's porous-plaster, etc.), to remain on for several days, or until it comes off of itself.

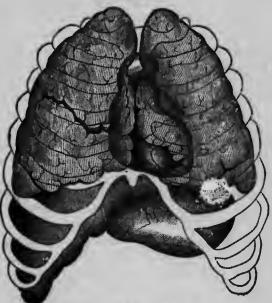
Plica Polonica. Polish Twist; a parasitic disease of the hair, unknown except in Poland or in some country not far from it.

Procumonia. Inflammation of one or both of the lungs. Causes:

cold and wet, injuries, or tuberculization. The last of these comes under the conditions of pulmonary consumption.

Symptoms: pain, rather dull, in the chest, mostly on one side, sometimes (double Pneumonia) on both; oppression in breathing; a short, hacking cough; fever; in severe cases, delirium. In a day, or two or three, expectoration of reddish or reddish-brown mucus (rusty sputum) in not very large quantities. If the case goes on badly, this is changed after some days to a more abundant yellowish purulent expectoration; or, worst of all, rotten and gangrenous. The height of the attack is





LUNGS AND HEART IN PLACE.

reached generally between the fifth and the seventh day. When fatal, the end seldom occurs before the sixth day, and may be as late as the fifteenth or twentieth day.

Stages of Pneumonia, in usual course, are, first, congestion and commencing exudation of lymph; second, consolidation, with abundant exudation into the air-cells of the lungs (hepatization); third (not reached in the most favorable cases), suppuration. The last has variations, which need not here be described. Physicians detect the existence and progress of these stages chiefly by the physical signs, ascertained by auscultation and percussion. Of these, the distinctive one of Pneumonia is, in the middle stage, the crepitant rale; a fine, soft sound, like

what is heard when one rolls a few hairs, near the ear, between the thumb and finger. Dulness on percussion is present also, from the lung being almost made solid (hepatization, resembling the liver) from exudation of lymph through its cells, which in health are full of air. But the precise and extended study of these physical signs is too technical a subject for this book. (See "Esseutials of Practical Medicine," or any other work on Practice.)

Treatment of Pneumonia has been a "battle-ground" of opinion amongst physicians during the last fifty years. Before that time, it was pretty much settled. If a lung was so much inflamed as to cause fever, as well as distress in breathing, the patient was bled, on the first or second day of the attack; he also took a good dose of an active cathartie, as Epsom salts, and he generally got well. I was brought up by my father, Dr. Joseph Hartshorne, a private pupil of Dr. Benjamin Rush, in this practice; and I never lost a case of simple Pneumonia in my life. Dr. Louis Gebliard, a contemporary of my father, told me, after fifty years of practice, that he had never lost a case of Pneumonia. People do nowadays often die of Pueumonia; even young, vigorous men, from thirty to forty years of age, amoug them; and these have not been bled. This point must not be further argued here, as this is not a professional book. But if any of my readers should be attacked with Pneumonia, while in the prime and vigor of life, I hope that his physician, if he will not bleed, will at least cup or leech between the shoulders or over the inflamed lung, and allow a good purgative dose, on the first or second, or even the third day of the attack. Time enough to feed up and stimulate, except in feeble patients, when the height of the acute inflammatory attack has been passed. In Home practice, I

Poulticing the chest (after leeching or cupping, or, if such must be, instead of it) is very useful and important. A large and thick mush or flaxseed-meal poultice should be put warm on the diseased side, and covered with oiled silk. As soon as it begins to dry and get hard, have another ready and replace it, without allowing the side to be uncovered for a single second. Later a blister will be suitable, if the symptoms show obstinacy or slowness in "resolution" of the attack.

will name here no other medicine except ipecacuanha, to soften and loosen the cough; free early secretion being very serviceable in lower-

ing the inflammation of the lung and oppression in breathing.

Some patients, especially broken-down people (from intemperance, etc.), such as are often seeu in hospitals, will not bear the loss of blood well, whatever their disease. In hospitals, moreover, they are likely not to come under care until after the third day of the attack; and then it is too late for bleeding. In such cases, and in all very feeble persons,

quinine, beef-tea, and, carefully, alcoholic stimulants, may constitute the essential parts of the treatment. I am bound to add this much, after the somewhat sanguinary observations above made, on the treatment of Pneumonia.

Typhoid Pneumonia is inflammation of one or both lungs, with a low state of the system (not constitutional, but a part of the attack), more or less like that seen in typhoid fever. Physicians who may look at this must pardon me for suggesting that some cases become "typhoid" for want of active relieving early treatment. Others, however, are genuinely low in their course all through. These will bear no bleeding, and only dry cupping and poulticing; and they must be supported; not by profuse potions of alcohol, but by carefully regulated doses, watching their effects; also, by milk, beef-tea, or beef-essence, etc.

Pneumothorax. Air escaping from a lung into the cavity of the pleura; an opening being made from the lung by a wound, or by the breaking of the wall of an abscess or "cavity" of a tuberculous lung. This is a not uncommon occurrence in pulmonary consumption.

Podagra. An old name for Gout; which see.

Poisons. See the last part of this book, after Accidents, etc.

Poison-Vine Eruption. Most persons have seen this; very many have felt its unpleasantness. It comes from touching either the poison-vine (*Rhus toxicodendron*), or, with fewer people, the *Swamp Sumach*. The eruption is made up of a milltitude of very small water-blisters (vesieles) on a red and sore surface. It itehes and burns, very annoyingly; on the face and hands mostly, sometimes on the lower limbs and body. I was ouce two weeks in bed with it. Generally, the attack is over within a week. Nobody, I believe, ever died of it.

Treatment. Unless on a small surface of the body (as it sometimes appears) it is seldom possible to "nip in the bud" this eruptiou. Like murder and scandal, it "will out." I am not sure that it would be safe to "drive it in," if we could do so; an inflammation of some internal organ might result from retention of the poison in the blood. On a hand or arm, however, a stream of hot water will sometimes kill it after three or four applications. Caustics (as nitrate of silver) may do the same thing, but they require more care, and may leave marks.

Cooling and easing the irritation of the skin is the aim in this affection. Where the skin is not broken, painting (with a hair peneil) with weak lead-reater is relieving. If burning is very intense, dipping the part, as the hand or the face, in cold water, and holding it there awhile, several times a day, will lower the heat. Lime-water, and a solution of soda in water, pretty strong, are, among many remedies of which I have

known the trial, the most generally useful when the cruption is at its height. I would try both alternately; laying soft light rags wet with the solution of soda or lime upon the part, and renewing them often enough to have a cooling effect.

Lately, Dr. S. A. Brown, U. S. N., has asserted that *Bromine*, ten or twenty drops dissolved in Oil or Glycerin, and rubbed gently over the poisoned part three or four times daily, is a specific for Rhus poisoning.

I do not know of its being yet extensively so used.

Polypus. A swelling, rather hard, with more or less of a stem or narrow base, where it is connected with the body. Polypi are met with in the nose, and in other cavities communicating with the exterior. Their treatment (mostly by removal) belongs to special Surgery.

Porrigo. See Skin Diseases.

Presbyopia. Old sight. After forty-five, most people who have not been near-signted are obliged to hold their books or newspapers farther off than before, to read well. Also, they need better light to read or work by, and cannot make out fine print at night. Three changes have now begun, which usually continue to go on slowly: 1. Sensibility is less in the eyes, requiring stronger light to make objects clearly visible. 2. Adjustment of the eves to near objects is feebler, the muscle of accommodation (ciliary muscle) being one of the first muscles of the body to weaken with the commencing decline of life. 3. The crystalline lens becomes flatter and harder, so that its refraction is altered, and images are thrown too far back (behind the retina) unless objects are at some distance from the eyes. Correction of old-sight is obtained by using convex glasses, which bring the rays of light from objects sooner to a focus. It is well to begin to use glasses as soon as the need of them is felt, but not to have them any stronger than is necessary at the time. Oculists are now very exact about this adjustment. Moreover, one en so often older (so to speak) than the other. When this is so, a differently focused glass should be chosen, after careful trial, for each eye.

Prolapsus Ani. A falling of the last part of the lower bowel through the outlet (anus). This is most common in children, from straining too long at stool. The gut can be replaced, with well oiled or larded fingers. The child should then not be allowed to strain when the bowels are moved. A high sent or chair will be best to prevent this. Only bad or long-standing cases will require surgical treatment; possibly, a few, an operation.

Prolapsus Uteri. Falling of the Womb. See Women, Diseases of.

Prurigo. Itching, as a continued disorder. See Skin Diseases.

Pseudo-membranous Croup. See Croup.

Psoriasis. A scaly disease. See Skin Diseases.

Puerperal Fever. An acute malady of mothers, beginning not many days after delivery. First there is a chill; then heat of skin, with a very rapid pulse; pair and tenderness, often swelling, of the abdomen; vomiting; in bad cases, delirinm and collapse. About half the cases of it are fatal, within a week or ten days. Post-mortem examination shows, in most instances, the results of peritonitis. But, besides that (and inflammation of other parts, as the womb, abdominal veins, and lymphatic vessels), in Pnerperal Fever there are evidences of a general blood-disease, of which the peritoneal inflammation is a secondary symptom—as sore throat is in scarlet fever, bronchitis in measles, etc.

Causation of Pherperal Fever is traceable to foulness: of the air, as in hospitals; of contagion, when carried by a physician or nurse from one patient to another; of decay, when perfect (vaginal) cleanliness of the person is not maintained after delivery. In the last of these cases, at least, absorption of foul material, from decomposition, is inferred, producing septicæmia. Some physicians consider all cases of this disease to be varieties of septicæmia; others regard it as an entirely specific disease.

In the places of its prevalence, it resembles erysipelas. It is at times endemic in lying-in hospitals, where a number of women are confined together. Worst, in predisposing to this, is the conjunction or nearness of such a hospital or ward to a surgical hospital. Practitioners find, from experience, that there is a risk in going from attendance on cases of erysipelas, as well as from those of Puerperal Fever, to attend in the lying-in chamber. If obliged to do this, physicians and nurses lessen the danger to those under their care by changing all their clothing, and washing their hands very thoroughly in solution of corrosive sublimate, chlorinated soda, or solution of carbolic acid. Puerperal Fever is sometimes epidemic in large cities; never in the open country.

Treatment of so serious a disease is never properly left to merely domestic care. It may, therefore, be said here only that, like other endemic and epidemic diseases, it does not bear reducing measures, such as bleeding from the arm, as single (sporadic) cases of peritonitis usually do; that poulticing the abdomen first, and blistering it afterwards, are as safe as any measures in its management; and that in its prevention, as well as treatment, washing out the vagina twice or thrice daily with a cleansing solution (lime-water, or glycerin, or corrosive sublimate solution, one part in 2000 of water) is very important. Of course, perfect rest

in bed is necessary throughout the attack, the bed-pan being used with as little motion as possible. The diet must be liquid, but concentrated in nourishing strength, for the support of the patient's system.

Purpura. A singular disease, in which, from a sort of leakage of blood from the small vessels, spots of various sizes, at first red, afterwards purple, brown, or yellow, form on parts or nearly the whole of the body. In a few cases actual hemorrhage from the skin takes place. There may be fever at first; afterwards prostration. The disorder is not without danger to life.

Causation of Purpura is obscure. The blood must be in fault; but some things tend to show that the state of the nervous system has much to do with the disorder. It is not likely to occur in a person whose general condition is that of balance of the different functions, as well as of tone and strength. Purpura is not the same thing as scurry. In that disease there may be purple spots over the body; but other symptoms also occur in it, and it is distinctly traceable to a fault of the blood from deficiency of some of the needful materials of food. (See Scurvy.)

In treatment of Purpura, the condition of the patient must be considered. As a general statement, the medicines most worthy of confidence for it are tincture of chloride of iron, aromatic sulphuric acid, quinine, and ergot. Nourishing liquid diet (milk, beef-tea, chicken-broth, etc.) will be required. When the skin comes off over the purple patches, it will need protection, as by double layers of adhesive-plaster, or buckskin spread with soap plaster. Sponging the unbroken parts of the skin with aluni-water, or whisky and water, will help to lessen the tendency to blood-leakage. When real hemorrhage from the skin occurs, death may be anticipated, with a bare hope of exceptional recovery.

Pyæmia. Literally, purulent blood; pus in the blood. When a vein is inflamed, or any part of the body undergoes suppuration, from which pus may be taken up by one or more veins, it may be deposited elsewhere; as in the lungs, liver, or under the skin, forming abscesses. This state of things is denominated Pyæmia. Its symptoms are: chills; low fever; rapid but feeble pulse; vomiting; delirinm; swelling of the joints; and "gatherings," with formation and discharge of pus, in the lungs, liver, neck, face, armpit, or elsewhere. These symptoms are very much the same as those of septicamia (blood-poisoning from matter of decay) except in regard to the formation of gatherings or deposits of pass. There does not seem to be any practically important difference between these two affections: although the causation of septicæmia has, so to speak, more opportunities than Pyæmia.

The treatment of Pyæmia is always attended by discouragement.

The aim of it is, to support the patient's energy in the struggle of nature to get rid of the intruding and disturbing matter. Quinine, concentrated liquid food, and alcoholic stimulation carefully regulated, are our dependence. Each abscess as it forms must, of course, have its own management. Pure air to breathe is very important in the care of cases of Pysemia.

Pyrosis. Water-brash. See Dyspepsia.

Tonsillitis; inflammation of one or both of the tonsils. These are small glands, one on each side of the upper part (threshoid, as it were; called the fauces in Anatomy) of the throat. These glands swell when inflamed, and grow red, sore, and painful. Swallowing gives much distress; and even speaking may do so. In a very bad case, one or both tonsils may be so enlarged as almost to check breathing. In a few days, suppuration is likely to occur; and when the gathered tonsil breaks and discharges its matter, relief at once follows.

Tonsillitis appears to have the same causation as common "sore throat," namely, "catching cold;" but some persons are much more liable to it than others. Those whose tonsils are large from infaney not unfrequently have several repeated attacks. Physicians sometimes cut off n large part of a permanently swollen tonsil, to get rid of such a tendency or habit. This is a simple and scarcely painful operation when the tonsil is not inflamed at the time.

Treatment of Quinsy is essentially that of a "cold" with sore throat, Give a good dose of a saline cathartic; citrate of magnesium, Rochelle salts, Tarrant's aperient, or, if the patient be robust, Epsom salts. Make some flaxseed lemonade, and let the patient drink a little and often of Gargle the throat (gently) with alum-water, or tincture of myrrh in water, or hot strong tea (an excellent gargle), three or four times a day. Bathe the throat repeatedly with soap liniment to which water or spirit of ammovia (a tablespoonful in four ounces) has been added. If it is evident that a tonsil is going to "gather" (suppurate), poultice the neck with flaxseed-meal. When spontaneous opening is delayed, and the swelling in the throat is alarming, a physician may think it best to make an incision to let out the matter. No unprofessional person, of course, will undertake that operation.

For enlarged tonsils, not acutely inflamed, various applications are used to "shrink them up;" not always with much success. Nitrate of silver has always disappointed me in this employment of it. Strong solution of tannin or glycerole of tannin may do better; but I doubt whether anything short of the "guillotine" operation, above mentioned, is likely to have more effect in this way than will follow from frequently gargling the throat with simple ice-water.

Rabies. Rabies Canina; canine madness; Hydrophobia (which see). Red Gum. A queer nursery name for a rosy redness over parts or the whole of the body of an infant, with more or less of a pimply eruption. Starch or arrow-root powder and oxide of zino ointment are suitable applications for it, with magnesia if its bowels are costive, lime-water if it has diarrhea. Indigestion is a common provocative cause of this affection, which physicians call strophulus, or lichen strophulus.

Relapsing Fever. This disease, which none of my readers are likely to see, is almost described by its name. There is a continued fever for from five to eight days; with headache, vomiting, constipation, perhaps yellowness of the skin, pains in the back and limbs. Then comes a copious perspiration, and the fever goes off. But, on the four-teenth day from the beginning of the attack, the fever returns (relapses), and lasts for another time of from three to eight days. About one in ten, or a less proportion, of white persons, and a larger number of

colored patients, die of the disease.

Relapsing Fever has been called defamine fever," because it so generally occurs as an epidemic or endemic among the poorest and worst situated classes in large cities; often in Northern Europe; a few times only in New York and Philadelphia. In its treatment, a mild saline purgative medicine will be proper at the beginning. If headache is severe, dry cups may be applied to the back of the neck. Citrate of potassium or acetate of ammonium in solution will answer well through the fever period to lower the temperature and promote perspiration. During the remission of the fever, moderate doses of quinine (ten or twelve grains in the course of a day) will be appropriate for tonic effect. Quinine has been shown to be not capable in this fever, as it is in intermittent, of preventing the coming of the relapse. In the second fever, weakness may be so great with some patients as to require concentrated liquid food and alcoholic stimulation or support.

Remittent Fever. Autumnal Remittent; Bilious Remitting Fever. This is one form of malarial fever (see Ague); differing from intermittent in that the fever does not go off (intermit) during the attack, but only remits or lessens in violence, to return in full force within a few

hours.

Remittent Fever generally, but not always, begins with a chill. Then follow all the symptoms of fever; headache, flushed face, hot dry skin, rapid and rather full but soft pulse, thirst, constipation of the bowels, scanty, high-colored urine. Vomiting is common; delirium occurs in bad cases; yellowness of the skin after a few days is not unusual. The remissions come generally in the morning, but sometimes late in the

day; seldom at night, at least before midnight. In them the fever does not go off, but the pulse becomes slower, the skin less hot, and perhaps a little moist; the headache is lighter, thirst less intense, the breathing slower. So the attack may continue for a number of days. How long it would run without being interrupted by treatment, I do not know. All the cases I have seen were broken and cured by quinine, which is the remedy here, as it is in intermittent fever.

In treatment, begin with a good, though not too large, dose of saline cathartic medicine (does the doctor begin everything with such a dose? Well, yes; nearly so, and with good reason, sustained by experience), as citrate of magnesium, Rochelle salts, etc. Then during the height of the fever give, every two hours, citrate of potassium solution (neutral mixture, or effervescing draught; see pp. 307, 311). On the beginning of the first remission begin to put in quinine; two grains every two hours, while the patient is awake—until a full remission comes, with free perspiration, and copious or at least considerable discharge of urine. Then lessen the dose of quinine to one grain every two hours; and after another day get it down to eight grains a day; this may be continued on for two or three weeks with advantage.

Plenty of cold water to drink will be important during the fever heat. If vomiting is troublesome, ice, a little very often, will agree best with the stomach. Lemonade or orange-juice is generally acceptable. Food can only be taken in small quantities, and in the liquid state; oatmeal gruel, toast-water, milk with lime-water, etc. For the vomiting, a spice-plaster will be good, or a piece of flannel wet with essence of ginger, laid over the pit of the stomach and covered with oiled silk.

If any one should be (as may happen, as Remittent is a country, not a city disease) caught in charge of a case of this malady without a physician, the above described treatment will be pretty sure to carry the patient through. There are, no doubt, especially in some intensely malarious places, as South Carolina rice plantations, or tropical "jungles," fatal cases of Remittent Fever. But I never saw one, although the disease has not, until during the last few years, been rare in the suburbs and rural vicinity of Philadelphia. I have met with a few tedious cases, requiring some variation of treatment; but the consideration of such may be left for more extended medical works. Complications of Remittent Fever, such as pneumonia, inflammation of the brain, etc., require treatment (besides the use of quinine) appropriate to each of the special complicating affections present. Convalescence from the attack will be likely to call for building up, with iron, etc. Change of air, especially if frost has not yet come, will be highly important. Whoever has had one attack of malarial fever in a place had better

get out of it as soon as practicable, and never go back to it. It is quite possible to survive a number of such attacks; but they are sure to in-

jure, and may ruin, the constitution for life.

Retention of Urine. The most frequent cause of this, in men, is stricture of the urethra, through which passage the urine passes out from the bladder. For this there must be surgical treatment, including the use of the catheter (see Nursing), the consideration of which would be

out of place here. See pages 251, 304.

Women sometimes have retention of urine within a short time after childbirth, from pressure on the neck of the bladder. A catheter may have to be used for this. Hysterical women also occasionally suffer from such retention. In either sex, it may occur as a symptom of low fever, as typhus or typhoid fever. It should be thought of and examined for, in all low states of the system. If very little or no water be passed, ascertain whether there is fulness or moderate swelling at the lower part of the abdomen. Percuss there (tapping upon one finger, laid on the part, with the tip of another) to find whether it gives a clear or dull sound. If the latter, a catheter should be introduced carefully into the bladder to draw off the water; and, if water comes through it, this should be done twice in twenty-four hours. If no water comes, there is suppression of urine, which is worse than retention; a very unfavorable sign in any disease.

Now and then we meet with cases of spasmodic retention of urine, from irritation of the bladder or its outlet, for which locally tranquillizing measures are found to be relieving. Such are, sitting in a warm hip-bath; applying cloths wrung out of hot water to the genitals and the lower part of the abdomen; an opium suppository (a grain of opium in a small piece of cacao butter), or a laudannm injection (thirty or forty drops of laudanum in half an ounce of starch), by means of a

small syringe, into the bowels.

Retina, Detachment of. The Retina (see Anatomy) is the extremely delicate membrane at the back of the interior chamber of the eye. Upon it, as upon the "sensitive plate" of the photographer's apparatus, the images fall, by means of which we see objects. It may be partially or almost entirely loosened from the tissue behind it:

1. By apoplexy (effusion of blood) of the eyeball.

2. By dropsical effusion in the same region.

3. By inflammatory action (retinitis) resulting in degenerative change.

4. By slow degeneration, not caused or preceded by inflammation.

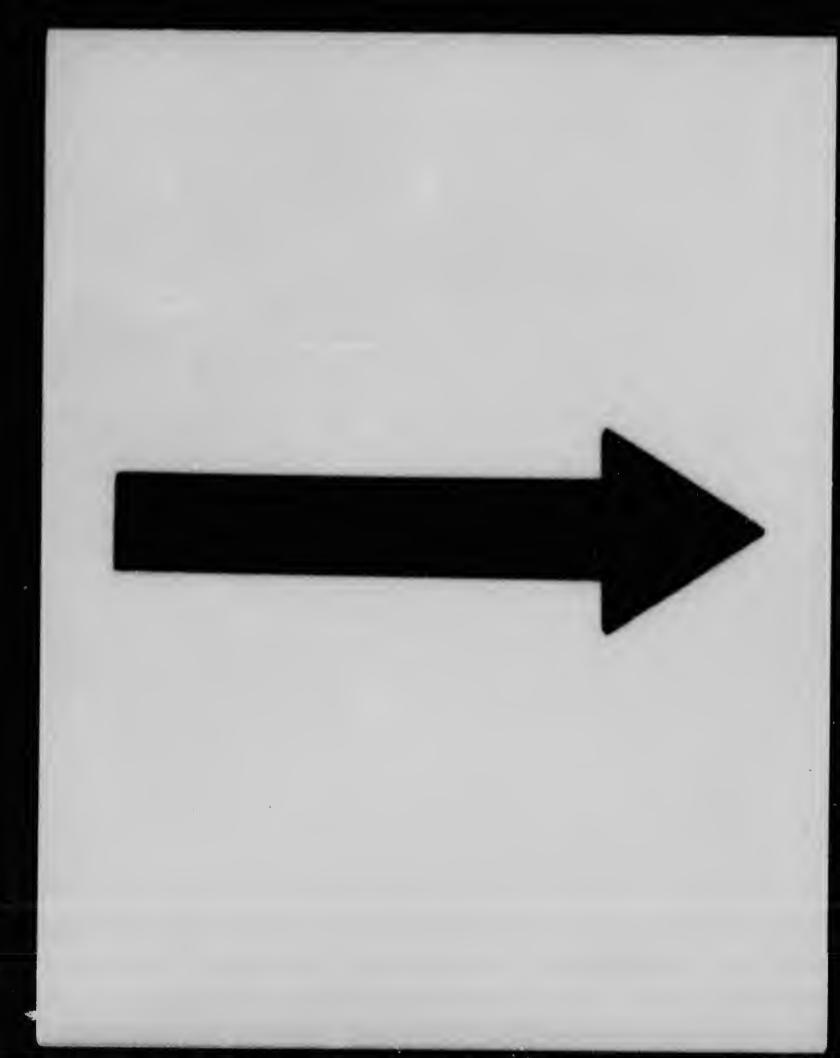
The retina being indispensable to sight, any degree of its detachment must impair vision; and a large extent of such a change must cause actual blindness. This, as an effect, makes itself known at once; but the cause of the blindness can be made certain only by examination of the eye with an ophthalmoscope. Retinal detachment is, as a general fact, incurable. Only in rare instances will the loosened fragments be dissolved in the vitreous humor, and a partial repair of the damaged part of the retina take place, so as to suffice for tolerable sight. Such a result is never, in any case, to be expected.

Rheumatism. This name is commonly given to at least two kinds of complaints: slow, chronic, non-inflammatory Rheumatism of the muscles, and acute, febrile, inflammatory Rheumatism of the larger joints. The latter is much the more serious disease.

Inflammatory Rheumatism only occurs in certain individuals and families. It appears to be brought on by exposure to cold and wet, and yet it is not uncommonly met with in summer. One joint after another, or several at once, are upt to be affected; the wrists, elbows, knees, and ankles all in turn or together swell, become hot, painful, and tender to the touch. Fever is present, with a rapid, full, and rather hard pulse, and high heat of skin; although moisture may be present at the same time. The great danger of this disorder is, the liability to heart inflammation as a part of it; endocarditis (within the heart) or pericarditis (outside of the heart). (See Heart, Diseases of.) The attack often lasts three, four, or six weeks; sometimes longer yet; and its effects, in crippling the joints, or damaging the heart, may continue through a lifetime.

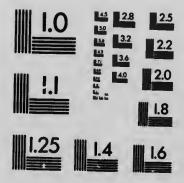
Treatment of Inflammatory Rheumatism is in part general and in part local. If in a gouty constitution, colchicum will do good in shortening the attack. Otherwise, the two remedies in which physicians now have the most confidence are alkalies (potassa and soda) and salicylic acid. The two may be very well combined; and so the attack may generally be abridged to one or two weeks' duration, with much less suffering. (For doses of salicylic acid and salicylate of sodium, see page 347.) Care is requisite in using such powerful medicines, which are not well adapted for domestic practice. Overdosing with salicylic acid is poisonous.

Local treatment of the inflamed joints has for its intention the relief of pain. Cotton wadding, rubber-cloth covering, and laudanum are the most effective applications for this purpose. My preferred plan is to lay over the painful joint a soft rag wet with laudanum, and bind gently over this a piece of oiled silk. This will generally lull the pain very much. Some limit to the amount of laudanum used is necessary, as it is partly absorbed through the skin. A patient of mine once thus covered all his large joints with laudanum, and in consequence slept most of the time for two days. With children, such outside anodyne



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Chronic muscular Rheumatism (sometimes stiffening also the joints) is quite a different disorder from the above. It is unfortunate, indeed, for them to go by the same name.

In ordinary language, every pain, soreness, or stiffness of muscles or joints is called rheumatie. The first effect of a draught of cold air upon the shoulder or back of a person sitting or lying still, is pain. Next, soreness and stiffness on motion of the part. "Stiff neck" is a familiar example of this. It becomes inflamed in many cases; but this is a local inflammation, without fever, and not flying from part to part, as in acute Inflammatory Rheumatism. (Gouty subjects, it is true, have sometimes flying rheumatic pains; a mixture of complaints, constituting gouty rheumatism; which does not receive enough attention in many medical books. See Gout.)

When such an attack begins, as the result of coid, heat is its natural and effectual remedy. Sitting near a hot grate or stove, or applying a (not too) hot flat-iron or bag of hot water to the part, will, if resorted to early enough, often give prompt relief. Should such measures not succeed at once, however, there will be no gain in continuing them long. Bathing with soap liniment, with or without the addition of other things (as ammonia, oil of sassafras, and laudanum; see Remedies) will then come in place. Warming-plusters may follow, and, lastly, protecting the susceptible parts with flannel, etc., from the renewed action of cold. If there be any tinge of gout in flying rheumatic attacks, oil of cajuput (six or eight drops on a lump of sugar, three times a day for a day or two) will prove an excellent remedy.

As a local protective to an affected joint, some patients find a simple covering of thin india-rubber to answer well. Dr. John K. Mitchell, of Philadelphia, many years ago, pointed out that rheumatism often, if not generally, centres in the spine. Accordingly, I have repeatedly known the application of a dozen dry eups (left on fifteen or twenty minutes), or a large mustard-plaster, along the back, on each side of the backbone, to do good, even when the pains were only in the limbs. Chronie rheumatism may be, especially in old people, a tedious affair.

There is a much more formidable affection of the joints, sometimes met with in persons past middle life, best named by physicians arthritis deformans, but also called, much less accurately, rheumatic gout. In this, one joint after another becomes stiff, deformed, and useless; the patient getting to be at last altogether helpless. This is an incurable disease. (See, also, White Swelling, of the Knee.)

Rickets. A disease consisting chiefly of imperfect development of

the bones, with general debility; common among the children of the poor in the great cities of Europe, but rare in America. The bones are brittle; the spine becomes curved and the limbs crooked; the teeth fall out with early decay. Convulsions are not unfrequent, and the child so affected seldom lives long. The treatment of Rickets is, in a word, building up, if possible, the constitution of the child, which is failing and dying from insufficient nourishment.

Ringworm. A rounded patch of diseased skin, most common in children. See Skin Diseases.

Roseola. See Skin Diseases.

Rötheln. German Measles; sometimes called French Measles; see Measles.

Rubcola. One of the old medical names for measles; now confined by some authors to rötheln or German measles.

Rupia. A scabby disease of the skin. See Skin Diseases.

Rupture. Hernia; a protrusion of a portion of intestine, or of its covering (peritoneum) through a natural or unnatural opening.

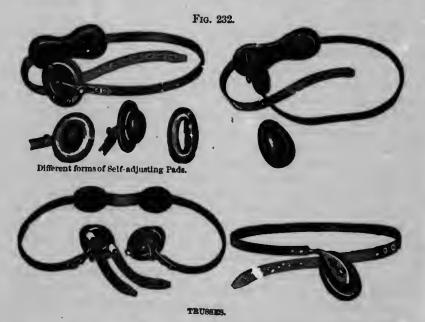
There are three places through which a Rupture is most likely to take place: at the groin; just below the groin; and at the navel. These are called by physicians inguinal, femoral, and umbilical hernia, respectively. Navel (umbilical) rupture is met with in newborn babes, and in women who have had children; seldom in men. The most common kind of all is inguinal hernia. In this a knuckle of bowel, or a portion of peritoneum, is forced out (by straining at stool, riding hard on horseback, or some severe muscular effort) through two successive openings, called the internal and external rings. These, in man, are naturally penetrated by the spermatic cord. (See Anatomy.) When a part so protruding is not soon returned and kept in its place, the rings are stretched; and more and more of the Lowel comes down. If still neglected, at last it becomes irreducible. Persons have been known to have a bag of this kind hanging down almost to their knees.

The proper thing is, for a rupture to be reduced as soon as it is discovered; and then a truss should be worn. This is a spring belt made to go around the body, with a pad fitting over the rings, so as to plug them up, so to speak, and prevent the parts from coming out after being replaced. This will seldom cure the trouble, but it prevents much inconvenience from it. A truss must be made to fit well, or it is worse than none. It should be worn all the time except while lying down.

Ruptures are not free from serious danger if neglected. When a portion of bowel is pushed out through one or both of the "inguinal rings," or, a little lower down, in the "femoral" region, or at the navel, it may become swollen by gas, or by accumulation from constipation. This may

cause it to be strangulated at one of the rings or other outlets. The circulation of blood in the gut being thus stopped, the part outside may mortify, and this is, in most cases, the cause of the ratient's death.

When a rupture threatens to be so choked or strangulated, it is of the number consequence for it to be at once reduced, if possible. Gentle pressure, to work it in again, as common sense suggests, and as tact may succeed in doing, is the need of the case. It will not do to be violent about it; that would make things worse. If it won't be coaxed in, then (if the doctor has not arrived and may not soon come) a warm bath, for twenty minutes, may be tried; manipulating carefully while the patient



is in the bath. On coming out, let some one lift the patient's heels far above his head; and while he is so held, let another coax again at the rupture. Other measures will be most safely left for professional skill. If the protruded part will not go back, the last resort is a surgical operation; nicking the tight place at the neck of the tumor, so as to release it from the stricture and enable it to be returned. This may save life, but will not always be in time to prevent mortification, ending either in death or in recovery with an artificial opening at the place of rupture; an extremely annoying result, lasting through life unless itself relieved by subsequent surgical treatment.

Umbilical rupture in a newborn child is generally curable by early

treatment with a compress, acting like the pad of a truss. The compress may be made of soft rag of any kind, cut and folded so as to press steadily upon the part which protrudes at the navel. When rightly adjusted, it may be kept in place by adhesive-plasters, aided by a band, moderately tight, around the hody. If the skin is irritable, the compress should be covered with simple cerate or vaseline when applied.

Scables. Ilch. See Skin Discases.
Scald Head. Ringworm. See Skin Discases.

Scarlatina; Scarlet Fever. With physicians, these mean the same thing. In popular langua the former term is sometimes applied only to the mildest attacks, with very little fever. The disease is contagious, and usually occurs but once in a lifetime; most generally during child-hood. It is seldom, however, seen in infants under three months of age.

First symptoms of an attack of Scarlet Fever are, headache, weakness, and sore throat. Children may have vomiting; in severe cases, convulsions. The throat, on being examined, is of au intense red color. The tongue often looks like a ripe strawberry; red, with whitish spots over its surface. Heat of the body increases; the bowels are constipated; the pulse grows more rapid, and towards the end of the second day the red rash comes out. It begins commonly on the face, but soon spreads all over the body. It is very red; almost briek-red; the skin is swollen; there are no patches (as in measles); but, on looking closely, it is seen to be made up of tiny points or pimples, close together. The skin is hot and dry, and feels burning to the patient. Thirst is great; it is a condition of high fever. The throat becomes painfully sore and swollen, within and without. If all goes on pretty well, this state of things lasts with but little change for three or four days, and then gradually subsides through several days more. When the fever has quite gone, the outer skin begins to peel or scale off. Sometimes almost a whole finger-cover will come away at a time, like the finger of a glove.

After the beginning of convalescence, on slight exposure to cold, or even in some cases without this, the kidneys case to act well, and dropsy comes on. This is shown by puffiness of the face and swelling of the legs and feet. Worse will be dropsy of the chest or of the head; of either of which patients may die. Even a mild attack of the fever has this danger left after it.

But Scarlet Fever, though recovered from in the large majority of cases, is far from being always mild; and it is especially uncertain all through its course. Besides the possibility of general exhaustion in feeble infants, there are two kinds of peril attending the attack. One is, of great severity of the throat inflammation. This may ulcerate, or suppurate, or may otherwise fairly worry out the patient's strength. If recovery comes, the disease may have reached the ears, leaving deafness behind it.

The other and greatest danger is, of what is called malignancy in the attack. A malignant case is generally a bad one from the start; but now and then it seems to take a sudden change for the worse. The rash does not come out, or, after appearing, it grows pale again. The

child is cold instead of feverish; its pulse flutters or almost disappears; or it becomes stupid, comatose, not capable of being roused. In the extremest cases, it is from the first like one stunned or struck by light-

ning, and may die within twelve or twenty-four hours.

Treatment of Scarlet Fever must be upon the recognized principle that we have no specific remedy with which to cut it short or "cure it." It has its course to run, and we are to get the patient through with as little damage as we can. A mild or average case requires little active treatment. A good dose of saline purgative medicine (always that, doctor?) at the start, or at least as so n as the fever becomes hot, will be an important thing. My father, who had an immense experience, during a large practice for fifty years, used to say that "many of the troubles towards the end of cases of Scarlet Fever and other allied diseases came from neglect of evacuating and depleting treatment at the beginning." By evacuation he meant purgation; by depletion, bleeding, or leeching to the throat. In my early practice (before 1860), I bled six children ill with Scarlet Fever. They all recovered beautifully. I gave up this practice, not from conviction, but simply in concession to the pressure in the medical profession against bloodletting, especially in such diseases. But early purging I do not give up; believing that, as a means not only of cooling fever but of elimination (getting rid of foul matter in the blood), it is of great consequence in all such disorders.

Firther, for the fever, plenty of cold water to drink should be given. A part of it may be in the form of iced flaxseed lemonade. Ice itself will be very comfortable to the throat. Also, solution of citrate of potassium, with or without effervescence, a dose every two or three hours,

as a cooling diaphoretic. (See Remedies, pages 307, 311.)

For the throat, the early use of something to act as an alterative, changing the specific inflammation to an ordinary sore throat, is reasonable. The old-fashioned gargle for that was of cayenne pepper and vinegar (hot for hot; coals to put out a fire!); it is not a bad prescription. Physicians oftener use solution of nitrate of silver (from four to ten grains to the ounce of water) applied with a camel's-hair peneil. I believe in he value of early leeching (American leeches) when there is much heat and swelling of the throat. If not, free greasing with lard (some people tie a solid piece of pork around the neck; rather heavy, I think) will do some good.

For the inflamed skin, the eruption, frequent sponging or otherwise gently bathing with cold or cool water will give the most relief. Lard, vaseline, and glycerin are also used for this purpose; but I believe cool water to be the best. The last thing at night, lard, tallow, or cold cream

may be rubbed over the face, arms, and legs, if the irritation of the skin is great.

What is to be done in malignant cases? If the attending physician agrees with my judgment, he will, if the rash does not come out, or "goes in" again, the skin being cool, and pale or dark-red, and the pulse weak, have the patient put into a hot bath, in which some salt has been dissolved. Then he will give, if the child can swallow, camphor, ammonia, Hoffmann's anodyne, or whisky (one or more of these), as quick stimulants, to bring about reaction, which gives the only hope of life. If stupor is present, the bowels, as is then apt to be the case, being unopened, he will give a strong cathartie, as jalap; with a directic, as squills. I am sure I saved the life of one child, comatose for thirty-six hours, by giving it powders containing each a grain of squills with three grains of jalap. Purgatior followed, and the brain was relieved; after which there was no further trouble. This was rather large dosing, but the case was desperate. Not many recoveries from malignant Scarlet Fever take place, whichever form it assumes.

The dropsy after Scarlet Fever results from the poisonous effect of the disease on the kidneys. The urine, in such a case, is scanty and bloody; or at least tinged with blood. This is an unfavorable sign. Most physicians will apply either a mustard poultice or dry cups to the back, to draw blood from the congested kidneys. Of diurctics, to increase the flow of urine, digitalis and sweet spirit of nitre are then the most suitable. A warm bath, also, may assist to promote perspiration; the skin taking a part of the needful work of the kidneys during their oppression.

I have said that Scarlet Fever is contagious. There is no doubt of this: although it misses taking, in those exposed to it, oftener than measles or whooping-cough. It elings, however, a long time to rooms where patients have been sick with it; sometimes for months, unless much care has been taken to cleanse, ventilate, and disinfect everything. When the patient is well, say four weeks from the beginning of the attack, the peeling of the skin being pretty much over, let him have a daily warm (not hot) bath; in a warm room, and being quickly dried after it, to avoid the risk of taking cold. As soon as he can leave his room, let him wear clothing that was not in the room during the sickness. Let every article that was worn during the illness be boiled thoroughly (unless it be burned instead). Let the blankets be scoured, and hung all day in the sun and air, for two or three days. Carpet or mats in the room should be taken up and heaten, and then sunne, and aired abundantly. Curtains or other hangings should be treated in a similar way: and lastly, sulphur should be burned in the room (everybody leaving it, the windows and doors being then shut) so as to fumigate and

disinfect the walls, ceiling, and floor thoroughly. Why so much trouble? Because, although nineteen cases in twenty of Scarlet Fever end in recovery, the twentieth may die, and they are all, as has been said, very neertain. It is worth while taking a great deal more pains to avoid getting Scarlet Fever than it is measles or whooping-cough.

Sciatica. Pain, seated in the sciatic nerve; which runs along in the posterior central region of the lower extremity. See Neuralgia.

Sclerosis. Hardening of any tissue of the body from disease. It has been most carefully studied by physicians as it occurs in affections of the spinal marrow. Full account of it is given in all recent treatises on the Practice of Medicine; but it is too pathological a subject for this work.

Scorbutus. See Scurvy.

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Scrivener's Palsy. Loss of power in the right hand from incessant use of the fingers in writing. Conveyancers, bookkeepers, reporters, etc., occasionally suffer from it. The cause being exhaustion of certain muscles, the treatment must be total rest of those muscles; to which may be added, the stimulus of pouring hot water over the forearm and hand, three or four times a day, for a few minutes at a time.

Scrofula. Struma of old medical books; King's Evil, formerly, in popular language. A superstition existed, even as late as the time of Charles II. of England, that the touch of a King's hand would enre this disease. Dr. Samuel Johnson, when a boy, was taken by his parents to get the benefit of this royal remedy.

Scrofula is hereditary in certain families. It is promoted by living in close houses, with insufficient clothing and poor food. But, once established, it may descend to children and grandchildren, even under comfortable circumstances. It is shown by sore eyes, sore nose, running at the ears, swollen glands of the neck, armpit, and groin, and disease of the bones of the arm or leg, or hip-joint complaint (coxalgia), or white-swelling of the knee; also, by a predisposition to scrofulous or tuberculous meningitis, a generally incurable affection of the brain. Not every scrofulous child has nearly all of these symptoms, but some of them may always be observed as indicating this "diathesis."

The treatment of Scrofula must be partly constitutional, and partly in adaptation to the local and special symptoms. Leaving the latter for the present, it may be said that the best possible surroundings and other conditions of healthy living are of the greatest importance towards getting rid of this taint of the system. Warm enough clothing, nourishing food (milk a staple, with cream and all), pure air, and out-of-door exercise, never carried to great fatigue. Of medicines, cod-liver oil, iodine, iron, and iodoform have shown the best reason for confidence in antager

onizing the tendencies of Scrofula. It is so slow a thing in its progress, that there will always be time to obtain medical advice about it in every case.

Scurvy. Before Captain Cook sailed around the world, this was a common affliction of navigators, land explorers, especially in cold climates, and invading armies at a distance from their homes. This famous namesake of the "Tonrist's Guide" of to-day found that the lack of fresh vegetable food caused Scurvy, and abundant confirmation of his discovery has been furnished since. Drs. Kane and Hayes suffered from it on their Arctic expeditions; the British and French troops in the rimea, in their war against Russia; and many other examples of the same causation have been known in recent times.

Scurvy, when completely developed, has these characters: the mouth is sore, the gums being soft, sv. Hen, tender, and bleeding easily; the legs are enlarged behind the knee, with a rather hard fibrous deposit there; the skin is blotched with red or purple blood deposits on the limbs, breast, or abdomen; appetite is lost, digestion is very poor; there is palpitation of the heart, with great general debility. Unless relieved, this goes on in a few weeks to a fatal end. Many cases occur, however, in which some only of these symptoms are present. The mouth soreness, which, when it exists, is very striking and peculiar, may be absent altogether. So it was with those remarkable cases (of which I saw a considerable number in an army hospital) brought home from McClellan's Peninsular campaign in Virginia in 1862. They had no swelling of the gums at all, but they had purple blotches on their bodies and limbs, were wasted almost to skeletons, and had scarcely any power of digestion left when they reached Philadelphia. Also, they all suffered with bad dysenteric diarrhoea.

Prevention of Scurvy is implied in what has just been said. No one can long preserve good health with..., nearly every day, taking some food of vegetable origin. Scurvy is always liable to take place when some fresh vegetable foo! (or that which, in sealed caus, keeps some quality of freshness) is not taken at least every few days. Fatigue, exposure to cold, and worry, as homesickness or discouragement, promote the effect of this deficiency of diet. In owadays, sea-captains, leaders of exploring expeditions, and military commanders, usually take much pains to keep or obtain supplies of potatoes, turnips, onions, or fruit, as oranges and lemons, to prevent their men when away from home from getting scurvy. Even desiccated (dried) potatoes have seemed to answer this purpose for some time. In the Arctic zone, fresh frozen meat has proved better than that which, even with ice, has been long kept.

Treatment of Scurvy is, in toto, essentially the application of the same

principle—furnishing an abundance of fresh regulable food. We plied our men in hospital from the Army of the Potomae with lemonade, oranges, grapes, potatoes, etc.; articles which, with ordinary diarrhean, would probably have finished them all. Most of them recovered; a few had no digestive or blood-making power left, and so wasted away and died within ten days of two weeks of their arrival from the field.

Sea-Sickness. A prize may well be effered for the discovery of a sure remedy for that! Having suffered from it nine ont of ten weeks at sea, this is said by the author feelingly. There is no need of a description of this malady; the word nausca comes right from it in the Greek. Medicines for Sea-sickness I have not tried, unless mineral water (carbonic acid water, "soda" water) be called such. This, a little at a time, with ice, helped me considerably. I doubt whether anything else is better.

Advisers on ship-board. Ifler on the question whether one should "give up" to Sea-siekness, or stud up and fight it out. There was no such question with me. Down I must go; and I advise every victim of sea-siekness to lie down till he is better. It is true, fresh air is very reviving; and the air on deck is much better than down below; but to obtain benefit from it, one should be wrapped warmly, carried up, and laid down on the deck.

Of drugs, cocaine, chloral, and bromide of potassium have had the recommendation recently of some physicians. Also, Dr. John Chapman's ice-bags to the spine have obtained a masure of reputation for this complaint. But it continues yet to be, like boils and hydrophobia, an "opprobrium" of the medical profession.

Seat-Worms. See Worms, and Santonin, p. 347.

Septæmia; Septicæmia. Though the shorter of these words was earliest proposed, the longer term is still the most used. It means tainting of the blood by produ of decay. Sepsis is organic decomposition, putrefaction; an antiseptic is something which prevents or retards such changes.

In the greatest number of cases, at least, under observation, the septic matter enters the blood by absorption from a part of the body, at or near the surface, in which decay is going on at the time. A wound not healing well; an absect 3, not timely emptied of its discharge; the strained and partly torn tissues of a mother, shortly after the delivery of her child, in contact with which ecomposing material is left: these are examples of the origination of Septicemia. How does it differ from pyoemia? In my judgment, the symptoms are essentially the same, except that in the latter pus is conveyed and deposit all in different places in the body, forming a number of abscesses; which, in simple Septicemia, do not occur. President Garfield, therefore, we say, died with

(hardly of, for his wound was mortal in any event) pymmia. This, I would say, is Septicamia plus the formation of local deposits of pus.

Symptoms of Septicemia are, repeated chills; fever, with a very rapid but feeble pulse; vomiting; delirium; great debility; cold sweats; sometimes swelling of the larger joints. Treatment of it (having no special remedy to confide in) we may leave to the physicians; remarking merely, that the purest air possible is both preventive of and, if anything can be, helpful in Septicemia; that concentrated liquid food, a little and often, by the bowel if the stomach cannot accept it, is appropriate; and that quinine, ammonia, and careful alcoholic stimulation are reasonably given with a view to supporting the sadly flickering flame of life.

Shaking Palsy. Paralysis Agitans. See Paralysis.

Shingles. Herpes Zoster. See Skin Diseases.

Ship Fever. See Typhus Fever. Sick Headache. See Headache.

Skin Diseases. A full account of these might occupy a volume larger than this. Some definitions will be in place here, with general principles of management, and brief particular mention of those affections of the Skin likely to be met with in household experience.

Of various classifications of Skin Diseases I prefer this: Exanthemata, rashes: Erythema, Urticaria, Roseola.

Papulæ, pimples: Lichen, Strophulus.

Vesiculæ, watery eruptions: Eczema, Herpes, Pemphigus, Rupia.

Pustulse, restules: Ecthyma, Impetigo,

Squamæ, scaly liseases: Lepra, Psoriasis, Leprosy, P'vriasis, Pellagra, Ichthyosis.

Maculæ, spots: Ephelis, Vitiligo, Chloasma.

Hypertrophiæ, growths: Nævus, Clavus, Verruca, Eiephantiasis of the Arabs, Scleroderma.

Tubercula, tubercles: Acue, Molluscum, Lupus, Elephantiasis of the Greeks, Frambæsia, Keloid.

Hemorrhagiæ, blood-deposits; Purpura.

Neuroses, nervous affections of the Skin: Prurigo, Anæsthesia, Neuralgia.

Parasiticæ, parasitic diseases: Itch, Sycosis, Tinea, Pityriasis Versi-

color, Plica Poionica.

Sypnilida, syphilitic affections of the Skin.

Erythema is a common and not serious inflammation of the skin, of which a fair example is seen in "chapped" hands. This is prevented by always wiping the hands quickly and thoroughly dry in cold weather, after they have been in water. Cure of chapped hands

or face is effected by greasing them well and often with tallow, cold cream, or simple cerate. The same principle of treatment applies to other forms of Erythema; as that of infants' loins, etc., from want of earefulness in their inity toilet, and frost-bite (which see).

Urticaria is Nettle-Rash. Its cruption is in long or round red lumps or "wheals," which sometimes come and go with a few hours, and while they are present burn and sting very appleasantly. Indigestion is the most common provoking cause of Nettle-Rash. It lasts usually a week or two. Treatment, a dose of macrosin; light, cool, simple diet; starch-powder dusted on the wheals; wash with moderately cold vinegar and water, or glycerin and rose-water; oxide of zine ointment, etc.

Roscola is a dumask-red eruntion, in irregular patches, on the boty and limbs; without fever, at lasting usually but a few days. It has no relationship to scarlet fever, nor to rötheln or German mensles; although this last disorder is sometimes miscalled Roscola, even by physicians. This rash requires no treatment except what is suggested by the general state of the patient's system.

Strophulus is the "red gum," or small-pimply, red rash of early infancy. Starch or arrowroot powder and oxide of zinc ointment will be suitable in its treatment.

Lichen is the name for numerous small pimples on patients of any age. A mild form of it is sunburn, Lichen Tropicus. This may be treated like erythe...a or strophulus, as above mentioned.

Lichen Agrius is generally the result of neglected simple of denary Lichen. It may scab, erack, run and be very troublesome. The patient may need to be kept in bed, with poultices of bread or flaxseed to clean the sore parts, and then lime-water and oil dressing, followed afterwards by simple cerate, to heal them. It is generally worst on the legs and feet, or hands.

Eczema is now considered by physicians to take either, or successively all, the forms of eruption, pimples, water-blisters, pustules, and crusts or scabs; but through all its characteristic is that of an effusive inflammation of the skin. Its vesicles (water-blisters) are smaller than those of Herpes. Both of these are often, in popular language, called Tetter.

Herpes has larger water-blisters, though still not very large. Fever-blisters around the month are an example of Herpes. Shingles, Herpes Zoster, is a very curious but not common disease, in which a zone or girdle of inflamed vesicles goes half round the body at the waist, generally on the right side. Neuralgic pains attend this. It generally lasts but a week or two.

Herpes Circinatus is non-contagious ringworm. It is known from

Tinea Tonsurans, contagious ringworm, by having a great number of minute vesicles around the margin of the rings or round patches of which it consists.

Treatment of Eczema requires skill in the management of each case. Get a doctor to attend to it; sometimes it becomes chronic and tedious.

Milk Crust of infants (Crusta Lactea) is an example of it. The condition of the patient must be attended to; the stomach, the bowels, overfulness of blood or the reverse (anæmia). Clothing must not be too heavy, and must be changed often. Rooms must not be allowed to be hot and close. Food should be light and not rich (i. e., oily, fatty); easily digestible. If Eczema proves obstinate, arsenic is often prescribed for it; Fowler's solution (liquor potassii arsenitis), three drops at first, twice daily, increased two drops a day until ten drops twice daily are reached, interrupting its use if the patient has headache, sick stomach, diarrhæa, or puffiness of the face. Applications to the eczematous eruption may be: lime-water and oil; bran tea; flaxseed tea with soda in it; glycerin and rose-water (one part to four or five); etc. When chronic, some physicians keep the parts covered constantly (except daily washing with Castile soap, or lime-water) with light rubber-cloth. Others use adhesive-plaster all over it, with the same view of keeping out the air.

Treatment of Fever-blisters (Herpes Labiatis) about the lips may be by dusting with magnesia or applying cologne-water at the start, and afterwards, if they continue to return, calomel ointment (half a drachm of calomel to the ounce of cold cream).

Shingles may be treated with benzoated oxide of zinc ointment; to which, if there is much pain, opium may be added (five or ten grains to the ounce).

Ringworm (scald-head) of either variety will generally be cured by two or three applications of tar ointment at night (covering the part with a soft rag, and over that oiled silk or rubber-cloth), washed off in the morning with Castile soap and water.

Echyma consists of a few large pustules; Impetigo of a variable number of small pustules, scattered or in groups. In treatment of both of these, a good medicine early in the case will be wine of colchicum root ten drops, with wine of ipecac. as much, in water, three times a day (adult dose) for several days. If obstinate, arsenic will be in place, as for chronic Eczenia. Arsenic is the heroic alterative in all continued Skin Diseases. With care, it may always be prevented from doing harm. For this, the rules are: 1. Begin with not more than three drops twice daily, watching the effects. 2. Never go beyond ten drops twice daily. 3. Stop it at once for a week, if either headache, sick

stomach, diarrhea, or puffiness (edema) of the face appears. 4. Interrupt it for several days, in any case, after it has been taken continuously for as much as three weeks.

Lepra and Psoriasis are patchy and scaly chronic diseases of the skin, the principles of whose management are the same as those just set forth; but they are so hard to cure that any special application or variation of those principles had better be left to the judgment of a professional adviser.

Leprosy has had an interesting history, from the days of the Old and New Testaments down through the Middle Ages in Europe to our own times. But as there were, in 1880, less than one hundred lepers in the United States, this disease is not likely to invade the households of any of our readers; we may, therefore, refer upon it to professional works. (See "Essentials of Practical Medicine," fifth edition, p. 545.)

Pityriasis is dandruff. Multitudes of small white scales form, especially on the scalp of the head. This is generally cured (not at once, however) by keeping the hair short, and washing it well every day with Castile soap and cold water. If it lingers, a good wash will be Cologne water, half-and-half with water, to which one-fourth as much glycerin is added; or hot vinegar and water; or tannin (tannic acid) ten grains, glycerin a fluidounce, whisky and water each a fluidounce, well shaken together, and applied every night with a large camel's-hair pencil, followed by Castile soap and water in the morning.

Pellagra is an often fatal disease of Southern Europe (especially Italy), with drying, thickening, and scaling of the skin. It has never been seen native in this country.

Ichthyosis, fish-skin disease, is well described by its name. It is rare, mostly congenital (born with a person), sometimes hereditary, and, as a rule, incurable. I have only seen one case of it, and am not likely to see another.

Ephelis is Sunburn. Only when intense from continued exposure to the direct rays of a hot sun, is this of any consequence. I have known a few persons of delicate skin, on the sea-shore for example, to suffer so much from glare and inflammation of the skin, as to be almost ill with One so affected must keep in a cool room in the house, on slop diet, drink cool lemonade, and cool the head at least, with ice-water often. On the face, arms, etc., starch-powder dusting, and cold-cream the last thing at night, will allay the irritation in a day or two.

Freckles are generally not admired, that is all. Can they be taken out? Not with certainty. If anything will have that effect, I believe it may be hoped from pencilling each freekle several times a day with either nitromuriatic acid solution (ten drops to a wineglassful of water)

or solution of Labarraque's chlorinated soda (two teaspoonfuls in a

wineglassful of water).

Vitiligo is veal-skin; unnatural whiteness of the skin. If it comes on the head, the hair falls out; Alopecia, baldness. (See Hygiene, Care of the Hair.) It is, if curable, so only with difficulty, there being no specific remedy for it.

Chloasma is a name for more extended spots than those which we call freekles, being, like them, yellowish or brownish-yellow in hue. If any treatment will change them, it is likely to be that above mentioned for

freckles.

Nævus is a Mole. See Moles. Clavus is a Corn; Verruca, a Wart. See Corns and Warts.

Elephantinsis of the Arabs is also often called Barbadoes Leg (Bucnemia Tropica). It consists in an enormous growth of the connective

Fig. 233.

ELEPHANTIASIS OF THE ARABS.

tissue and skin, of the legs, and sometimes the trunk of the body and the neck; so that the legs and feet, particularly, become elephant-like indeed. It is a thing of slow progress, but is seldom cured. The only treatment which has seemed capable of stopping the growth is tying a large artery which supplies blood to the morbidly enlarged and enlarging parts.

Acne is a common kind of largepimpled eruption, especially on the face. The pimples include "sebaceous follicles" (little grease-forming glands) in which their secretion is detained. Acne Rosacea is the form seen on the face; so called because of the redness of the pimple and of its environs. Often (not always) in each follicle there is a parasitic animalcule, acarus (or demodex) folliculorum, seen with a magnifying-glass in groups, each one-fiftieth of an inch in length. What

may sometimes be taken for a parasite is a comedo; that is, a solid spot of sebaceous matter, in a follicle, which looks like a black dot, and can be squeezed out. An easy way of doing this is to push down over it the barrel of a watch-key. If Acne pimples pustulate (fill with yellow

matter), when ripe, they may be punctured with a needle, sidewise, to let the matter out.

The other Tubercular affections named in our list, Molluscum, Lupus, etc., are not common enough to be appropriately considered in any but a professional work.

Of Hemorrhagic affections of the skin, except that which is symptomatic of Scurvy, the only one is Purpura. See Purpura, and Scurvy.

Prurigo is persistent itching, without the specific cause (to be referred to presently) of Scabies or Itch. (Pruritus is the symptom of itching, merely.) Old people are particularly apt to suffer from this. There is often no eruption, until one is brought out by scratching; which is almost unavoidable in the effort to obtain relief. Itching of the fundament (pruritus ani) is mostly caused by seat-worms. When this is so, they should be got rid of. (See page 347.) Treatment of Prurigo includes attention to the state of the stomach, bowels, and general system. Local remedies may be many, but not unfrequently disappointing, at least as to producing permanent cure. Still, they are generally much better than perpetual scratching, which increases the irritation in the end. Among such remedies are: cold water; hot water; flaxseed-tea, with soda in it; lathering with Castile soap water, with a shaving-brush; strong salt-water; whisky and salt-water; pure whisky; vinegar; creasote ointment; cerate of white lead (two drachms of carbonate of lead to an ounce of simple cerate); laudanum; spirits of camphor; camphor and hydrate of chloral, equal parts; glycerin; olive or almond oil; benzoated vaseline; boroglyceride; infusion of tobacco; etc., etc.

Anæsthesia is loss of sensibility. It almost never occurs from disease

except as a symptom of paralysis or of leprosy.

Neuralgia of the skin is not commou. When it does occur, it is a part only (as a rule) of a more extended affection of the same kind. (See Neuralgia.)

Parasitic diseases of the skin are, with good reason, believed to depend on the presence of either an animal or a vegetable organism. The only animal cause of this kind on the human skin is the sarcoptes (acarus), which is the cause of Scabies or Itch. This disease is communicated from person to person, by the migration of the tiny acari. It appears as an eruption of small vesicles on a red surface, chiefly between the fingers and on the back of the hand; next often on the arms, legs, abdomen, or scalp. It does itch terribly; worst at night. King James II. is the only person ever known to say that he enjoyed it. On looking closely with a magnifying-glass, a little line may be seen going from almost any one of the vesicles; this is the track or burrow of the animalcule, Sarcoptes Hominis; one of the Arachnida—tenth cousin to the

Spider—a flat-bellied, round-backed, tortoise-shaped, eight-legged little

pest.

Treatment of Itch is simple. Several parasiticides will cure it; but sulphur is counted, on the whole, the best. The patient should take a warm bath, washing head and all well with soap; and then, at bedtime, rub the whole eruption over with sulphur ointment. Two or three applications, with subsequent care with the clothing, as to cleanliness, etc., will usually effect the cure.

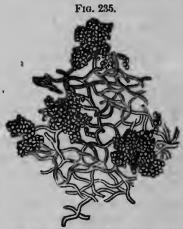
Sycosis is Barber's Itch. It may be caught by being shaved with a razor just used on the face of a man having the disease. With a microscope, its causative vegetative parasite may be seen; called *tricophyton*

mentagrophytes by scientific writers.

Tinea is contagious Ringworm. In it, if there are any little vesicles,



MALE ITCH ANIMALCULE



MICROSCOPIC VEGETATION OF A SKIN

they are very few; in the non-contagious kind (Herpes Circinatus), though small, they are numerous. In the two varieties of Tinea two parasitic vegetations are seen with the microscope; a tricophyton and a microsporon: Favus or Porrigo is another analogous affection.

Tar-ointment, applied at night, after the hair has been cut very short and the head cleansed, and washed off with Castile soap and warm water in the morning, will generally cure it. Still more powerful parasiticide applications are: mercurial ointment; solution of corrosive sublimate (both of these require much caution, the latter especially, as a poison); sulphurous acid solution; creasote or carbolic acid in solution or ointment; etc.

Syphilitic affections of the Skin will be alluded to under Syphilis.

Sleep-Walking. · See Somnambulism.

Small-Pox. Variola is the technical name of this very contagious and often fatal disease; which, before the time of vaccination, slew tens of thousands every year in Europe and America, and left its deforming marks on the faces of very many of those who survived its attacks.

Symptoms. About twelve days after exposure to the contagion, siekness begins with languor, headaele, severe pain in the back, often vomiting; soon followed by fever. On the third day of this, pimples, at first small and red, appear on the face, neck, arms, trunk, and lower limbs. The pimples go on to become vesieles (water-blisters), and then fill with yellow matter and become pustules; this change being complete by the ninth day of the fever. Next, they flatten and scab. Four or five days later, about the fourteenth day of the fever, the scabs begin to fall off; all being off usually by the end of the third week of the atta:

The severity of Small-pox depends in each case chiefly on the amount of the eruption. When the pustules are so close together as to run almost together, it is called confluent Small-pox. The danger of an attack may be increased by the eruption invading the throat. of one case made fatal by this, through interference with breathing and swallowing. Malignant cases sometimes are seen; when, as in malignant scarlet fever, the poison-cause of the disease prostrates the patient almost or quite from the first. In such cases, the eruption either does not come out well, or takes on a dark or livid color; with a tendency to coldness of the skin, a small and feeble pulse, and extreme debility. Blindness and deafness are among the possible consequences of an attack of Small-pox; besides the "pitting" or pock-marking of the face, which is the rule rather than the exception. Like scarlet fever, measles, and hooping-cough, Small-pox generally occurs but once in a lifetime. Yet instauces are well known of a second attack; Louis XV. of France is said to have died of such; I knew of a fatal example also of it in Philadelphia some years ago.

Treatment of Small-pox is not specific, as we have no antidote for its cause. Care should be taken that the bowels are well opened early in the attack, and are not constipated afterwards. For the fever, cooling medicines are suitable, to promote perspiration; as eitrate of potassium or acetate of ammonium in solution. Plenty of cold water, or lemonade, may be drunk. The food must be liquid, but nourishing, and given often, in small quantities: milk, ehieken-broth, beef-tea, etc.

To prevent pitting on the face is worth considerable pains. The best way will be to abort (kill) the worst of the papules, on their second day, by touching each one in its centre with a small pointed stick of nitrate of silver. Then poultice the face with flaxseed meal, until all the pus-

tules flatten out; and, lastly, paint the whole face thickly with collodion, to which one-fiftieth part of glycerin has been added. This will protect the eruption from the air, and promote healing with as little of marks

as possible.

Varioloid is Small-pox modified by vaccination. (See Vaccination.) It resembles the original disease in its whole history; but is less severe, and very seldom fatal. It goes through its stages sooner, and with less fever. Pitting does not often result from it; blindness or deafness never. Its treatment is the same in principle as that of Small-pox;

according to the symptoms and the condition of the patient.

No disease is more contagious (catching) than Small-pox and Varioloid; and an unprotected person may take the disease in its severest form from the mildest case of either. Protection is afforded, almost infallibly, by vaccination and revaccination (see Vaccination). But, since all persons are not certain to be thus protected, great care must be taken to lessen as much as possible the chances of contagion. In cities, special hospitals are, very properly, provided for such diseases. When a case is treated in a private house, the patient should be isolated as far as can be, from all others except needful care-takers. Upon his recovery, all garments and bed-clothing used during the attack had better be burned. Next best will be, thorough boiling, followed by long exposure to air and sunshine. A person who has had Small-pox ought, when the scabbing process has been completed, to take a warm bath (in a warm room) two or three days in succession, to clear the skin; and then should not be allowed to mingle with others, a child, for example, to go to school, within forty days from the beginning of the attack.

Snake-Bites. See Accidents and Injuries, later in the book.

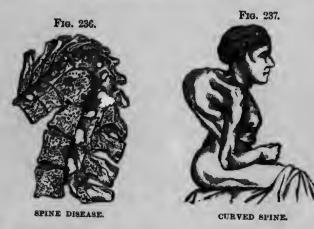
Somnambutism. Sleep-walking. The general nature of this was spoken of under Physiology, when considering the functions of the brain and nervous system. A part of the brain (chiefly the sensorimotor centres) is awake; the rest asleep. The sleep-walker noves about with his eyes open; sometimes going upon or into dangerous places, which, when awake, he would have shrunk from. At such times, it is dangerous to waken him suddenly; his alarm might cause a catastrophe. Children, or at least young persons, are much more apt to be somnambulists than grown people. Sleep-talking, moreover, is more common than sleep-walking. A few will hold a conversation with another when in that state.

To prevent somnambulism, a strong impression of its inconvenience and danger, made upon the mind, will most often take effect. When this is not so, the sleep-walker should not be left to sleep alone, and should be roused by his companion as soon as he begins to move. In some instances, fastening the great toe to a bed-post by a cord has been found effectual.

Sore Th.oat. See Throat, Sore.

Spine, Diseases of. The bony spine (vertebral column) is subject to caries; a slow inflammation, followed by decay of the bone; especially in the middle of the back (dorsal vertebræ), in scrofulous children. The patient stoops from weakness of the back; and at last becomes hump-backed. When the disease passes off, this deformity remains.

In the treatment of this affection, the favorite improvement of latter times is a contrivance for taking the weight of the upper part of the body from the diseased vertebræ (separate bones of the spinal column; see Anatomy). This is done by suspending the whole body to a framework above it, by means of bands raising it by the armpits and head; and, while it is thus held up, the spine being moderately extended, a



jacket is made, of bandages soaked in plaster of Paris, or of porous felt, so fitted to the body as to keep it in the extended position, after it is taken out of the suspending frame. By this relief from pressure upon the bodies of the inflamed vertebra, their chance of recovery without damage is much helped; and also the tendency to humpbacked deformity is greatly lessened. Much skill is needed in this treatment.

Spinal Irritation is an affection chiefly of the spinal marrow; but accompanied, as a sign or symptom, by tenderness on pressure in some part of the middle of the back. Other symptoms are, pains in the back, chest, stomach, and sides; sometimes indigestion, palpitation of the heart, nervousness, weakness; in some cases spasms of certain muscles, or even general convuisions. Patients so affected are generally pale and anomic (thin-blooded). In treatment, they are likely to require

iron, perhaps cod-liver oil, salt-baths, and country air, to build them up. Also, advantage may be expected from counter-irritation along the back; by dry cups, painting with tincture of iodine, warming-plasters, etc.

Some other affections of the spinal marrow have been already considered. See Locomotor Ataxy, and Paralysis. Fracture of the Spine will be spoken of under Accidents and Injuries, near the end of the book.

Spitting Blood. See Hemorrhage.

Spieen, Enlargement of. Although met with also in typhoid fever, and some other diseases, this is most remarkable in prolonged cases of *Intermittent Fever* (Ague). In that affection, the Spieen sometimes gets to be four, five, or more times as large as is natural. When the "chills" are cured, it generally goes down; but not always entirely so.

Spotted Fever. See Cerebro-Spinal Fever. Sprue. See Thrush, under Mouth, Sore.

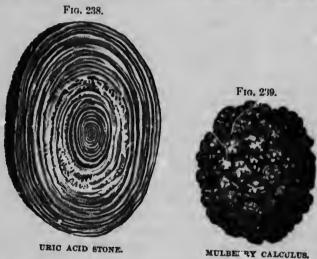
Stammering or Stuttering. An annoying impediment of speech, which some persons have from the time of their first learning to talk. It is owing to a want of control over the muscles of speech; and is a nervous affection. It can almost always be cured by patient perseverance in vocal gymnastics. A simple method of self-training for this purpose in, to read or recite often, at first alone, and afterwards in company with others, in a deliberate, measured way; taking each syllable by itself, as in chanting or singing. Thus: "Will-iam Penn was the found-er of Penn-syl-va-ni-a; He-rod-o-tus was an an-cient Gre-cian his-to-ri-an." By holding on, so to speak, to each syllable until ready to bring out the next, practice gradually but greatly increases the control of the will over the speech.

Stomach, Inflammation of: see Gastritis. Cancer of: see Cancer. Cramp of: see Colic. Ulcer of the Stomach may be here briefly referred to. It is a rather uncommon affection, least rare in feeble women, between twenty and forty years of age. Its symptoms are, sharp pain in one spot of the stomach, with or without tenderness or pressure, but increased by eating, and especially by eating sugar; also, vomiting; a little blood being brought up. Sometimes, there is real and serious hemorrhage; hamatemesis. A very bad ending of an Ulcer of the Stomach is for it to perforate the walls of the stomach, allowing its contents to get into the peritoneal cavity. This is always followed by death within a few days. The above symptoms are much like those of cancer of the stomach; but, in the latter, the pain is less limited to one spot, and is not in so marked a degree increased by any kind of food. By aid of the microscope, also, the matter vomited will show

cancerous particles present; and, generally, a tumor can be felt upon careful examination if the disease is cancerous.

Treatment of Ulcer of the Stomach includes the use of soft food, as arrowroot made with milk, chicken-broth with rice, limewater and milk, etc. As medicines, nitrate of silver, reasote, and iodoform are most worthy of trial. Opium may be called for on account of the pain; or hypodermic injection of solution of morphia; but it is safest to withhold there as long and far as practicable, on account of the danger of the opium or morphia habit. It will promote the cure of the ulcer, for a considerable part of the nourishment for a time to be given by injections (beef-tea, egg, milk, etc.) into the bowels.

Stone in the Bladder. Calculus. The stone really forms almost always at first in the kidney; but after passing into the bladder, if



detained there, it may gradually increase very much in size. There are stones of several different materials: uric acid (the commonest), phosphates, oxalate of calcium, etc.

Symptoms of Stone are, pain in the bladder, and beyond it in the male; sudden stoppage of the stream while urinating; distress on taking active exercise of any kind; bloody urine; feverishness, and wasting of the strength. Certainty as to the existence of a stone is obtained by examining the bladder with an instrument.

Treatment of Stone is, besides care to avoid anything to increase the irritation of the bladder due to its presence, an operation for its removal. This was formerly done by cutting into the bladder and drawing out the stone with forceps. That operation is still sometimes preferred; but a

procedure lately growing more into favor is crushing the stone by an instrument introduced through the urethra, and then washing out the fragments. It is a serious operation, only to be done for the relief of

very distressing symptoms.

Strabismus. Squinting; Cross-eyes. This results from the muscles which draw the eyes in one direction being stronger than those which move them in the opposite direction. Double sight is the consequence, as the axes of the two eyes do not then meet in an object looked at. But, by habit, the cross-eyed person comes to attend only to one of the two images seen, and so is not greatly incommoded by it. For the sake of appearance, an operation is often performed for the cure of Strabismus; dividing, with a small sharp knife, the stronger muscle, so as to give the other opportunity to keep the balance with it in moving the eyeball.

This operation, never giving much pain (being done in so short a time) may be rendered quite painless by the recently introduced use of hydrochlorate of cocaine; a few drops of a two or four per cent. solution of which render the eye for a time insensitive to the touch, and even to the knife. Considerable skill, however, is required to make such oper-

ations successful.

In children, habitual squinting is occasionally brought on by a habit of producing it just for amusement; or by looking a great deal at a hat or bonnet-string dangling between the eyes. Such things should be

carefully avoided.

Strangury. Ifficulty or pain in emptying the bladder of urine. It is not often met with (except when there is stone, or gravel, inflammation of the bladder, or stricture of the urethra) unless after a figblister, or when cantharides (Spanish fly) has been taken as a medicine. For the relief of Strangury, camphor or assafeetida may be taken; warm cloths (wrung out of hot water) may be applied over the bladder and perineum (the crotch, in front of the anus, between the thighs); a warm bath or hip-bath may be used; and, in a severe case, an injection into the bowel of thirty or forty drops of laudanum, with starch, by means of a small syringe. A few drops of spirits of camphor on the surface of a blister will generally prevent it from causing strangury.

Struma. See Scrofula.

Stye. A small, but often painful, inflammation of one or more of the small glands or follicles at the edge of the eyelid. It becomes red, swollen, and tender to the touch; in a day or two, if not relieved, it may suppurate; getting well after the yellow matter has been discharged.

To arrest the inflammation of a Stye, in its forming stage, a small piece of ice, frequently applied, will be the best thing. If that cannot

be had, some other cold thing, as a steel key, may do. When not checked at the start, no other treatment is worth while, unless it be severe enough for the applicate n of a bread and hot-water poultice at night.

St. Vitus's Dance. See Chorea. Sunamer Catarrh. See Asthma.

Summer Complaint. See Cholera aniantum.

Sun-Stroke. See Heat-Stroke.

Syncope. See Fainting.

Syphilis. A disease, primarily contagious, originating in vicious,



SYPHILITIC TEXTH.

unchaste living; at first local, afterwards constitutional; and in that form hereditary. Among its manifestations are, copper-colored eruptions of several kinds; ulcerated sore throat; inflammation of the iris of the eye; loss of the hair; rheumatic pains and swellings of the bones; and degenerative disorders of the brain, lungs, liver, spleen, etc. It is mostly curable, especially by early treatment; but is sometimes obstinate. Principal remedies in its management are the preparations of mercury (calonel, blue mass, iodide of mercury, corrosive sublimate), and iodide of potassium. For a more particular account of Syphilis, see special works on Medicine and Surgery.

Any one who has seen, in a hospital or elsewhere, the victims of venereal or syphilitie disease, may well have a horror of the danger which belongs to prostitution. Ugly red humps scattered over the face, ulcerated open sores in the throat, painful swellings on the bones, and often very serious diseases of the brain, lungs, or other vital organs make life miscrable; and, perhaps worst of all, if a syphilitic person has children, they may inherit the same disease, innocent sufferers from their parent's vice.

Tabes Dorsalis. See Locomotor Ataxy.

Tenia. Tupe-Worm. See Worms.

Tetanus. Lock-jaw. An affection centring in the apinal marrow, and produced in most instances by the irritation conveyed by nerves from a wound; sometimes, however, it is brought on by exposure to cold, or cold and wet. Punctured wounds, as by a nail or pitchfork in the hand or foot, or extensive crushing of parts, as in railroad accidents, are especially liable to be followed by Tet . Symptomatic of it is stiffness of the muscles; first of the jaws, which are firmly closed, and cannot be opened without external fore; afterwards, in marked cases, in all the muscles of the body. Sometimes the body is arched backward pisthotonos); in other cases forward (emprosthotonos). Food cannot swallowed; the patient is sleepless; and, unless relieved, he will die within a week or ten days. More than three-fourths of those attacked with Tetanus die. The danger is least when it comes from exposure to cold; greatest in traumatic cases (originating from wounds or injuries).

Treatment of Tetanus requires absolute quiet; in a room nearly darkened, and all noises shut out or prohibited in and near the room. Prolonged warm or hot baths are likely to be beneficial. If obliged to wait for medical advice, the only medicine I can suggest using to save time is opium, in the form of laudanum or solution of morphia. Pretty large doses of opiates are often given by physicians in Tetanus. I saw two recoveries under doses of a grain of opium (about twenty-five drops of laudanum) every two hours for three or four days and nights; also a tablespoonful of whisky every two or three hours. Milk and essence of beef are the most available kinds of nourishment for uch cases. Sometimes it is necessary t gently pry open the jaws and insert a cork on each side, to leave room for a tube for the introduction of food into the mouth; or one or two teeth may have to be drawn for the same purpose.

Tetanus or Trismus of the new-born babe is a very often fatal disease, particularly common among the negroes of the Southern States. Two causes are believed to produce it, at least in children predisposed to nervous disorders: pressure of the bones of the head (which are movable at birth) upon the brain, during or after delivery, and irritation of the navel, where the umbilical cord has been separated. The former is probably most often concerned in the matter. To vrevent the tendency to it, labor should not, avoidably, be allowed to linger for many hours; and, as soon as the child is born, it should be laid on its side (the right side), so that no pressure can act upon the back of the head (occipital bone). Treatment of Trismus Nascentium (of the new-born) had better

be left altogether to professional judgment.

Tetter. A popular name for both Eczema and Herpes. See Skin Diseases.

Throat, Sore. Common Sore Throat is an inflammation of the fauces (entrance to the throat) and pharynx (first portion of the swallowing throat or gullet). Everybody knows the symptoms. When looked at, opening the mouth wide and pressing the tongue down with a papercutter or the handle of a spoon, redness and swelling may be seen. Pain on swallowing is a leading feature of the case; sometimes there is constant aching. If the tonsils, or one of them, be most affected, it is tonsillitis or quinsy (which see). Ulcers sometimes form, and can be seen when looked for as above said. In diphtheria, besides reduces and swelling, there is a whitish, grayish, yellowish or brownish deposit of false membrane on or near one or both of the tonsils, which often spreads, even into the larynx (upper windpipe) and traches. When looking for such deposits, let the patient's throat be first well washed out with a gargle; lest a portion of mucus (phlegm) remaining at the moment, but easily removed, be mistaken for diphtheritic pseudo-membranous deposit. Never suppose a sore throat to be diphtheria, without good and clear evidence; much the largest number of cases of sore throat are not diphtheria. In scarlet fever, also, soreness of the throat is a general and prominent symptom. Ulcerated Sore Throat is common in secondary syphilis; and it sometimes occurs in the course of pulmonary consump-

Treatment of ordinary sore throat (acute pharyngitis) is simple in principle. A dose of cooling cathartic medicine, as citrate of magne inm, Tarrant's aperient or Rochelle salts; flaxsced lemonade to drink, a little, slowly, and often; alum-water, or tineture of myrrh and water, or hot green or black tea, to gargle the throat; bathing the throat outside with soap liniment, to which ammonia has been added, or with sweet oil and ammonia, equal parts; a hot mustard foot-bath at night, the first night, and afterwards also if there is any coldness of the feet; these are about all that need be done as a general rule. (See Inhalation, p. 319.)

Ulcerated Sore Throat needs, when not syphilitic in origin, touching of the ulcer or ulcers with either the solid stick of nitrate of silver (lunar caustic), or a solution of it (ten to twenty grains in an ounce of water); also, applying powder of iodoform, a little daily, on a slightly wet camel's-hair pencil. If it be syphilitic, the constitutional affection requires iodide of potassium (five to ten grains three times a day), besides similar applications to the ulcers in the throat.

Chronic Sore Throat calls for astringent gargles (alum, myrrh, tannic acid) to be persevered in; also touching the throat with nitrate of silver solution (four to ten grains in an cunce of water) every day or two; and

bathing outside with spirits of turpentine diluted with sweet-oil (a quite heating application); or, in an obstinate case, rubbing three or four drops of croton-oil over a limited space on the front of the throat; taking great care not to get any of the oil iuto the eyes. This will cause a small pimply or pustular eruption to break out, which lasts a few days, and affords a powerful counter-irritation.

Thrombosis. Formation of a clot in a vein, which obstructs the

movement of blood in it.

Thrush. Sprue is another name for this. See Mouth, Sore.

Thyro-cardiac Disorder. See Ophthalmic Goitre.

Tic-Douloureux. See Neuralgia.

Ticks. See Parasites.

Tinnitus Aurium. See Ears, Ringing in.

Toe-nail, In-growing. See Nail, In-growing.

Tonsillitis. See Quinsy.

Toothache. Three kinds of pain may affect the teeth: 1. Irritation of the exposed pulp of a decayed tooth. 2. Inflammation of the jaw. 3. Neuralgia. The first is the most common. The most summary remedy for it (the aching of a tender hollow tooth) is creasote. To apply it, wrap a small pellet of cotton around ouc end of a bodkin or knittingneedle, and dip this iu pure creasote. Then carefully press the wet cotton into the hollow of the tooth, and leave it there awhile. If any of the creasote runs over into the mouth, it will burn the gums or lips unpleasantly. Cold water should therefore be at hand to wash this overflow off as quickly as possible. Sometimes more than one such application may be necessary to kill the sensitive end of the exposed nerve. This is what creasote does when it has a full chance. No harm results afterwards to what is left of the tooth. Some dentists have imagined that the tooth itself is killed, and will then rapidly decay; but I kept in my mouth several teeth for fifteen years after the exposed end of their nerves had been made insensible by creasote.

Less disagreeable for the same use are oil of cloves, a drop of chloroform, or laudauum, raw whisky to rinse the mouth, and smoke of tobacco. Either of these may often succeed; but nothing is so sure a

cure for this kind of toothache as creasote, properly applied.

Inflamed face is a different thing. At or near the root of a tooth there may be an inflammation, ending in a "gathering" (suppuration, abscess). Then there is no full relief until the matter finds its way out. This generally takes place after a few days of suffering. A "gumboil" may often be opened to advantage with a lancet, as soon as the swelling fairly begins to soften with matter. In a protracted case the advice of a dentist will be very desirable. Occasionally the abscess will be in the socket

of the tooth, and its removal will be necessary. From experience, however, I will say, that the height of the inflammation is a time when the extraction of a tooth, unless under the momentary insensibility produced by breathing nitrous oxide gas, is uncommonly painful. When made unconscious by that gas, which may be safely breathed by any one in ordinary health, nothing hurts "the least bit." It is a wonderful invention, for those who hate or fear pain. When a jaw is inflamed generally, it swells, aches, and disables as well as disfigures the sufferer. Poultieing it (putting laudanum on the flaxseed poultice), and rinsing the mouth with laudanum occasionally, are about all one can do for it, unless the early application of one or two dozen American leeches, and laneing when it softens.

Neuralgia of the face may seem to fasten on some of the teeth. Sound ones have now and then been supposed to be guilty of the pain, and have been needlessly extracted. Treatment of this trouble is properly the same as for other forms of neuralgia. See Neuralgia.

Trichina, Trichinosis. See Worms. Trismus. Lockjaw. See Tetanus.

Tubercle. A morbid deposit in the lungs, or elsewhere in the body, taking the place of the natural tissues there, and interfering with their functions. Tubercles often soften, making cavities in the lungs; in other cases they remain nearly stationary, or harden into a chalky material. Tuberculosis is a constitutional disease; not unfrequently hereditary. It consists in a tendency to the formation of tubercular deposits in various organs; most often in the lungs, glands, and brain. Much has been said lately to make it appear that a minute bacillus (Toboto of an inch long) is always the cause of Tubercle. This has been referred to under the Germ Theory of Diseases. My present conviction is that, most probably, the bacillus makes its habitation in tuberculous lungs, just as rats, mice, and cockroaches make theirs in old, decaying houses; but that causation does not exist in the one case any more than in the others. See Consumption.

Tubercular Meningitis. See Brain, Inflammation of.

A small and hard tumor is often called a wen. The most important difference between different tumors is as to whether they are or are not malignant; that is, tending to increase without limit, and to undergo destructive changes, which exhaust the strength and shorten life. Cancers may be said to include all malignant tumors, although other names also are given to some of them. (See Cancer.) Non-malignant tumors may be fibrous, fatty, bony (exostosis), glandular (adenoid), cystic, etc. When these are not much in the way, and not very unsightly, they may

as well be let alone. If they are so large, or so located, as to cause much inconvenience, surgeons often remove them to advantage. *Internal* tumors require much skill to determine their character.

Tympanites. A drum-like swelling of the abdomen, from excess

of wind in the bowels.

Typhlitis. Inflammation of the cœcum, which is the first portion of the large intestine, on the right side of the abdomen, just lower than the navel. Perityphlitis is inflammation of the peritoneum (serous mem-

brane) around the execum. See Bowels, Inflammation of.

Typhoid Fever. A low and slow fever, very prostrating; lasting from three weeks to two or three months. It is not contagious, but in many instances can be traced to bad drinking-water or breathing foul air. It comes on more gradually than any other fever. Early symptoms are, headache, weakness, heat of skin, bleeding at the nose, cough; sometimes diarrhea. Then, greater weakness; soreness of the abdomen on the right side, low down; diarrhœa; decided fever, with pulse 110 to 130 in a minute; heat of skin 103° to 106° in the armpit; constant drowsiness, with low muttering delirium, especially at night; dulness of hearing; rose-colored spots scattered over the surface of the abdomen; a foul tongue, at first white, then brown, sometimes almost black, cracked; and covered with a thick secretion (sordes); the face dark-purple, with a more or less glossy appearance of the skin. Bad cases will have also bleeding from the bowels, retention or (worse) suppression of the urine, twitching of the tendons at the wrists, very rapid and feeble pulse (140 to 150), heat of skin in armpit 106° to 108°, clammy perspirations, coldness, collapse, and death. Much the larger number of patients with Typhoid fever recover; but it is always an uncertain disease, to the very Sometimes relapses occur, when the patient seems to be getting well. During convalescence, an imprudence in diet may so irritate the not yet healed semi-ulcerated bowel (small intestine) as to cause perforation, with escape of contents of the bowel into the peritoneum, which will be almost certainly fatal within a few days.

Good signs in Typhoid fever are: pulse under 120 in the minute; heat of skin not above 104° at night, 103° in the morning; tongue light red, and eleaning off early (within three weeks from the beginning of the attack); drowsiness not very deep, and delirium moderate; urine passed regularly; diarrhœa not very frequent or copious; weakness not extreme. Bad signs have been already described above. Children often have vomiting as a symptom of Typhoid fever; adults very seldom. Irregular attacks are common in children, and not rare in adults; in which some only of the above described symptoms are present; making

the cases sometimes quite obscure.

Treatment of Typhoid fever is management; there is no specific "cure" for it. I do not believe it can ever be cut short (under three or four weeks) without risking cutting short the patient's life.

Not a few cases will get well under good nursing, without a drop of medicine. The great needs are, quietness of body and brain; freshness, but never coldness, of the skin; sufficiency, but not exhausting excess, of the looseness of the bowels; frequent small portions of liquid food, day and night; and care that the patient does not exhaust his little strength by getting out of bed, or even, in very weak cases, sitting up in bed too

As to food, milk, beef-tea, and beef-essence are the staple articles. After the disease has got into its regular course, the routine may be, a tablespoonful of milk one hour, and a tablespoonful of beef-tea (or, in the feeblest, beef-essence) the alternate hour, day and night.

Two hours' intervals will do with those least prostrated; and when conva scence begins, of course the times must be gradually lengthened, first at night. But, in the midst of the fever, the weakest time is always between midnight and daylight; one, two, or three o'clock in the morn-What do we say about stimulation?

This must be a matter of judgment in each case. In the majority of cases of Typhoid fever, no alcoholie stimulation is necessary. It can usually be borne well, and, in a few cases, in all that are greatly prostrated, its use is important, and may save life. The test of its doing good and not harm is, that, after a few doses of it, the pulse grows slower, the skin more moist, the tongue cleaner, the delirium less, if that be present, or, if there is stupor, that becomes less profound. Should the pulse instead, under whisky or wine-whey, become more rapid, the skin hotter and drier, the delirium more talkative, or the stupor deeper, it should be with irawn at once; and, if renewed because of seeming prostration, the dose should be less than before. The largest amount of alcohol I ever gave to a patient with Typhoid fever was a tablespoonful every hour (for a time) of milk-punch, one-half of which was whisky; the rest milk. A tablespoonful every other honr, of punch made of one tablespoonful of whisky and two tablespoonfuls of milk, will be enough for most of those who require such stimulation; and, setting aside those who were before broken down by intemperance or other causes, in the majority of cases (as before said), no alcoholic stimulation will be needed.

Medicine is sometimes appropriate and important, for special symptoms or complications of Typhoid fever; but these had better be left to the physician. I have no confidence at all in the violent practice (called "antipyretie") of some at the present time, especially in Germany; of dosing the patient with twenty grains of quinine at a time, or plunging

him once or twice daily into a cold bath. Spare me both of those, if

ever I have Typhoid fever.

One precaution further must be spoken of. A patient with this or any other continued fever must not lie too long at a time on his back. The circulation of the blood is sluggish in such a disease; it may stagnate in the lungs, if one position be too long maintained, and then, first congestion, and afterwards inflammation (of a low order, typhoid pneumonia) of the lungs may result. Twice or thrice every day and night he should be gently turned over on one or the other side, so as to avoid this settling of the sluggish blood.

After recovery from Typhoid fevc:, the strength may return very slowly. This weakness may be shared by the brain; mental e forts of much severity (as study or business) must be very gradually and

cautiously resumed.

Typhus Fever. So similar is this to Typhoid fever, that until about fifty years ago the distinction between them was not clearly made out by physicians. In both we have great prostration, a slow progress, drowsiness, deafness, delirium of a low muttering kind, and a duration of the attack, in those who recover, of not less than three, oftener four or more weeks. But in Typhus, the causation is almost always clearly traceable, to either crowd-poison or direct contagion. Ship fever, camp fever, jail fever; those are names given to varieties of Typhus, under different circumstances, always those of crowded human beings, tainting Cold or cool weather favors the air with emanations from their bodies. the generation of Typhus. It is a disease of cold temperate climates, just as plague and cholera belong especially to tropical regions. A patient ill with Typhus seems to have in himself the poisoning power of a whole crowd; in other words, the disorder is "catching," as Typhoid fever is not.* Yet its contagion is not very strong, and can, as a rule, be dissipated by cleanliness of the person of the patient, and abundant ventilation of the place in which he is cared for.

Symptoms common to Typhus and Typhoid fevers have been mentioned above. Differences are these: Typhus is less slow in coming on, and more rapid in going to its fatal end, or to recovery when not fatal; there is, in it, no bleeding at the nose, and no cough (unless pneumonia complicates the attack); there are no "rose spots" on the abdomen, but there may be a rash, a little like that of measles; the belly is not swollen nor tender, and there is no diarrhoea; the face has a dusky instead of a purplish redness; there is more tendency to stupor (coma) than in

^{*} I do not here discuss the opposite opinion to this, though it is held by many medical men, because my convictions are so positive on the subject. See "Essentials of Practical Medicine," or other professional works.

Typhoid fever; death may occur even within the first ten days; and, after death, examination of the bowels shows the absence, in Typhus, of changes which are characteristic of Typhoid fever. I have seen patients with the two diseases lying alongside of each other in a hospital ward, and feel sure that I could tell, without any information about them, which was Typhus and which was Typhoid fever, from their countenances alone. Still, now and then, mixed attacks do occur.

Treatment of Typhus Fever must be, as with Typhoid, piloting, not disturbing, management. There is a tendency to greater prostration in Typhus. This needs very close watching, day and night; and there is occasion for alcoholic stimulation in a greater number of cases than in Typhoid Fever. I believe that the majority of patients with Typhus require some alcoholic medication; the minority only, of those with Typhoid really need it. Yet, while a resident Hospital physician, I had an attack of Typhus (caught from ship-fever patients), for which, before the nature of the attack was suspected, I was bled and leeched. After that, the only alcoholic dosing was of one wineglassful of winewhey, taken in the course of a day; and as that did not agree well, it was not given again. I am glad thus to have vindicated, by an example, the right and capacity of the minority to do without alcohol through an attack of Typhus.

Particulars of the objects of special care in management of Typi us fever, have been already referred to under Typhoid fever;—and elsewhere under Nursing. It may be repeated, that the passing, or not passing, of water from the bladder must be noticed all through the disease, and especially when there is stupor present. The same care must be taken, also, as in Typhoid, not to let the patient lie many hours at a time on his back, for fear of passive congestion of the lungs, from stagnation of the blood.

The routine of frequent small doses of liquid food (milk, with or without whisky, as the case needs; beef-essence or beef-tea), hour by hour, day and night, until the time of danger from prostration has passed by,—all this is the same, with only greater need usualty, of such support, in Typhus as in Typhoid Fever; which, therefore, see on this subject. The use of quinine as a tonic, and of other medicines, in both of these fevers had better be left to the physicians in attendance.

Ulcers. Sore places on any part of the body which are slow to heal. They are most common and troublesome on the legs; especially in persons who have swollen (varicose) veins. In order to heal an ulcer, the part must be kept at rest. The sore must also be covered from the air. With a simple, not very large ulcer, this may be done with simple cerate, spread thickly on lint or soft linen, and changed every day. If healing does not go on under this, then use, instead, lint, linen, or soft muslin, soaked in lime-water; the rag being covered with oiled silk, or oiled paper, or rubber-cloth, to prevent evaporation. The lime-water rag should be changed night and morning.

Troublesome ulcers may be either of the following: 1. Inflamed. 2. Indolent. 3. Sloughing. Inflammation of an ulcerated surface seldom occurs unless it is irritated by some sort of violence, as by walking about with a bad ulcer of the leg. It should be treated with perfect rest, and

poulticing with bread or flaxseed meal.

Indolent ulcers are those which look flabby; not of a bright red color, with a clean, smooth, whitish edge, but dull-colored, and often with jutting rounded parts, called "proud flesh." Such require stimulation; touching daily (lightly) with a crystal of bluestone (sulphate of copper) or lunar caustic (nitrate of silver); the lime-water dressing will, as a rule, agree with them better than simple cerate; or we may use this: alcohol one part, glycerin two parts, and lime-water three parts. Iodoform in powder, lightly sprinkled over the surface, may be applied every other day. When the ulcer is large, this should be used in moderation, lest too much of it may be absorbed, with poisonous effect. This will not happen, however, if, as above said, it be lightly sprinkled, and not more than every other day.

Ulcers very slow to heal are sometimes assisted in doing so by skin-grafting; that is, nipping little bits of living skin from some sound part of the body, and planting them in the middle of the sore. The healthy skin soon begins to grow, and spreads over the ulcerated surface, covering it up. Sponge-grafting is another operation sometimes success-

ful in an analogous way.

Sloughing ulcers show a low state of vitality in the part, and probably in the whole system. The patient's general condition needs attention. If he be suffering from anything that drains his strength, and especially if he does not sleep well, opium in some form is likely to be called for, at least at night; and quinine, as a tonic, eight or ten grains a day, with concentrated nourishing food; perhaps careful stimulation. To the part, cleansing and stimulating applications are necessary: as pure alcohol; solution of chlorinated soda (a teaspoonful in a teacupful of water); or dilute nitric acid (six drops in a teacupful of water) to wash

the ulcer with, once a day; and a charcoal poultice (see Poultices, under Remedies), or a poultice made of chopped carrots, as a dressing. Iodoform powder will be useful to a sloughing ulcer, sprinkled over the surface before applying the poultice.

Cancers have ulcerated surfaces, which, instead of healing, spread and "eat," deeper and deeper. No local applications will heal these; they can merely be protected from outside injury, and made less offensive by cleansing washes; such as pure alcohol, or alcohol (one part), glycerin (two parts); or chlorinated soda solution; or permanganate of potassium (ten grains to four ounces of water). Even lime-water, or Castile soap water, used twice daily, will lessen the disagreeableness of such sores.

Ulcer of the stomach has been spoken of already. See Stomach. For ulcer of the Throat, see Throat. Sore.

Uræmia. Presence in the blood of matters which ought to have been carried away by the secretion of uriue; sometimes called urinæmia. It occurs whenever there is, from any cause, suppression of urine. This happens towards the end of cases of Bright's disease of the kidneys. Its symptoms are: headache, dimness of sight, vomiting, diarrhæa, convulsions, and, at last, stupor; ending in death. When coming thus at the winding up of an incurable disease, treatment will have no important effect upon suppression of urine. If it should, in less degree, result from other causes, as exposure to cold and wet, or scarlet fever, we should try to relieve the kidneys; by dry or cut cups or a mustard-plaster to the back; the warm bath; purgation with Rochelle salts, or cream of tartar (which is diuretic); and action on the kidneys themselves, by lemonade, sweet spirits of nitre, juniper-berry tea, etc.

Urine, Incontinence of. See Incontinence of Urine. Retention of. See Retention of Urine.

Vaccination. This may be rightly regarded as one of the three greatest benefits ever conferred upon mankind by medical science; the others being the introduction of ancesthetics, to obviate the pain of surgical operations, and the discovery of the use of the alkaloids of Peruvian

bark, for the cure of malarious fevers.

Until about the end of the last century, it was common to inoculate young persons with matter from small-pox patients; it being found that mostly the attacks resulting were milder and less dangerous to life than those taken in the ordinary way. But physicians concluded at last that this practice (introduced from the East by Lady Mary Wortley Montagu in 1718) ought to be abolished; because now and then the inoculation was fatal; and the contagion of the mildest attacks was as deadly to those not inoculated, as was that of natural small-pox. It was well known, however, that persons who had been inoculated successfully very rarely had small-pox afterwards.

Dr. Edward Jenner, living in the country in England, learned that it was known among dairymen, that cow-pock was sometimes taken by those who milked cows which had pustules upon their udders; and that persons who had had cow-pock did not take small-pox when exposed to its contagion. Having a very philosophical mind, he reflected that if he could inoculate with cow-pock, it ought to have the same preventive effect. This he tried; first in 1796. His success was such that he at once labored to bring this practice (called vaccination from the Latin vacca, a cow) into general use. It was introduced into America in 1799, and into Austria the same year; France and Spain, 1800; Italy, Russia,

Sweden, and Denmark, 1801; India, 1802.

To show briefly the effect of the establishment of vaccination upon the ravages of small-pox, we may mention that for thirty years before Jenner's time the average number of deaths from that disease every year was, in Great Britain aloue, 30,000; about 3000 in each million of people. Were such a mortality from it to occur now in the United States, we should lose in every year about 150,000 people by small-pox! The greatest number of deaths from it ever recorded in the present century in America was about 4000, in 1881, in the cities of our country. Estimates of the most liberal kind of the probable number for the whole country in that year, could not reach beyond 10,000 to 15,000; at most, one-tenth of that of average years before vaccination! As to pock-marked faces, one example will do. In one town in Scotland, in the years from 1728 to 1764, of an average population of 4200, 3700 were more or less marked by small-pox.

Vaccination is, as it is well known, very imperfectly attended to in our large cities. Philadelphia, for example, in 1870, with a population



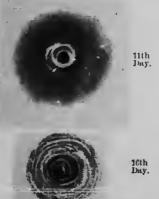


Fig. 2. VACCINE.

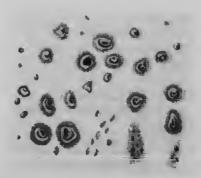


Fig. 3. CHICKEN POX.



of over 700,000 and from 20,000 to 25,000 children born every year, had but 7190 of these vaccinated. Under the panie of an epidemic of small-pox in 1871-2, the number increased to 30,000 in the first of those years, and 18,000 in the second; but it went down again, in 1875, to 5685. If every child born was properly vaccinated, and revaccinated when between twelve and fourteen years of age, there is good reason to believe that small-pox would be exterminated.

Recaccination is important. Why? Because the first vaccination may not have been perfect; and also, because, although in the large majority of cases the protection given by vaccination lasts for a lifetime, in a certain minority of instances it does not; and the only way to be sure about this is to try it again. It is too trifling an operation to be withheld, in view of the immense value of its protection when needed.

Are there any sound objections to Vaccination? No l

I have read the strongest and boldest arguments * ever put forth by its opponents; and I declare them to be worthless against it. There is no room in this book to go into their discussion. The anetical profession is almost literally unanimous on this subject. No leading medical authority, on either side of the ocean, is or has ever been against it. The antagonism to it must originate in morbidness of mind; such as makes some persons still believe in witeheraft, or others deny that the world goes round once in twenty-four hours. There is, with the simple care, which it is easy and usual for physicians to take, in selecting the "virus" used, no danger of giving any disease by vaccination.

Is it best to employ "bovine" virus; that is, directly from the row or heifer, or will that from an infant's arm do as well? I have studied this question with much care; and conclude that, on the whole, the most secure and satisfactory way is to use humanized virus; that which has been at least through a few (or even a few hundred) healthy human systems. It is very well for those skilful in the matter to start new virus, now and then, directly from the cow; the original Jennerian vaccine. But this requires more skill and pains than are always reliably given; and there has been a good deal of disappointment of latter years with "bovine virus," both in Europe and in this country. An advantage of the humanized article is, that it has just shown its virtue by its effects.

When should the first vaccination be performed? If there be no exposure to the contagion, the second or third month of infancy will answer. If there is such exposure, let it be done any time after birth.

How shall it be done? Two kinds of material are used; the one is

^{*} See a review by the author of several of these publications, in the Philadelphia American, Sept. 2, 1882.

lymph, taken on quill-pieces from the sore in its watery stage, about the eighth day of the vaccination. Always, a healthy infant's first vaccination is to be chosen for the supply. The matter dries on the quili-ends, and can be kept, if scaled up from the air, for a few days (seldom so much as a mouth) without losing its specific quality.

Twenty-five years ago, it was the general practice in this country to vaccinate with the scab, from the matured pustule, coming off about the nineteenth day. With other practitioners, I have had every reason to be satisfied with this. One particular advantage of it is, that the appearance of the scab goes much towards judging of its genuineness. It should be irregularly circular, nearly flat, rather thick, and of a mahogany brown color; larger than a scab from almost any other kind of sore; decidedly larger than a scab from a real small-pox pustule.

To operate: take either the fresh lymph (arm to arm), if you can get it, or the dried lymph, not too old, or the scab, less than a month old, and kept out of the air. Moisten a small portion of either of the latter with pure tepid water; mashing the scab, if it be employed, into a paste. A very little piece will suffice for one vaccination; not more than the size of two pins' heads will be necessary. What is wanted, then, is to get this matter through and under the skin, so that some of it will be absorbed into the blood. You do not want the part to bleed; because that would wash it all away. You may push out a little flap of skin



VACCINATION SCRATCHES. with the point of a lancet; or puncture the skin, making several little dots near together; or scratch it in tiny lines, crossing each other, making a square; and, either way, pressing, laying, or gently rubbing the virus-paste in and on the part. The art of the operation consists in getting through the skin without

causing blood to flow. When it has been done, keep the arm (the best place is the outside of the arm, halfway between the shoulder and elbow) undisturbed until it dries; about twenty or thirty minutes.

As to its course, nothing will show, if it goes on all right, for nearly four days. Then a little red point will appear, which grows larger, and becomes a vesicle (a little water-blister). By the tenth or eleventh day this has filled with matter, and sinks down, navel-like, in the middle; the characteristic "umbilicated" appearance. It has, then, a good deal the shape of a tiny hat, with the middle of the crown pushed down. Before that time, about the eighth day, a bright red circle has formed around the sore. This fades after the eleventh day, and the pustule (which, however, has little or no yellow matter in it) dries up into a thick, round, mahogany-colored scab; and this comes off of itself from the eighteenth to the twenty-first (usually the nineteenth) day. Of

course it may be accidentally rubbed off sooner. All these stages are important, as showing it to be a good, regular vaccination. No other kind of sore behaves in the same way. The scar left is also peculiar. It is, when perfectly good, large for the size of the sore, and dotted or

pitted, as if made of several little sores merged into one.

If the first vaccination does not take, it should be done again. When twice done with the same matter, and yet no effect follows, other virus had better be tried. Some infants are much less susceptible to it than others; ln a very few it will not take at all. There is reason to think, however, that the system may be affected by it, and so protected, in some cases, without any sore coming out on the arm. I knew one child to be vaccinated nine times, with at least three different scabs of virus, without any sore following; and yet when exposed to small-pox a year or two afterwards, it took only varioloid, having a mild case. If a rash or "breaking out" follows vaccination, the child's skin pust have been unusually predisposed to such things.

Revaccination should be done in precisely the same way. The usual tlme for it is about the age of fourteen years. Sooner will be better, if there is exposure to small-pox contagion. Also, it may wisely be repeated, as a test and fresh means of protection, every time (at least after one, two, or three years) that one is again brought in contact with the

I close my remarks on this subject by saying, with emphasis, that everybody ought to be vaccinated, and revaccinated at least once.

Varicella. Chicken-Pox; which see.

Varicose Veins, See Veins, Varicose.

Variola. See Small-Pox.

Varioloid. Modified small-pox, as it occurs in persons who have been vaccinated. See Small-Pox.

Veins, Inflamed. See Phlebitis, and Milk-Leg.

Veins, Varicose. Enlarged veins, without inflammation. They are not uncommon in the legs; made worse by standing a great deal. Pregnancy is a promoting cause of varicosity of the veins, by the pressure of the gravid womb upon the large veins (especially the great vena cava) in the abdomen.

ELASTIC BANDAGE, Varicose veins are sometimes cured by a surgical APPLIED. operation; but this is seldom necessary. The proper thing to do is to



wear elastic stockings, which compress the veins enough to prevent inconvenience from their enlargement. If such stockings cannot be had, bandaging is a tolerable substitute. A bandage of soft old muslin, two and a half inches wide, should be worn while walking or sitting up. It must be wrapped first around the ankle; then around the foot; again around the ankle, and thence obliquely around the leg; turning or reversing it at each round, so as to make it lie smoothly on the limh; firmly, but not uncomfortably tight.

Vertigo. Giddiness; dizziness; turning in the head. Sometimes one's own head seems to be turning around; sometimes everything else turns instead. Causes of vertigo are: most frequently, indigestion, with "biliousness"; i. c., the bile not being properly removed by secretion from the blood; secondly, general debility; thirdly, a disorder of the internal ear or ears, called Menière's disease; lastly, and most rarely, disorder of the brain. Treatment of this symptom should, of course, be according to its canse. For "bilious" dizziness, a grain or two of blue mass twice a day (taken only for a day or two); a teaspoonful of magnesia; if the symptom comes often, omitting the blue pill, and using soda (sodium bicarbonate), a pinch at a time, instead of magnesia. Vertigo of debility requires that the patient's strength be saved by avoiding much exertion, and improved by good diet, tonics, change of air, etc. Ear disease and chronic affections of the brain are too difficult of discrimination to be dealt with in Home medicine; they require skilful medical attention.

Vomiting. This is a symptom of various affections, and has been specially considered earlier in this book, under Signs of Disease. Its treatment also has been dealt with in our section on Remedies, under the heading Sick Stomach. See page 271.

Warts. These are small outgrowths of the cuticle or scarf-skin (epidermis); rooted, however, in the deeper middle coat of the skiu (rete mucosum of the books). To get rid of them, pare away all the outer hard part, which has no feeting; then touch the remainder with a drop of nitrio acid (taking mue to put it only on the wart, which requires management), or three reid, or a stick of caustic potassa, slightly moistened. A few such applications, a few days apart, will cause the wart to cease reappearing

Water-Brash. See Dyspepsia. It may be mentioned here that buttermilk is strongly recommended by some practitioners for the cure or relief of this symptom of chronic indigestion. The term Waterbrash means the coming up of a watery fluid from the stomach into the throat and mouth. The great thing, of course, is to cure the dyspepsia of which it is only a part.

Water on the Brain; in the Chest; etc. See Dropsy.

Whitlow. See Felon.

Whooping-Cough. See Hooping-Cough.

Women, Diseases of. Many large books have been written upon this subject; which now has a department of Medicine and Surgery to itself, called Gynæcology. Its management involves as great difficulties in practice as any other part of Medicine or Surgery. It would, therefore, be quite vain to attempt to dwell at length upon it in a work like the present, which is intended for unprofessional readers.

Already, we have given consideration, sufficient for our purpose, to Amenorrhæa, Dysmenorrhæa, Menorrhagia, Leucorrhæa, and Chlorosis, in this alphabetical series. Other diseases peculiar to women are: Inflammation of the Womb; Irritable Uterus; Prolapsus (falling) of the Womb, and other Displacements; Tumors of the Womb; Inflammation of the Ovary; Ovarian Neuralgia; Ovarian Displacement; Ovarian Tumor and Dropsy. A much longer list will be found in any professional work on Gynæcology.*

Probably the most important remark to be made here is, that no one should too easily suppose herself to be affected with any of the disorders peculiar to the sex. Such disorders, in marked degree, are not very common; and they are aggravated by habits of invalidism. Constantly fixing "expectant attention" upon any organs of the body tends to derange their function.

There is a quaint old maxim which may furnish us with a parallel precept. It is said that "no one should touch his eye, except with his elbow." This is easily understood. It is equally sound advice that no

^{*} Of such works, that of Prof. T. Gaillard Thomas, "A Practical Treatise on the Diseases of Women," may be especially commended.

woman should ever think of her ovaries or uterus, uuless their condition compels her attention to them. It is not right, of course, that any real symptom of ill health, local or general, should be neglected; and the indement of a competent physician in such a matter should be accepted and obeyed. But imaginary diseases ought to be kept out of the way. The human body, in all its parts, is wonderfully well made; its mechanism, until wrongly used or ill cared for, is perfect, and does not readily get out of order. It is proper for me to be very cautious in referring to liabilities of medical minds, in a work like the present; but I may safely extract a few sentences from the early part of the standard Treatise of Dr. T. G. Thomas, than whom, on such topics, there is no higher authority in this country. He observes: * "The excessive surgical tendency of many of the leading gynæcologists of our day is a matter to be deplored by all who wish well to gynecology. Many cases which time and patient medical treatment would readily cure are met boldly, and without sufficient consideration, by operations more or less formidable." "No one will suspect me of a want of appreciation of the operations to which I have alluded, nor of timidity in employing them. It is not to their use, but to their unquestionable abuse, that I am objecting. The last remark applies with equal force to the almost exclusive reliance which by many seems placed upon local treatment in the cure of uterinc disorders. Onc who frequently sees cases of uterine disease in consultation, will meet with many in which he is called upon to urge cessation of all local treatment, as the first step in the proper management of the case."

Here also we may cite briefly Prof. Thomas's list of the main causes of disorders of the womb: "Want of air and exercise; excessive development of the nervous system; improprieties of dress; imprudence during menstruation; imprudence after parturition (childbirth); prevention of conception and induction of abortion; marriage with existing uterine disease."

On the subjects of *Inflammation* and *Irritability* † of the Womb we must refer entirely to professional works. Something may be said, however, in regard to *Prolapsus* and other *Displacements*.

Prolapsus is falling of the womb. Its causes may be stated, in a general way, to be, 1. Influences increasing the weight of the womb; as fulness of blood therein (congestion) from standing or walking much during menstruation. 2. Influences weakening the natural supports of the womb; as general relaxation, from loss of tone in the whole system.

[&]quot; "Practical Treatise on Diseases of Women; Historical Sketch of Gynsecology."

[†] This is not quite an exact term; "Areolar Hyperplasia" is Dr. T. G. Thomas's designation for it.

3. Influences pressing the womb out of place; conspicuous among which are, tight lacing, and the weight of heavy clothing on the abdomen. Not only Prolapsus or simple sliding downward of the uterus, but other displacements, are promoted by these and some other causes. Those just mentioned are the ones most under control.

Symptoms of Prolapsus are: a feeling of dragging and weight in the lower part of the abdonen; irritation of the bladder and lower bowel; pain in the back and loins; unusual fatigue in walking, or in lifting anything heavy; and leucorrhava (the "whites"). The presence of several of these symptoms together leads to a rasonable suspicion of the existence of prolapsus. The certainty of its existence is obtainable only by a professional examination. On account of its importance to health, it is right not to let false delicaey stand in the vay of such a determination of the real state of the case, when considered necessary by an attending physician.

The other most common displacements of the womb are anteversion (the npper part, or "fundus" of the uterus being bent too far forward), and retroversion (bending of the fundus backward). These are promoted by the same general causes as those above mentioned, as well as by pregnancy and its after events and conditions.

In the treatment of prolapsus, the chief aims must be: to lessen as much as possible the pressure from above upon the abdomen, and to strengthen and supplement the uterine supports. The first of these is done by wearing skirt-suspenders, putting the weight of the skirts on the shoulders instead of on the abdomen; by avoiding all unnecessarily heavy clothing; a it the use of an external abdominal supporter. This is of the nature of the mount but somewhat elastic band or broad bandage, which holds up at a contents of the abdomen together. The direct support of the womb within the abdomen is obtained by the use of a pessary. There are several kinds of pessaries: Hodge's, Meigs', Albert H. Smith's, Grailly Hewitt's, Cutter's, and others. Prof. T. G. Thomas speaks very well of Cutter's; which has a stem passing out of the body to go either backwards or forwards in a curve to a belt around the body. The others a ove named are placed entirely within the body. Simple prolapsus, anteversion and retroversion require differently shaped instruments, which should be carefully adapted to each case. This can only be done by a skilful practitioner. We must add, that examination should be made after a pessary has been used for a few days, to see whether it suits or not, and especially whether it does or does not gall or excoriate the parts. If it does so, it must be removed at once. Even the best suiting pessary should be taken out once in every few weeks, and be well washed with Castile soap and water before

replacement. Sometimes the instrument is a good deal acted upon and spoiled by the natural fluids. One who wears a pessary should use a wash every night, with a vaginal syringe: lime-water, alum-water, boroglyceride dissolved in glycerin, or, at least, Castile soap water. Cutter's pessaries can, and ought to be, taken out every night, after getting into bed, and replaced in the morning.

Anteversion and Retroversion may need to have the error of shape of the womb corrected by the skill of the medical attendant, before a pessary

can be employed with advantage.

Tumors of the uterus are generally either 1. Polypi; 2. Fibroid; or

Fig. 243.



DR. ALBERT H. SMITH'S PESSARY.

3. Cancerous tumors. The last are, as a rule, incurable. Polyni a

3. Cancerous tumors. The last are, as a rule, incurable. Polypi are tumors with a small stem connecting them with the interior of the womb. The whole subject of the discovery and management of uterine tumors is too professional to be dwelt upon here.

Ovarian diseases would also, for particular consideration, take us beyond our scope in this book. A few words only are proper concerning Ovarian Dropsy. This results from the formation, in connection with an ovary (see Anatomy), of one or more watery tumors called cysts. These gradually enlarge, until they stretch the abdomen greatly; at last causing much distress, obstructing breathing, and wearing the patient's life out. This may not happen, however, for several years.

Ovarian Dropsy is distinguished from common abdominal dropsy (ascites), by the following signs: it begins almost always in women between twenty and forty years of age; it increases slowly, seldom ending in death under two or three years, and often lasting much longer with very little change; it begins on one side, and spreads over so as to fill the whole abdomen; when large, the roundness of the abdomen does not flatten out when the patient lies on her back; besides ot'er indications obtained by percussion, etc., to be appreciated only by those who have had professional training.

Treatment of Ovarian Dropsy can amount to but little unless an operation be concluded upon. An ovarian cyst may be tapped. Most practitioners think it best to reserve this operation for the temporary relief of patients upon whom it is considered not prudent to perform the greater operation of removal of the diseased ovary, eyst and all.

This last operation is called ovariotomy. First performed by an American surgeon, Dr. MeDowell, of Kentueky, near the beginning of this century, it met with much opposition for a long time. Within several years, however, it has come to be recognized as proper in a considerable number of cases. Although recovery does not follow in every case, it does, in a majority of instances, lengthen life; sometimes for many years. All details concerning the operation must be left for works an Gynæcology.

Worms. About twenty kiuds of worms are known occasionally to inhabit the human body. Yet comparatively few people are consciously troubled by them. Sometimes the inconvenience caused by them is slight; and when it is considerable, they are not always found out as producing it.

The most frequently troublesome Worms are: Lumbricoids; Seat-Worms; Tape-worms; and Trichinæ.

Lumbricoid Worms are the most common of all, especially in children. They look a good deal like earth-worms. Now and then knots of them accumulate in the intestines of a child, "giving it fits." One of them may even erawl into the stomach and be vomited up, after a good deal of siekness of stomach. This happened to a patient of mine, an adult. These worms enter with either food or drink; probably in most cases in not very clean drinking-water. They are to be got rid of by two sorts of measures: 1, to make the bowels unsuited to harbor them; 2, to drive them out by vermifuges, i. e., "worm-medicines."

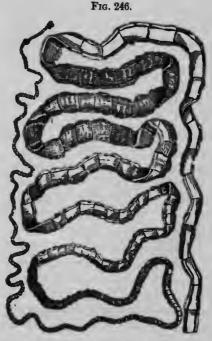
The bowels are most likely to harbor worms, when they are all the time loaded by the refuse of food not digested; either because too much is eaten, or because it is unwholesome in kind; also, when there is constipation. First, theu, be careful of the child's diet; withhold all

eakes, candies, and other trash; and see that the bowels are moved once a day. Then, if a worm is still seen now and then in the passages (which should be watched), worm-medicine ought to be used.

How do we know when a child has worms? Only when it passes one or more of them from the bowels, or threws one up from the stomach. We may reasonably suspect worms, when a child's or older person's appetite is bad or irregular; when the belly is swollen; when



LUMBRICOID WORM.



A TAPE-WORM (TÆNIA SOLIUM).

(whether it complains or not of itching at the nose) there is itching at the fundament; and when there is grinding of the teeth and restlessness during sleep. But this suspicion needs confirmation by the actual sight of worms in the passages.

For the lumbricoid worms, the best vermifuge is pink-root; spigelia Marylandica. The fluid extract is a good preparation; or better, the fluid extract of spigelia and senna; of which the dose is a teaspoonful.

With young children, an overdose should not be given; such might be even poisonous. On Seat-worms, see Santonin, p. 347.

Tape-worms are chiefly of two kinds, in this country; the armed tania solium and the unarmed tania mediocanellata. The "armor" is merely a circle of very tiny hooklets around the head of the tania solium; which is the smaller worm of the two. Both are flat, whitish, and in segments, like small bits of narrow tape put end to end as in a long string; sometimes ten, twenty, even thirty feet long! The "unarmed" tape-worm gets into human bodies in infested rare beef, and is the most common in the United States. The "armed" kind is taken by eating undercooked pork or bacon; as it naturally inhabits the hog, not the ox.

Symptoms of Tape-worm are much like those of lumbricoid worms, with the addition often of an enormous appetite. The worm, as well



TRICHINA, MAGNIFIED 150 DIAMETERS.



TRICHINA IN MUSCLE, NATURAL SIZE.

as its entertainer, must be fed. But certainty, here also, can only be obtained by finding *pieces* of the Tape-worm in the passages from the bowels. As these come away, others grow; until the *head* is removed, the worm lives and "tapes away" for an indefinite time.

Several vermifuges are used to drive out tape-worms: oil of turpentine; oil (ethereal extract) of male fern; koosso, of Abyssinia, in half-ounce doses, etc. Before taking any of them, the bowels ought to be well opened, and the stomach not much burdened with food.

Trichina is a very small spiral thread worm. It may be taken in eating raw or undercooked pork, or sausage; anything of hog's meat. Not nearly all hogs are infested with trichinæ; with the microscope, butchers or others can tell whether the flesh of a particular hog has them in it or not. If present, they commonly count by the hundred thousand, or even by the million. The way to avoid trichinæ, with

certainty, is never to taste any hog's meat, or anything made of it, unless it has been thoroughly cooked—cooked all through.

When Trichinæ get into the bowels, they work their way gradually through the intestinal walls, and at last fix themselves in various muscles in the body and limbs. The symptoms during this progress are not very unlike those of typhoid fever, but with more pain and irritation of the stomach and bowels. When they are in the muscles, an imitation of rheumatism, with more or less low fever, results. There has been, as yet, no vermifuge for Trichinæ discovered; Trichinosis, well marked, is in most instances (not all) fatal, within a few weeks at the farthest.

Wrist-drop. A frequent kind of lead-palsy, met with among painters or other workers in lead. See Paralysis.

Writer's Cramp. A disability of the muscles of the right hand, from too long-continued writing, as in bank officers, etc., who have to sign their names, etc., constantly for a long time together. The main thing for its cure is, total and prolonged rest of the hand and arm from all such work.

Yellow Fever. Only certain places are subject to endemics or epidemics of this disease. On the subject of its causation, enough was said, earlier in this book, under "Causes of Disease." It is mostly a malady of Southern countries, and always of the summer-time. It is, moreover, a disease of cities or towns near a river or the sea. Havana and New Orleans have had more of it, during the past century, than any other localities in the Western Hemisphere. Philadelphia formerly had a number of severe epidemic visitations; its last presence in this city was in 1855, and then only in a limited part of the city—"down town," near the Delaware. In this frequenting of cities, Yellow Fever is totally different from remittent (bilious, autumnal, malarial) fever, which is always a country, or at least a suburban, disease.

Symptoms of Yellow Fever are, in brief: an abruptly beginning fever, lasting two or three days without remission, with violent headache, flushed forehead and eyes, often delirium, vomiting, tenderness of the stomach on pressure, constipation, or at least but scanty and offensive passages. Next comes a remission, which may go on to recovery; but more often it becomes a time of great prostration, with yellowness of the skin, and, in the worst (nearly always fatal) cases, black vomit. Death, when it comes, happens generally on the fourth, fifth, or sixth day of the attack. When reaction follows the collapse, secondary fever occurs, which goes on either to a slow convalescence or to final death by exhaustion.

As a general rule one attack of this disease acclimates a person; that is, he is not likely to have it again, however exposed. As in the case of small-pox, measles, etc., this rule has a certain number of exceptions.

The same is true in regard to its being taken by negroes, who are certainly much less susceptible to it than white people.

Treatment of Yellow Fever is beset with difficulty; on the average, one in three of those who have it dies. Opinions in the Medical profession differ so much about this subject, that it will be best to leave the discussion of it to strictly professional works. I remark these points only: there has been discovered no specifie "cure" for it; quinine has been found to have no control over it, such as it has over malarial remittent fever (which resembles Yellow Fever in some respects); among the most certainly useful measures of treatment are, leeches applied to the pit of the stomach, an early dose of a mild saline cathartic, as citrate of magnesium; ice and mineral-water freely during the fever, and, in the same stage, sponging the head, face, and arms with cool or cold water; in the period of prostration, small quantities of liquid food (milk, with wine or whisky in small amounts in the weakest instances, beef-essence, etc.), at short intervals, and quinine in tonic doses, ten or twelve grains in the course of each day.

I repeat the conviction already expressed under Causes of Disease, that Yellow Fever is never contagious from person to person; it is a disease originating in places, including foul ships; to avoid or leave the infected place is to escape the disease. Thousands of people have, at many different times, in Europe and America, gone (both sick and well) from Yellow Fever places to other healthy places, without conveying the disease in any well authenticated instance.

PART V.

ACCIDENTS AND INJURIES.

PIRST of all, let it be said in regard to all or any of these, that coolness and presence of mind are of the utmost consequence. Danger is increased by alarm and confusion. One who has his senses about him may, by simple and prompt action, in some instances, avert serious harm; in all cases, the chances are in favor of this result when one or two, if not all concerned, are possessed of their full intelligence.

Our consideration of these, commonly called Surgical Emergencies, will be, as nearly as practicable, in alphabetical order; for convenience

of reference by the reader,

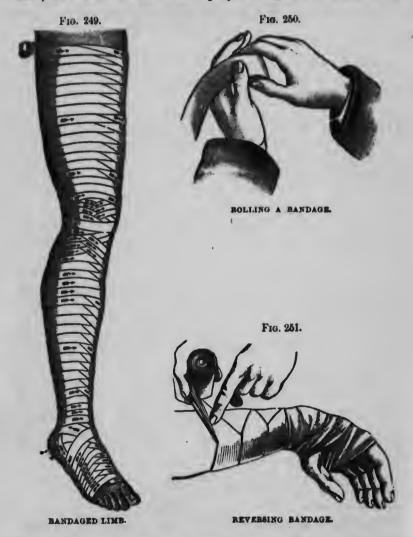
Bandaging. General remarks only are called for here in regard to this; some particulars being mentioned elsewhere, in connection with injuries or other occasions for using bandages. The purpose of bandaging is to retain certain parts of the body, or "dressings" upon it, in position, without too much pressure; or, sometimes, to make pressure

time (as in cases of bleeding), or even continuously (for varicose

Material for bandages may be unbleached muslin, about as thick as that which is used for sheets; or soft unglazed linen. It must vary in width and length according especially to the part upon which it is to be applied. For the chest, as for a fractured rib, it should be about four inches wide; for the thigh or leg of a man, two and a half to three inches; for the arm, two to two and a half inches; if used for a finger, an inch in width will answer. Around the head, a two-inch bandage will be generally wide enough. The length may vary from a yard or two to five or six yards in a roll, according to convenience. To make a long bandage of short strips, make their ends overlap a little, and stitch them evenly and smoothly together, without any seam. All doublings and thick edges are to be avoided in bandaging, as they make uneven pressure and cause discomfort.

How to roll up a bandage is a matter of simple management. After doubling an end for a beginning, take it in one hand, between the ends

of the thumb and fingers, with the rolled part downwards; holding the bandage then between the side of the forefinger and the thumb of the other hand, so that it may slide between the finger and thumb of that hand, as it is drawn and rolled up by the fingers of the other. In



hospitals they sometimes have a small instrument with which to roll bandages rapidly.

Two rules are very important in bandaging. First, never make any bandage so tight as entirely to check the movement of blood, unless for

a short time (as with Esmarch's rubber-tube compression to prevent hemorrhage in operations) to arrest bleeding; and second, never so apply a bandage as to compress veins in a way to cause swelling below it. To fulfil the first of these rules, the feeling of the patient, and one's own common sense, will generally suffice. In regard to the second, the neck, of course, must not be so bound as to interfere with the return of blood from the head through the jugular veins; and, when an nrm, or any part of it, is bandaged, the hand also must be covered; if it be the thigh, or leg, all below it, including the foot, must be equally compressed. Otherwise, the parts below the bandage would swell up, and might, if so kept long, even mortify.

When bandaging the forearm and arm, it is best to begin by passing the bandage around the wrist; then turn it down over the hand and cover it; afterwards go, with reverses, up the forearm, and, if necessary, the arm. In covering the lower extremity with a bandage, begin in like manner around the ankle; next go around the foot; and then, with reverses, up the leg.

To apply a bandage to any part, take the bandage in the right hand, with the outside of the roll held in the palm, and the thumb touching the part which is being unrolled, along the edge of the roll, inside. The left hand is then to fix the end, and succeeding parts, of the bandage in place where it is applied. Reversing is done to make the bandage lie smoothly on an uneven surface; as the hand, foot, forearm, leg, etc. It is effected by turning the right hand which holds the roll, so as to obliquely double the bandage, for one or more turns, as required. A little practice will make this easy enough. For farther specialties in bandaging, besides what will be said under Fractures, see works on Surgery.

Bedsores. See Nursing, page 370. Bleeding. See Wounds, page 617.

Broken Bones. See Fractures, page 591.

Burns and Scalds. Burns are caused by dry heat, or by something else than water; scalds by boiling water, steam, or other hot fluids. The danger to life of either is in proportion to their extent of surface, and their depth. Even a superficial burn or scald will kill, if it involve so much as half, some authorities say two-fifths, of the body. Death is then produced in two ways; by the shock, and by the arrest of the necessary functional action of the skin. The treatment of burns and scalds is essentially the same for both.

What to do when one's clothes have caught fire, is important. Seize a shawl, rug, mat, coat or overcoat, if any be within reach, and wrap it closely around the burning part. Or, if not, lie down and roll on the

carpet; at the same time crushing the burning garment with the hands. If one sees another person on fire, the same thing ought to be done. A man's overcoat or a rug, etc., may be thrown closely about the victim of the flames, who should be quickly laid down on the floor, so as to be covered more readily and entirely. The reason for this is, that the way to extinguish any fire, large or small, is, to shut out the air from it.

When a person is badly burned, the shock to the nervous system is followed by prostration or collapse. There is great weakness, pallor of face, flickering pulse, short breathing, and coldness of the body. For this condition, opium, in the form of laudanum (fifteen drops at once, repeated if necessary in an hour, until three or four doses have been taken) is a good stimulus. Small quantities of whisky or brandy also, one or two teaspoonfuls at a time, may be given, at half-hour intervals, for a while; to be withheld at once when signs of reaction come. Such signs are, strengthening of the pulse, warming of the skin, and return of color to the face.

For the burn or scald itself, there is no better application than limewater and oil (flaxseed, olive, or lard oil) mixed together in equal parts. Lint, if it can be had, if not, muslin or linen rags, should be well wet with this, and laid all over the burn. If the burnt surface be extensive, over the lime-water and oil dressing put a layer of cotton wadding, for warmth. Should it be a small burn, put instead of this a piece of oiled silk, oiled paper, or rubber cloth.

A burned hand or foot will obtain the best relief by being held in cold water for some time. A remedy for limited burns which has lately become popular is, a saturated solution of soda (sodium bicarbonate). Other applications sometimes used are, simple oil (lamp-oil, castor-oil, etc.), and powdered starch. But nothing is equal in effect to the "Carron oil," as the mixture of lime-water and oil has long been called.

When the sufferer's clothing covers the burn, it should be carefully removed by untying, unbuttoning, and cutting everything needful, so as to get all off without pulling or much moving the injured body. Raised water-blisters should be merely nicked to let out the water; leaving the cuticle to protect the true skin underneath. Then apply the dressing above spoken of. If the patient reacts and does well, the limewater and oil rags must be renewed when they begin to get dry; taking them off with extreme gentleness, so as to disturb the parts as little as possible. After two or three days, a dressing of simple cerate, thickly spread on lint or soft rags, may be substituted for the oily dressing. Deep and extensive burns are sometimes very slow to heal, and leave ugly contracting scars which may require special surgical attention.

Carrying Injured Persons. See Transportation; the last item in this series of subjects.

Choking; Strangling. These are not the same in causation; but the danger is in both the same,—stoppage of breathing by an obstruction in the windpipe. In choking, properly so called, the obstacle is within the throat; in strangling, it is from a cord, etc., outside of and around it; as in hanging. (For arrest of breathing by charcoal gas, etc., see Suffocation.)

Choking is most frequently caused by getting something "the wrong way" in swallowing. That is, what should go down into the gullet or swallowing throat (pharynx and asophagus) gets into the windpipe (larynx and trachea). The windpipe is just in front of the swallowing gullet; the latter is next to the spine. When one laughs, or in any way breathes, while swallowing, this accident may happen. Even a drop of water going the wrong way, will cause a distressing spasm of the windpipe; but this is over in a few moments. Danger follows when a solid mass—as a mouthful of meat,—slips into the larynx; or when a large piece of meat gets stuck fast in the pharynx (gullet) so as to press on the trachea (windpipe) forcibly enough to keep air from being breathed through it into the lungs. Commonest of all, perhaps, is a fish-bone, or a chicken-bone, getting crosswise, so that it neither goes up nor down. Other things may slip into the windpipe. I know a lady whose health was impaired for years, with t' reatening of consumption, by a little piece of gum-elastic, which she had in her mouth, getting into the bronchial tube; lower than the trachea, near one of the lungs.

No time is to be lost, when any one is choking. A long-fingered person should try to dip a forefinger at once into the throat as far as it will reach, to draw up and out the offending bone, or whatever it is. If it is a child, lift him up by the heels and slap him smartly, while in that position, between the shoulders. Children sometimes swallow pins; they stick, as bones are apt to do, across the entrance to the throat, pretty far up. Surgeons have long slender forceps and other instruments with which to seize such articles and withdraw them. All such things, everything except a piece of solid food in the swallowing throat, should be taken out, not pushed down. If time allows, a piece of wire may have a loop made in its end, and then be curved near that end, so as to be passed down, behind or below the obstacle, to draw it out. A proof that the thing is in the windpipe is obtained if the person can swallow a drink of water, yet has great distress and difficulty in breathing. This difficulty is great in expiration (out-breathing) as well as in inspiration. A physician being sent for immediately, in an urgent case, fatal suffocation being threatened, may find it necessary to open the larynx or trachea,

by an incision, in order to save life. If the immediate danger be passed, the question of such an operation may still have to be considered, when

a foreign body remains in any part of the air-passages.

Strangling is best known in the form of hanging. In the latter, however, as used for the execution of criminals, dropping several feet under the gallows adds another cause of death; displacement of the bones of the upper part of the spinal column, crushing the spinal marrow. Simple strangling kills in two ways: arrest of breathing, and prevention of return of blood from the head to the heart; through pressure on the great veins of the neck. Either would suffice for the result; but the former is the quicker.

Hanging is a frequent mode of snicide. If any one is found hanging by the neck, hold up the weight of the body, and at once loosen the cord at the neck; cutting it will generally be the speediest way, if a knife is at hand. Then lay the person down, and, with as much fresh air around as possible, dash cold water lightly on the face (if it be in a warm place, on the bare chest also). Rub the arms and legs briskly, especially upwards, to favor the movement of blood in the veins, which is towards the heart. Heat a poker or flat-iron, not quite to a burning heat, but so that a hand cannot rest on it long with comfort; and touch that gently upon the pit of the stomach, and then draw it along down each side of the back. Apply mustard-plasters to the legs.

But all these things should be got ready and done by the secondary assistant or assistants. If a person cut down from hanging does not breathe, he should be laid on his back on the floor or ground, wherever he is, without loss of time. A roll of clothing, like a round knapsack, should be placed under his shoulders; and then artificial respiration should be attempted,

by Silvester's method. See Drowning.

Dislocations. Displacements of bones at their joints. See Joints, Dislocated.

Drowning. One whole minute under water will, except with a few practised divers, end life in a human being. Still, by active means, those longer immersed, as much as five minutes, have been restored. We read in books of this having happened after fifteen minutes' immersion. This seems to me doubtful. But it is always worth while and right to give every drowned person the benefit of the doubt, and to work over him for at least an hour, even if no signs of life appear, before giving him up.

Drowning kills by exclusion of air from the blood in the lungs; water taking its place. Otherwise, the water, as such, is innocent of harm. This is said to be an easy mode of death. Those recovered from it describe it as a sort of dreamy sleep, followed by entire unconsciousness. We may as well remark here how not to drown, when in the water and not knowing how to swim. (Every boy and girl ought, however, very early in life, to learn to swim. It is not hard to teach one's self. The whole art of it is to strike out, slightly downwards and outwar', with the flattened hands and closed fingers, both arms and both legs, all at once, time and again, without loss of time by any unnecessary interval; keeping the mouth as high as can be all the time.)

In that case, there are two ways of doing. One is, to tread water; that is, to let the feet go down, and tread, rapidly, one foot after the other, as if working a treadmill; paddling in the same way also with the hands, one after another. Any one having confidence, as those have who have learned to swim, can keep this up with ease for a long time. Less exertion, however, is required for floating. In sca-water, which is heavy with salt, this is easier than it is in the fresh water of a river or inland pond. Still, it can always be done, if attempted right. Lie straight out on the back, with the arms at length by your sides, the mouth and nose out of water, the back of the head just under the surface; the toes just above or at the surface, the heels submerged. Then paddle gently with the hands. In any other position, the greater weight of the head makes it go down first, and drowning must result. Dr. Franklin, it is said, used to go to sleep floating on the water; so easy had habit made this position to him.

A person has been, we will suppose, a few minutes under water, and is dragged out. At once, on the spot (there is no time to take him anywhere else) lay him first on his stomach, and raise his feet a little higher than his head, for a few moments; some one at the same time pressing with moderate force on the sides of the chest. The object of this is to let water flow out, if it will, from the lungs. My belief in this is con-

firmed by what happened with a dog, which, with the intention of drowning it, I had held under water about ten minutes. As it seemed to be dead, I took it out of the tub, and threw it on the ground. This chanced to slope, so that the cur's head was lower than its feet. In about two minutes, the creature rose and walked away, none the worse for his ducking.



ARTIFICIAL RESPIRATION.

Next, lay the patient on his back, and put under his shoulders a roll of clothing, such as a rolled-up overcoat, a hard pillow, etc. Draw out his tongue, with a thumb and finger, and get some one to hold it until it can be fixed forward, to prevent it from falling back and closing the entrance to the windpipe. For this fixation, best will be a strong india-



ARTIFICIAL RESPIRATION.

rubber band. If none such is on hand, a paper-cutter, or a small stick, may be held upon the drawn-out tongue, pressing it against the lower teeth.

Now comes the effort to produce artificial respiration. Silvester's method is the best.

Stand or kneel behind his head, and take hold of his arms just above the elbows. Draw them both gently and steadily upwards, over and back of the head, at their full length; and keep them there for a second or so.* Then carry them back again to the patient's sides, and press the elbows firmly against his sides, for another second or so. Go on doing this, perseveringly, if necessary, for an hour or more. The object of it is, to promote expansion of the lungs to admit air, by the first movement; and its expulsion again, by the second movement.

Meanwhile, another assistant should cut the clothing so as to remove it, rub the skin dry, and cover the body with warm flannel. The legs may be rubbed briskly, upward, so as to favor the return of blood in the veins to the heart. Smelling-salts may be now and then held for a few moments under the nostrils. If a fire be near, heat a small flatiron, or a roker or shovel, not quite to the burning point, but pretty hot, and togeh it gently, again and again, to the skin over the pit of the stomach. This is a powerful mode of stimulation.

When natural breathing begins, stop the arm movements. Continue the rubbing, but also have hot bricks, flat-irons, or bags of sand or salt, bottles of hot water, or anything else warm, laid alongside of the patient's body, and put to his feet. Get him now upon a bed. Shortly, he will recover so as to swallow; and hot milk or hot coffee or tea will be better for him than anything else.

Having witnessed, at Atlantic City, some years ago, the drowning of two persons, who, after not more than five minutes of submergence beyond the breakers, were drawn out but could not be restored by the above usual measures, I have reflected a good deal on this subject of artificial respiration. It has appeared to me there ought to be some still better way of obtaining it. After various experiments, I have had made an abdominal tractor; a small hand-pump, to draw upon a large metal cup or bowl, placed upon the abdomen. The object of this is, to lift the contents of the abdomen away from the diaphragm (large breathing muscle at the floor of the chest; see Anatomy), and allow it free play in beginning respiration. This can be applied and used at the same time with the Silvester movements above described, and ought to assist them materially. So far, I have had no opportunity to give this apparatus a trial upon a drowning person.

^{*} The common direction is, for two seconds. I believe there is no advantage, but the contrary, in such slowness.

Ear, Foreign Bodies in. So disagreeable is the odor of the natural ear-wax, and so sticky is it to insects' feet and the bodies of grubs or worms, that they very seldom find their way into any one's ear; even when sleeping on open ground or in the woods. Once in a great while such a thing may happen. To get an insect out, let the person lie on the other side, and let some one pour in, slowly, cold water. Alarm may then cause it to back out; if not, before long the water will drown it. Then the larger part, or the whole (if it be not too soft) may be got out with a pair of ear-picks, or with a hair-pin bent into a scoop at its round end, or a piece of wire bent at one end into a small loop or ring. Particles still left can be washed out with warm water injected from a small syringe.

Children sometimes put peas into their own or one another's ears. Then, water should not be poured in; it would make the pea swell up and give more trouble. Careful use of an ear-pick or bent wire (as above), with a strong light thrown upon the ear-passage, will generally succeed in getting the pea out. A large hand-magnifier, such as is often used to look at engravings, etc., will help in this effort. If a shot has been put into the ear, pour in a teaspoonful of olive or almond oil, and then let the child be turned rather suddenly over, so as to cause the shot

to roll or slide out.

Eye, Foreign Bodics in. Small particles, of sand, dust, cinders from a locomotive, etc., often get under the upper or lower eyelid; most frequently the latter. If the particle be very small, closing the eyes and blowing the nose hard several times, rolling the eyeballs at the same time, will be apt to work it, by aid of the flow of tears, to the inner corner of the eye; where it can be easily removed. To relieve another person of such an annoyance, first make sure where it is. Open the eye in a strong light, and draw down the lower lid. Use a magnifying-glass, if one can be got (a good thing always to have in a house). If you see the speck, a camel's-hair pencil (small paint-brush) will be the best thing to get it out with. Draw the brush backwards against it; don't push at it with the point of the brush. If there is no such brush at hand, the corner of a soft handkerchief may be used instead.

Should nothing be found under the lower lid, you must look under the upper one. Seat the person on a chair, and stand behind him; then, with his head leaning back, hold a lead-pencil or pen-holder in the right hand, and, drawing out the upper lid by its lashes, the patient looking downward, you lay the pencil along the lid and turn the latter up over the pencil. It is not difficult, with a little confidence, to do this with a finger instead of a pencil, and standing in front of the patient. While

the lid is turned up, look closely to find the intruding particle, and remove it with a brush or a handkerchief, as above described. The eyes must then be kept at rest, closed for awhile, to get over the disturbance; otherwise a troublesome inflammation may result. Quite often, when there has been a particle in the eye, but it has been rubbed out, there will still be left a feeling, exactly as if it was still there. When this is the case, a careful examination showing it to be so, the irritation will gradually disappear, if the eyes are kept quiet.

Pieces of stone or iron sometimes fly into the eyes and are lodged in the front of the ball. Their removal will require surgical skill. A powerful magnet may assist in getting out a fragment of steel or iron from the eye.

After all, to get a movable particle out of one's eye, the best way in most cases will be for the person to open both eyes in a basin of clean cold water; while they are open moving the head once or twice from side to side, so as to wash the particle out of the eye.

Fainting. One who faints, falls, unless held up, as when standing or sitting up in a crowded place. But not every fall is fainting. It may be an epileptic fit; but then the patient is convulsed; that is, his limbs, and perhaps the muscles of his face, jerk. There is a modified form of epileptic attack, not common, in which the sufferer lies still; in that, however, the pulse is not so weak as in syncope or fainting.

One attacked with apoplexy falls; but his flushed (or at least not pale) face, warm or hot head, slow and full pulse, and slow, snoring breathing, make the case clear. An intoxicated person, or one stupefied with opium, may be found lying unconscious. The odor of liquor in the former, and the contracted pupils of the eyes of the latter usually serve for distinctions. (Odor of liquor on the breath, however, does not prove that the person may not have apoplexy as well as intoxication.)

In a faint, the face is pale, the forehead cool or cold, the pulse absent or extremely weak, the breathing noiseless and feeble. Once in a while we meet with mixed attacks; almost always in those whose hearts have undergone some degenerative change; in which there is a partial stupor, perhaps with snoring breathing, along, with the other signs of fainting. Such an attack differs from apoplexy in that it soon passes off, and leaves no palsy after it. But such spells are comparatively rare.

Fainting is most commou in young women; next so, in weakly old people of either sex. In these last it is most dangerous, and may in them easily end in death. What happens in a faint is this: the heart gives out, and sends no fresh blood to the brain; the brain fails, therefore, to maintain consciousness, and the person falls. This fall is advantageous, because it causes more blood to flow to the brain, and, consciousness being renewed, the heart also having less laborious work when the body is level, all starts again. A crowded and close room is a frequent place for fainting. Fright, the sight of blood, and other mental causes, as well as fatigue, may produce it, in those liable to it. Some persons never faint, through a long lifetime; others do so often, even on very small occasions.

What to do for fainting? Lay the person down at once. Get the crowd, if there be one, to move away. Open the windows, or carry the unconscious patient (horizontally) out into the fresh air. Sprinkle cold water on the face; loosen everything about the neck and chest; hold smelling-ealts, for a moment at a time, under the nostrils. An

ordinary syncopal attack will thus soon pass away.

Fractures. Broken Bones. Most frequently broken is the radius; the thumb-side bone of the forearm, which is most closely connected with the hand. We may break it by falling on the hand with force.

In the same way also the ulna may be fractured; the other bone of the forearm. Next often broken is the bone of the arm (humerus) above the elbow; and frequently also the clavicle, or collar-bone. After these (besides fractures of the fingers), come fractures of the larger bone of the leg (tibia, shin-bone) below the knee; the thigh-bone (femur); of the ribs; of the knee-pan; and of the nose, lower jaw, and skull.

We know a bone to be broken by the change in its shape; the pain caused by every movement; and the crackling noise (not lond), and erackling feeling to the touch, produced when the parts are moved. A broken limb is generally shortened; the muscles above and below the place of fracture drawing the two pieces so as to overlap each other. When the break is near a joint, it is sometimes difficult to be sure whether there is a fracture or a dislocation. This difficulty is much increased when swelling and inflammation follow, some hours after an injury. In examining to determine a change of shape in a limb, always compare it with its own fellow, on the opposite side of the body. The two are almost sure, when sound, to be alike; and if not so after one is hurt, this will help us to an understanding of the case. There is a change of shape also in dislocations; but in them the bones cannot be moved without great resistance; there is no crackling (erepitation) heard or felt; and when the bone is put back to its right place, it will stay there.

The most serious fractures are those called compound fractures; in which there is a wound of the flesh, communicating with the broken ends of the bone. Sometimes one end of a fragment is forced quite out through the skin.

In the treatment of fractured bones, the two aims are, to get the broken parts into their right places again, and to keep them there until they "knit together." This takes place by a natural process of growth, exactly like that by which a wound is healed on the surface of the body. A thick colorless fluid, plastic lymph, is poured out around and between the ends of the fragments of the broken bone. Gradually this fluid is, between those fragment-ends, changed to gristle (cartilage); and, in time, that gristle becomes solid bone. In one bone, when broken, the knee-pan (patella), it seldom gets beyond the stage of gristle or cartilage; because that bone, from its situation, receives too little blood to enable it to grow or repair so well as other parts.

Putting a broken bone back to its right shape is called "setting" the bone. This is done, in most instances, by stretching the limb, so as to overcome the shortening action of the muscles; and at the same time adjusting the fragments by proper pressure near the place of fracture. After this has been effected, as nearly as possible, some means are needed

to hold the parts in the same position. For this, splints, bandages, adhesive plasters, etc., are used.

No unprofessional person should venture, if avoidable, to carry out the treatment of a broken bone without the aid and direction of a surgeon. It often happens, however, that, at the time of an accident, no professional assistance can be obtained. It is therefore desirable that, besides the above general statements, something should be here said of the "first aid" required in the fractures most likely to occur.

Forearm. Most often the radius, sometimes both it and the ulna, suffer fracture from a heavy full forward on the hand. Except at the elbow and at the wrist, there is seldom difficulty in ascertaining the nature of this injury. Make a couple of splints of thin wood, or thick pasteboard, or binder's-board, each rather wider than the lorearm, and long enough to reach from the elbow to the tips of the fingers. Lay along on one side of each splint a layer of cotton; and, while one person grasps the haud of the patient, with his thumb upward, and draws moderately upon it, put the spliuts one on the front, and the other on the back of



A SIMPLE SLING

the forearm. Then put on a bandage, about two and one-half or three inches wide, over the splints: beginning near the hand eud, and turning and reversing until the whole length of the splints has been covered. This bandage should be firm, but not uncomfortably tight. I knew one case in which mortification took place from an excessively tight bandage on the forearm. When the dector comes, he will examine and probably readi of the splints, and see to the farther care of the case. When the splints have been applied, however, the arm should be placed in a sling. That is, a large handkerchief, or a bandage, should have its ends tied together, so that, when it is hung over the back of the neck, the hand may be slipped into the loop; the limb will be thus kept at rest in one position. On lying

down, take away the sling, and lay the injured arm at case on a pillow.

If it be necessary in any case to take care of a broken forearm or arm without a surgeon, one thing to remember is, that the fingers should be

moved (bent and extended) every day or two, at least after the first week, to prevent their becoming stiff and uscless. Near the end of the time of treatment, say after three weeks, the splint on the palmar side may be so shortened as to allow the fingers to be bent over its rounded end; and the patient should then be sure to give them such exercise several times daily, to keep their muscles in condition.

Elbow and wrist injuries are so difficult of management that I hesitate to endeavor to specify particulars concerning them, as they will engage all the skill of the trained practitioner. Good sense, with presence of mind, will be likely to suggest whatever addition to the above first treatment will be safe while waiting for professional advice. I may

merely add that the reason for not putting a bandage over the broken forearm before putting on the splints, is, that the difficulty, in fracture of the radius or ulna, is, to keep the two bones sufficiently apart; and a bandage alone, or one first applied, would force them too close together. There is no danger of their being pressed too far apart.

Arm. The most common fracture of the humerus is not far from its middle; more troublesome, is a break near either end. The first of these i: easily recognized, by the pain, mobility at the place



BROKEN ARM IN SPLINTS.

nized, by the pain, mobility at the place of the break, and crackling on motion, to the touch if not to the car.

An angular splint, one piece from armpit to elbow, and the other at right angles with this from elbow to ends of the fingers, will be here serviceable; also, three short splints, of the length of the arm, from shoulder to elbow. First, however, the whole arm should be bandaged; from wrist around the hand, then up over the wrist and forearm (the arm held at right angles at the elbow) and the arm, to near the armpit and shoulder. The bandage should be evenly and firmly, but not too tightly applied. If no splints can be immediately obtained, a thin twelve-mo book, of one hundred to one hundred and fifty pages, may be padded with cotton and placed under the arm to the armpit. Then pass a wide bandage (three to four inches) around the arm and body; the forearm being held against the chest with the thumb upwards. This will do to keep the injured arm at rest till proper surgical aid arrives.

When a finger-bone is broken, its treatment is simple enough. Straighten it out, and put on its front and back small splints cut from a cigar-box, or made of thick pasteboard, or the back of an old book.

etc. Sticking-plaster will here be more convenient than bandage, to retain the splints in place.



FIGURE OF 8.

Coller-Bone. This fracture is not an easy one to manage successfully. A number of kinds of apparatus have been invented and are used for it. The "indication," as doctors call it, is to press and keep the shoulder upwards, outwards, and backwards. The natural tendency, when the clavicle is broken, is for the shoulder to fall; the ends of the broken bone tilting up near its middle, Having seen a good many broken clavieles in hospital and private practice, my deliberate advice to the unprofessional good Samaritan is, to get his patient who has suffered this accident to bed, on his back to lie there as still as he can until the doctor comes. In justification of this advice, it may be added, that some very good cures of fractured collar-bone have been obtained

by this method alone, carried out until the bone united.

Ribs. We know a broken rib chiefly by pain in breathing, moving, or pressing on the seat of fracture. There is little displacement, one rib



DRESSING FOR FRACT-URED RIB.

acting as a splint to its next neighbor. A bad rib-fracture may involve the pressure of a fragment-end into the lung; when there will be spitting of blood and much trouble. Commonly, fracture of a rib is one of the easiest of accidents to treat.

The old method, of enveloping the whole chest in a broad (four-inch) bandage, answers very well indeed. The idea of it is, to keep the ribs at rest, the patient breathing almost entirely by the diaphragm (abdominal respiration). Recently, surgeons generally prefer adhesive

plasters; a number of them, moderately wide, being successfully applied only on the injured side of the chest. Under either method, while the patient may not need to remain in bed, he should move about very slowly, using his arms but little, and doing nothing to hurry respiration. A broken rib will knit in about four weeks. A radius or ulna fracture will be well usually in about the same time, or less; a humerus or clavicle in scarcely more. A broken leg (tibia or fibula) is commonly well in a month or so; a thigh (femur) will require eight or ten weeks for security.

Fig. 258.

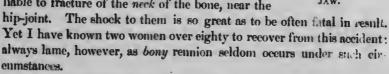
Nose. One or both of the small bones of the nose (see Anatomy) may be easily broken by a blow. The change of shape of the nose may then be seen and felt, until swelling makes everything obscure. Intendiately after the injury, or, if that has been neglected, then after the inflammation has subsided (under lead-water application and twenty-four to forty-eight hours' time), endeavor should be made to adjust the fragments aright. If this cannot be done from the outside alone, grease with tallow or oil a slender lead-pencil, or the tapering end of a wooden pen-holder, and very gently push it up the nostril on the side which is depressed. After so restoring its shape, if it does not stay so, insert a small roll of cotton, well anointed with oil, tallow, or vaseline, to act as a soft splint. This should be changed every day as long as it is used.

Lower Jaw. This may be broken by a violent blow. The line of teeth may be easily examined and found broken; and the movement at the seat of fracture will be seen and felt.

To set a broken jaw is not difficult; but more pains will be needed

to keep it right until the bone knits, which happens in from two to three weeks. All food must be liquid, and introduced by means of a quill, or through a glass tube between the teeth. The jaws must be closed together evenly, and bound so. The required bandage is one under the chin and over the top of the head. To retain that in place, another bandage around the forehead and back of the head should be put on, and secured to the first over the forehead by pins. This simple upparatus will answer at least till the doctor comes.

Thigh. The thigh-bone may be broken in either of several places. Old persons are especially EANDAGE FOR BROKEN liable to fracture of the neck of the bone, near the

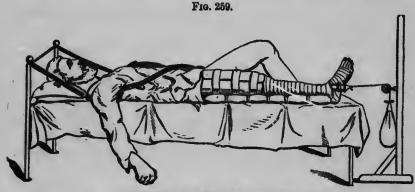


In younger persons, the commonest fracture is not far from the middle of the femur (thigh-bone); and oblique, so as to cause considerable shortening, by action of the muscles. Treatment of this requires surgical skill and care; with the best of which, from a quarter of an inch to an inch and a half of shortening will sometimes remain. This will not prove of much inconvenience. Indeed it is quite common for the two sound limbs of a person to differ half an inch or more in length.

If an old man or woman (seventy years or more of age) falls and lies

helpless, with the toe of the injured limb turned outward, and much pain at the hip on moving that leg, even if no crackling is heard or felt with that motion, and with very little shortening of the limb, it is most probably a fracture of the neck of the thigh-bone. Carefully lift such a one, one person taking charge of the injured limb, and two others the head, shoulders, and feet; and lay him or her on a bed. Make the hurt leg as straight as it can comfortably be, upon a pillow laid lengthwise. Then wait until professional advice can be had as to whether any apparatus is worth while or not in such a case.

Should it be uccessary, in the absence of a surgeon, to do something for a fracture of the thigh-bone in the course of its shaft (easily known by the deformity, pain, and crackling ou moving the limb), the same care will be necessary in getting the patient to bed, with a pillow lengthwise under the broken thigh; if comfort seems to require it, another



EXTENSION FOR FRACTURE OF THIGH.

pillow also under the leg and foot. Then pass long and broad strips of adhesive plaster in long spirals up the sides of and around the leg, as high as the knee (bandages will do if there is no plaster at hand), and make a loop of them below the sole of the foot. Attach a cord to this loop, and carry it over the foot of the bed, or over a piece of smooth round wood fastened there for the purpose; and to the lower end of the cord attach a weight; from four to ten pounds, according to what the patient bears without complaint. To stretch the limb as fully as possible, draw him up by the shoulders, with some force, towards the head of the bed. The purpose of the weight is, to keep the limb all the time as much extended as it will bear, so that the bone will knit with but little shortening. If the thigh is broken straight across, instead of obliquely, and the fragments are set in place, end to end, there may be no shortening at all. Further to protect the broken limb from being

moved out of shape, we want a simple splint. For this, cut a piece of gutta-percha, if it can be had, just long enough to reach from the fold of the buttock to the bend of the knee, and wide enough, when bent over, to cover about half the thickness of the thigh. Soak this piece in hot water until it becomes moderately soft and flexible. Then fit it, by pressure, to the shape of the under side of the sound thigh, which can be raised for the purpose without disturbing the injured limb. Put a not very thick layer of cotton inside of this splint, when it cools and hardens, letting the cotton overlap the upper and lower ends of it, to protect the skin there from rubbing. With great care, raise the broken limb and adjust this splint under the thigh; and secure it by passing around it and over the thigh several pieces of wide tape or narrow bandage, which may be tied with moderate tightness above the thigh. If gutta-percha cannot be obtained, felt, binder's-board, or two or three layers of thick pasteboard, may be used in nearly the same way, but

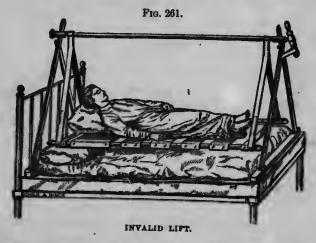


with less advantage. There are other ways of treating fractured thighs, with splints, inclined planes, and so forth, which you will find described in works on surgery; but the above is the simplest, and will do all that is likely to be well accomplished by unprofessional hands. One of the difficulties in treating this fracture is, arranging for the patient to have his bowels moved. For the bladder, a urinal will answer, with very little disturbance. The most complete way is to have a fracture bed; with a round or square hole in the bedstead, having a dropping lid below, and a corresponding movable piece cut out of and fitting into the mattress, near its middle.

Eight or ten weeks will generally be required after a fracture of the thigh before the patient can venture safely upon his feet. During that long time, much care must be taken to avoid bedsores, especially in a thin and weak person. Wherever there is constant pressure, the skin ought to be bathed every day with whisky or scap-liniment. If any

redness or tenderness appear, put on the part two layers of adhesive plaster, smoothly applied, or a piece of soft buckskin spread with soap plaster. Air-cushions, water-cushions, or small pillowlets made for the purpose, are often used, and have advantages; but the double artificial skin made by adhesive plaster will seldom fail to give protection to a tender part. It is worth while to repeat here that shortening of the thigh of as much as an inch permanently will not cause any great inconvenience. A patient of mine who recovered with at least three quarters of an inch of unavoidable shortening, when I saw her a year afterwards, had forgotten which limb it was that had been broken.

Knee-pan (Patella). As already said, this is a very undesirable bone to have broken; it is so nearly impossible to have it knit solidly again. A fall upon the knee may fracture it; but it is quite as often broken



by a sudden and violent strain of the powerful muscles of the thigh attached to it; as in making a great endeavor to avoid falling backwards. A tall and active man, who became my patient, thus broke his patella in trying to save himself from a fall in skating.

It is usually easy to make sure of the existence of this fracture, as the bone is small and covered only by skin, if it be examined immediately after the occurrence of the injury. When swelling and inflammation have come on, there is sometimes difficulty. Always, however, the leg is disabled from motion, every effort giving much pain; and, in the absence of swelling, the separation of the two pieces is observable,—unless it be (exceptionally) a lengthwise, up and down, instead of a cross or horizontal fracture.

To treat this injury, the leg must be kept out straight, on a well-

cottoned long splint, reaching from below the hip to beyond the heel. Then "figure of cight" pressure is wanted, to draw the two fragments (in horizontal fracture) as near as they will come together. If anything is tightly bound directly around the knee, it will check the circulation of blood in the limb more than is safe. But with the wooden splint beneath the knee, we may cause a great degree of pressure above the



limb, putting whatever is used around the splint below. Adhesive plasters will be more reliable for this purpose than a bandage. One strip of Martin's (or Grovenor & Richards) surgeons' adhesive plaster, which is elastic, may be put obliquely over the leg just below the knee-pan and around the splint; and another strip just above the patella, and obliquely downward, being secured to the splint underneath. Then fix the whole limb to the splint with a long (2½ or 3-inch wide) bandage, beginning below and wrapping it upwards as far as the upper part of the thigh.

Leg. The larger bone of the leg (tibia) is much more frequently broken than the more slender outer one (fibula). A simple fracture of the tibia is easily discovered, by the change of shape, pain, and crackling (crepitation) when it is moved at the part broken. In treatment of it, if a doctor is expected, merely lay the patient on a bed, and place the limb (stretching it with moderate force by drawing upon the foot, if it seems shortened) on a pillow. Then pass around the pillow and leg several pieces of broad tape or narrow bandage, tying them in bow-knots above the leg. If no surgeon can be obtained, it will be well to have a simple fracture box made, in which the leg will

rest on the pillow with more security. For this, it needs a piece of wood a little longer than the leg (from the knee down) and also a little wider than it, to lie under it; also two pieces of the same length and of about the same width, to make sides to the box. These should be attached with hinges to the under piece, which last is the



A FRACTURE BOX.

bottom of the box. Lastly, a foot-board should be made to stand up

from the lower end of the under piece, being securely fastened to it. This is to steady the foot, when the sides of the box are brought np against the pillow on which the leg lies at rest. Narrow bandages may then go under the bottom of the fracture box and around it and the leg. to be tied above; and a handkerchief or bandage will keep the foot with sufficient firmness against the foot-board. Shortening is not common from fracture of the leg, if it be well drawn down and "set" in the first place. Extension of the leg can be practised, if necessary, by means of a weight and pulley over the foot of the bed, as for fracture

of the thigh; but it is seldom required.

Fracture of the smaller bone of the leg (fibula) is hard to ascertain, and more difficult to manage. This bone is the one that connects with the outer side of the ankle (side of the little toe; the great toe being on the inner side). There it can be felt, and, if broken, there will be some change of shape; more motion, though painful on pressure, than in the sound limb at the same part; and more or less crepitation or crackling, felt if not seen, when such motion is made. If a surgeon cannot be had, which is very desirable, to treat this fracture, have a wooden splint made, a little longer than the leg, and of about its width. Pad it rather thickly, but evenly, with cotton, fastened to it by means of a bandage; lay this splint along the inner side of the ley, from just above the knee to just below the foot, and bandage the splint to the limb, from below upwards, as firmly as cau be borne with comfort. This will be likely, if readjusted carefully from time to time, to promote the union of the bone without serious deformity or lameness.

Fractures of the leg are often treated by surgeons with a dressing of splints and bandages soaked in a plaster of Paris mixture, or a solution of silicate of sodium (soluble glass); which becomes fixed, like wood or stone, so as to keep the bones in place even while the patient is walking about. But such applications require more judgment and skill than ordinary splints and bandages, and had better never be undertaken by unprofessional persons. We refer for the account of them to works on Surgery.

Bones of the foot (tarsus, metatarsus, and digits; see Anatomy) cannot well be broken without great violence. This being the case, apparatus is seldom in place in their treatment. Such injuries will be considered under bruised and erushed Wounds.

Compound fractures are those in which an end of the broken bone projects through the skin; or, in some other way, a wound is made, communicating with the seat of fracture. They are much more serious and difficult to treat than simple fractures. If such should occur where no surgeon can be obtained for a considerable time, the patient should be

put to bed, and a fracture box should be made, whether the bone broken be an arm or a leg. Let this box, instead of containing a pillow, be half filled with clean bran or fine sawdust; and lay the injured limb, as straight as can be, in that material. Every day the wound near the fracture should be examined. If a discharge of matter (pus) occurs, very gently remove the bran or sawdust which has been soiled by it; washing the wound at the same time carefully with a little lime-water. Very good cures have often been obtained, of compound fractures treated in this manner.

Skull fractures will receive attention shortly, under Head, Injuries of.

Hanging. See Choking.

Head, Injuries of. Cuts and bruises of the scalp will be spoken of under Wounds. Blows on the head may be followed by either of two results: concussion or compression of the brain. Concussion is simply shock. A person falls and strikes the head. He is "stunned," and lies unconscious. His breathing is natural, his pulse feeble and rather more rapid than usual, his face pale. On shaking or speaking to him, he may be partly but not entirely roused. Let him hie still, in a warm place. Probably in a few minutes, possibly longer, rarely after several hours or even days, he will recover consciousness. Then, especially with a child, there is some danger, which is not over for at least two weeks, of inflammation of the brain following. Therefore, any one stunned in such a way should be kept very quiet in mind and body for two or three weeks after the injury; even if no unfavorable symptoms appear.

Again, some one falls and strikes the head, very hard, or receives a violent blow upon it. He lies unconscious, snoring with deep, slow breathing; with a slow and full pulse, face flushed, and head warmer than natural. We infer that he has compression of the brain. This may result in either of two ways: the skull may be broken, and a piece of it may be pressed down upon the brain; or a clot of blood may be formed where a blood-vessel has been ruptured. In either case, it is pressure on the brain which causes the stupor (coma). It is true, and important to be remembered, that the same sort of coma or stupor, with the same signs, may be caused in other ways. A man dead-drunk is in a state of coma. His breath will smell of liquor, and his whole "make-up" will mostly show his history. Poisoning with opium (as laudanum, or morphia) produces a closely similar narcotic coma. Such a one will, if his eyelids be open, be seen to have his pupils contracted. Lastly, apoplexy, without any blow or heavy fall, gives the same symptoms; pressure of blood on the brain existing in an attack of that disease; from either excess of blood in the vessels, or its escape from the vessels, forming a clot.

When, then, a person has not been seen or known to fall, but is found lying in a condition of stupor, from which he cannot be roused, all these possibilities are to be remembered. Examine his head, with your eye and hand, all over. If any bruised spot be found, cut the hair there very short, in order to make a more thorough examination. You may find a depression, or an inequality, showing a fracture of the skull; or, with evidence of a bruise, no break may be discovered, and yet the inner, more brittle plate of the skull may be fractured; or the jar may have extended elsewhere, making a crack (by "contre-coup," as the

French call it) in the base of the skull. A symptom of this, sometimes

seen, is bleeding from the ears.

What to do? Lay him on a bed and let him lie still. It is a grievous mistake to suppose that you must not let a person sleep when he has had an injury of the brain. One case only, with somewhat similar symptoms, requires opposite management; namely, the stupor of opiate or other narcotic poisoning. When sure of that being the matter, it is right to keep the patient awake. (See Opium Poisoning, later in this book.) If there be a fracture of the skull, or compression of the brain by a clot of blood, the treatment proper is of a kind unsuited to nonprofessional hands. A surgeon should be had as soon as possible. In a clear case, he may lift up the depressed fragment of bone; or perhaps, with a trephine, may remove a small round piece of the skull so as to take off pressure. Life has in a number of instances been thus saved: although it is one of the most precarious of surgical operations as to its results. It is wonderful how slight a blow, in some cases, will destroy life; and again, what terrible-seeming injuries of the head may be survived and recovered from. A man in Maine was famous some time ago for living twenty years after an iron rod was, by an explosion, driven clear through his head; and a distinguished physician lately lived iu Philadelphia who, after being struck down by an unruly horse, had twenty-three pieces taken out of his frontal bone, where it was fractured. I had under my care in the Pennsylvania Hospital a carter who broke his head by a fall while drunk. Four ounces of brain came out at the place of fracture, where there was a ridge five or six inches Yet he recovered; and seemed about as good (or good for nothing) as before.













CROSSED SLIP-ENOTS.





DOUBLE BOW-KNOT.

If for fastening the muslim around fracture apparatus, he threads securing the little ages about the flugers and



SURGEON'S KNOT. ployed when a thread is tied d an artery.





DOUBLE KNOTTED AND LOOPED KNOT.



Is the one formed over the temple by the knotted bandage of the head.



REEF OR SAILOR'S KNOT.



CLOVE RITCH.
Used in applying the extendi



SINGLE NOOSE



BOUBLE NOOSE.

Joints, Displaced. Dislocation is the common name for a "bone being out of joint." Most common of dislocations are those of the thumb or fingers; next, perhaps, of the jaw; then of the shoulder; next, the thigh, at the hip-joint. In hanging, or on falling headlong, dislocation of the head and first vertebra of the spine may occur; being usually called "breaking the neck."

The jaw is sometimes knocked out of place by a blow, but is more often dislocated by being opened too widely, as in yawning or scolding violently. It then stays wide open, and the month cannot be shut. To get it back, some one must wrap his two thumbs thickly with handkerchiefs or something else to protect them. Then place one thumb upon



DISLOCATION OF SHOULDER.

the back teeth on each side, the fingers coming under the patient's chin. Press the jaw foreibly downwards (and a little backwards) with the thunds, while the chin is at the same time raised by the fingers of the two hands. This will bring the jaw into its place; and as it begins to come, slip the thumbs out, to avoid the snap of the teeth upon them.

Dislocation of a thumb is not uncommon; especially with the thumb pointing backwards. To restore it, we want to lift the round part of the thumb-bone over the slight ridge of the hand-bone (metacarpal bone; see Anatomy), at the same time drawing it forward to its place. This may require a good deal of force in the case of a strongly-knit person; but tact or management is of great value in reducing dislocations. The

skill of "natural bone-setters" is no doubt exaggerated; but there is a difference in "knack" in such matters, which may be improved upon by close observation and practice.

Finger dislocations are to be dealt with in the same way as those of a thumb. The sconer the reduction is undertaken the better; as, in a little time, swelling and inflammation will make it difficult. Having once dislocated the middle finger of my right hand by a fall in getting out of a horse-car, I pulled it at once into place, upon getting up, before reaching the side-pavement. Au hour later, it would have given considerable trouble.

The shoulder is not infrequently dislocated. This may happen in several different directions, according to the position of the arm and the direction of the force acting upon it, when the accident happens. Always, however, we may know a shoulder dislocation by the depression at the shoulder, where it is naturally rounded out, under the deltoid muscle



SELF-REDUCTION OF DISLOCATION.

(see Anatomy); and by the constrained position of the arm, which cannot be moved without difficulty and pain. Often the round head of the arm-bone (humerus) can be felt in its wrong place; in the armpit, or more forward, nearly under the collar-bone. If a surgeon cannot be had, it will be well for a strong person to try to reduce such a dislocation; as, if long left, the parts adhere together, and the difficulty of restoration is much greater. The way to do it is this: let the patient lie down on the floor. The operator, taking off a shoe, should sit down with his feet towards the head of the patient, and place his stocking-foot in his armpit. Then let him grasp the hand and wrist of the dislocated arm, and draw it forcibly towards himself, and somewhat inward towards the patient's body. After thus pulling it out as far as he can, let it go suddenly. It will then generally slip into its proper socket. The arm should then be carried in a sling for a week or more, for the strained ligaments to heal.

Thigh dislocation is a much more serious accident to deal with, as may be supposed from the force necessary to displace so large a bone at so strongly protected a joint. The head of the thigh-bone (femur) may be pushed or drawn into either of several places; in which it may in many instances be felt and perhaps seen as an unnatural swelling of the part. The limb cannot be moved without great difficulty and pain; but there is no crackling (crepitation) heard or felt when the attempt to move it is made, as there is in fracture of the bone. The toes of the injured limb are turned inward in all but one variety of hip dislocation (turned outward always in fracture of the thigh); and in dislocation the fixedness of the limb distinguishes it from fracture.

Formerly, surgeons always resorted to great force in reducing dislocations of the thigh. I remember the pulleys and ropes in the hospital as used in my student days, reminding one of the rack of the Spanish Inquisition. Yet it was not cruel, because, when successful, as it usually was, it relieved the patient of a disabling lameness. In latter times, a more satisfactory method has been devised, of coaxing and working the bone into its place by skilful manipulation The surgeon knowing well the anatomy of the bones and joints, ascertains by examination which way the head of the bone was forced (through its capsular ligament) out of its socket; and then he manaeuvres, by movements of the limb, to reverse that direction and get it in again. No one, however, not familiar with anatomy, will, unless he be indeed a "natural bone-setter," be likely to attempt so considerable an operation. It may be remarked, also, that some of those who, without real knowledge, claim to have the art or knack of bone-setting, have been known to break bones or do other harm by injudicious violence.

Dislocations of the elbow, wrist, knee, and ankle are produced only by great degrees of violence; and are therefore injuries which demand scientific professional skill for their management; especially as they are often complicated with fracture of the bones near the joints. We must

therefore leave them to books and practitioners of Surgery.

Dislocation of the neck is almost always instantly fatal. Not quite always. In the Journal of George Fox, the founder of the religious Society of Friends, he tells that while travelling on horseback in this country, a companion was thrown from his horse on his head, and lay as though dead. Fox went to him, and finding his neck "limp," took hold of his head and gave it a good stretching pull. This brought it right; and the good man got on his horse again and travelled several hundred miles with his strong-minded and strong-handed benefactor. Professor S. D. Gross, of Philadelphia, is said to have had the good fortune and skill to save the life of a man whose neck was dislocated.

Few indeed, however, are the cases where any skill would avail; as the spinal marrow is generally crushed by the "process" of the second or axis vertebra. (See Anatomy.)

Joints, Sprained. Any of the joints may be wrenched or sprained, without actual displacement. This happens often with the ankle, knee, wrist, elbow, fingers, etc. The ligaments are then stretched, and some of their fibres may be torn or broken. Hence follows more or less inflammation, and lameness until the ruptured ligaments have time to heal again. Since the "fibrous tissue" of which they consist has only a low grade of vitality, and not much blood is given for nourishment of the joints, this process of repair in them is slow. A sprained ankle or knee may be longer in getting well than a broken leg would be. At least this is apt to be the case unless the sprained joint has given to it the best chance possible from the first. This is to be had by the patient giving up to rest it completely as soon as it is hurt. Thus inflammation may be averted or kept low, and a moderate sprain may get well in a few days.

A sprained ankle, then, should be kept still from the very start; which requires that the patient should not walk upon it. Best for it will be, remaining in bed; as all movements out of bed, even when the foot is kept from the floor, will jar the joint more or less. Of course this total rest will seldom be long needful.

If the joint be very much swollen, hot, and painful, cool applications, as lead-water and laudanum, will be good for it. Two dozen American leeches may be applied to it; their bites being encouraged to bleed after the leeches drop off, by warm wet cloths laid on. Otherwise, the effect of the leeching may be to draw as much more blood into the swollen part as they take out of it.

If the swelling is moderate, and the heat of the joint not great, warm applications, or even cloths wrung out of hot water, will give the most comfort. Indeed there is no dogmatic rule to be laid down about hot and cold applications for inflamed parts of the body. Whichever gives the most relief will be the best in any case.

Bandaging is the next thing in the treatment of a sprained ankle. This will give support and take down or keep down swelling. A two-and-one-half-inch muslin bandage will answer for an adult; two-inch for a half-grown person. Begin by passing an end of the bandage around the ankle; then, with the fingers, not the thumb, in at the roll-side of the bandage, turn it down over the foot, smoothly, reversing it obliquely to avoid projecting wrinkles. Around the foot twice or more, and then obliquely around the ankle again. Firmness should be the

aim, without uncomfortable tightness; if too tight, it will do harm rather than good.

A sprained knee will, still more imperatively, require absolute rest from the start. Its lameness, if protracted, will be a worse inconvenience than that of the ankle; and either may, if neglected, be an affair of months, or even years. The treatment otherwise of a sprained knee, should be conducted upon the same principles as that above mentioned for a sprained ankle. With either, when it is getting well, there should be a gradual return to its use: trying it, at every step, and giving up the movements if they make it worse again. Here "a day in time saves nine." Slow recovery, from the sluggish circulation and untrition of the part, may be hastened by bathing the joint with soap-liniment; also by pouring upon it a stream of hot water reveral times every day. With vigorous persons, in summer-time, the tonic effect of a stream of cold water for a few minutes at a time scene to a swer a still better purpose.

Sprains of the elbow, wrist, fingers, etc., should be managed in the same way as the above. It is wonderful how long after a sprain of any joint it may continue to be weak and sensitive on readion.

Lightning-Stroke. A shock of electricity from a cloud which will shatter a large tree, will of course destroy in a moment the life of a mau. Even the "dynamo" machines now used for electric-light currents gencrate power as fearful, almost, as that which Dr. Franklin drew with his kite from the skies. A wire from an electric lamp, fallen in a street of New York, was trodden upon by a horse. The animal fell dead at once; and the same thing happened again, before the current was disconnected for safety and repair. But there are all degrees of electrical quantity and intensity, and moderate as well as severe shocks, even by lightning. The subject of protection from lightning is outside of the scope of this work. It may be said, merely, that the object of lightning-rods is, to carry electricity through a good metallic conductor, down into the earth, instead of allowing it to pass through the house. Its rapid passage through the conductor happens without violeuce; in the house, interruptions of various kinds cause damage to people and things in its way. A lightning-rod then must reach higher than the house, and had better have a number of points to receive the electrical exeitement. Then it must have no gaps ou the way down to impair its rapid conductivity; and it must be well connected with the earth; best of all with a well or reservoir of water. A tin or other metallic roof does not draw the lightning, or in any way increase the danger from it. Rather, it diffuses the discharge, which is perilous in proportion to its concentration. It is advantageous, however, to have several lightning-rods to every large house, with which the metal roof may be connected at its lowest parts. In a house, the safest place during a thunder-storm is near the middle of a room, away from the walls; also remore from any open windows or doors. Ontside, the most dangerous place is under a tree. The exposure of the top of a tree, like that of a lightning-rod, makes it liable to be struck; and the conductivity of a tree is not, like that of a metallie rod, sufficient to carry the discharge without some of it escaping on the way down to the ground. There are many instances of persons being struck who have taken refuge under trees from the violence of storms.

When any one is struck by lightning but not killed, he lies paralyzed for a time. He should be put to bed, with hot bricks or bottles to his feet, arms, and body. Ammonia may be held, for a few moments at a time, to his nostrils. If breathing has ceased, yet there is thought to be a hope of life, artificial respiration may be resorted to, as described under Drowning. A piece of iron, as a poker, may be heated, just short of the burning-point, and held for a moment, several times in succession, against the skin at the pit of the stomach. If these means do not produce reaction and restoration, the shock will prove fatal.

When a person struck does get over it, he is almost sure to be weak for a time; and will require rest of body and mind long enough to regain his usual condition of health.

Muscles, Strained. A muscle or its tendon may be ruptured or torn across by violence. Under sudden and extreme exertion, a tendon may be entirely sundered, though this is very rare. The nearest approach to it ever coming under my knowledge has been the tearing in two of the patella (knee-pan), the bone at the knee in the course of the tendon of the great muscles of the thigh, by an effort to avoid falling When a muscle is simply strained, some of its fibres are backwards. no doubt partially divided. It then gives pain to use the muscle; it is sore also to the touch, and may perhaps become more or less swollen and The treatment needed is, chiefly, to give the muscle perfect rest until it recovers, by the healing or knitting together of the divided fibres or fibrilla. The time required for this varies very much. A strained muscle may be weeks, months, even sometimes a year or more in recovering all its previous strength. Bathing with a stimulating liniment, as soap-liniment, will promote the nutritive action necessary for such repair. Perhaps a bandage may be required, for a time, to secure the part at perfect rest.

Nail, Splinter under. To get out a splinter which is beneath the nail, pare the nail carefully, over the splinter, making a narrow groove, until its upper end is exposed. Then, with a pair of small nippers or tweezers, or less easily with a thumb and finger, one may seize and draw When a nail is injured or destroyed, it grows from above, that is in the direction of the length of the finger or toe, downwards or forwards. This can easily be observed on watching the change of position of marks made and left by the injury, as the nail is gradually restored.

Needle penetration. A needle gives almost no pain in entering the flesh anywhere; and it may slip about and be pushed by the muscles in various directions, so as to come near or through the surface far from where it entered. An old lady, a patient of mine, had a needle, which got into her hand, to travel as far as her side, below her waist, where it made its appearance and was taken out. If a needle should happen, in such wanderiugs, to reach the heart, it would no doubt so affect its movements as to cause death; but that is extremely unlikely to happen. Still, nobody wishes to have even so small and smooth a thing slipping about in his body. If a needle, or part of a broken one, is known to enter the skin, a doctor had better be asked to try to get at it, if it has not already passed beyond being reached by a small incision. A careful unprofessional person, with a sharp penknife and a pair of small forceps or tweezers, may safely make such an effort, but it will not be worth while to cut very deeply for it. The same may be said of bits of broken glass. If not seen and removed when first getting in, they may remain a long time without much irritation or disturbance. I once removed from the sole of the foot of a servant-girl a piece of glass more than two inches long, part of a larger piece on which she had trodden two years before. The lameness caused by it, slight at first, had finally increased under some accidental change in the position of the fragment.

Nose, Foreign Bodies in. Children now and then push peas, small marbles, etc., into their own or one another's noses. If the iutruding thing be not very large, blowing the nose very hard, while the other nostril is closed by pressure, may force it out. If not, a piece of wire (a hairpin will do) may be bent so as to form a small round loop at its end, and this (first being oiled) may be gently pushed up around and behind the offending object, to draw it down. Should this not succeed, the aid of a surgeon must be obtained, who will use slender-

bladed but strong forceps, made for such emergencies.

Shock. Several times already we have had occasion to speak of this: as, for instance, in connection with lightning-stroke. A shock to the whole system may be produced by a heavy full; by a blow on the head, chest, stomach, or back; or a severe burn; a gunshot wound of any part of the body (unless only the hand); a railroad or machinery injury, crushing or tearing a limb or limbs; or a severe fright or other agitation of mind. The condition resulting is that of prostration or collapse, with paleness, coldness, a glastly appearance of the face, feeble, flickering, or scarcely perceptible pulse, thirst, and loss of voice; breathing sometimes gasping. It is a close approach to death. The "indications" for treatment of shock are, for rest, warmth, and careful stimulation or support. In the way of rest, avoid carrying the person injured to any great The nearest suitable home or hospital, or even temporary place of repose, should be chosen. Then let him be placed on a comfortable bed, well covered, and with direct heat to his body and limbs, by means of hot bricks, bottles of hot water, or tins of the same, bags of hot salt, etc., whatever can be quickly prepared. For stimulation, ammonia is quiek and good; half-teaspoonful doses of aromatic spirit of ammonia, each in a small wineglassful of cold water, every fifteen or twenty minutes, for three or four times. Also, I have confidence in the value of careful alcoholic stimulation in cases of simple shock; but there is no advantage, and often afterwards much disadvantage, to be expected from the enormous doses of whisky or brandy sometimes given. A dessertspoonful (two teaspoonfuls) in a wineglassful of water will be enough at a time; repeated, if need be, in a quarter of an hour at first, and with lengthening intervals afterwards, until reaction comes on. After the first two or three doses it will be better to give the whisky or brandy in twice as much milk, instead of water. As soon as reaction decidedly sets in, stop the ammonia and whisky. Give, then, at hour-long intervals, strong soup or beef-tea, with some Cayenne pepper in it for the stomach's sake. If over-stimulation be practised during the time of shock after an injury, fever will be apt to follow, and the crushed limb, gunshot wound, or whatever may be the hurt, will be liable to inflammation or other troublesome consequences.

Spine, fracture or concussion of. If at the neck, death is commonly immediate. When near the middle of the back, life may continue awhile, with loss of feeling and power in the lower half of the body; including the bladder and bowels. Severe injury of the lower part of the spine may cause only paralysis of the legs and feet; with which the patient may live for months, perhaps years, bedridden and helpless.

Suffocation with foul gases. The most common danger of this kind is from carbonic acid gas, which is produced when charcoal is

burued, and is the chief, but not the only, result of the burning of wood, coal, coal-oil, illuminating gas, etc. Carbonic oxide also is formed in the burning of coal or gas, especially when the supply of air is not great. Both of these gases are poisonous; the latter the most so. Ten per cent. of carbonic acid gas in the air will make it fatal to any one who continues many minutes in it; and a less amount will cause a person to fall insensible in a short time. Pure carbonic acid gas causes a spasmodic closure of the windpipe against it, so that it is really irrespirable.

Sometimes a person, from ignorance or want of thought, will go to sleep where charcoal is burning, with too little chimney-draught to carry off the gas. He will either die, or will narrowly escape death, as was the case with a patient of my own some years ago, and as happened to a fellowstudent while I was attending medical lectures at the University. again, a coal-stove may leak out gas from some defect. This gas is a mixture of carbonic acid with other gases; but the effect is of the same kind. The uupleasant smell should waru any one of this danger; but that is not always regarded. A bad smell also shows when illuminating gas is leaking into a room; yet many instances have occurred of persous blowing out the gas in their rooms and then going to bed-never to rise again. Still another dauger from carbonic acid is met with in descending into old empty wells, or into beer-vats; in the one case the gas coming from the earth, and in the other fermentation generating it. is a heavy gas, and takes time and exposure to diffuse it through the atmosphere. Natural gas, used in many places, is almost without smell.

What is to be done for any one overcome in either of these ways? First, get the patient into fresh, pure air. Then dash or sprinkle cold water into his face. If he does not breathe at all, at once begin artificial respiration. (See Drowning.) Also, let some one rub his legs briskly upwards, to favor the movement of blood in the veins towards the heart. Warm bricks or bottles should be put to his feet. In the case of my fellow-student (afterwards Dr. W. M. Morgan, of Pittsburg) oxygen was brought from the laboratory of the University, and supplied for him to breathe; but this can seldom be got.

It is often a pressing question how to rescue any one overcome in a beer-vat, or in a well full of stagnant and poisonous air. One man after another may go down (as has repeatedly happened) and fall somethess like the first victim. Dashing water pretty freely into the well or vat will hasten the absorption and diffusion of the gas. So will letting down an umbrella and drawing it up again as fast as possible. One who goes into such a place should bind a wet folded handkerchief over his mouth and nostrils; and this is also a useful precaution for firemen

in rushing into a burning building. There is no doubt that many people in houses on fire are sufficated by gas and smoke before the flames reach them. Another important caution is, when illuminating gas has escaped into an apartment, not to take a lighted candle or lamp, or even a lighted match, into it, as an explosion will be likely to follow. Some one should, instead, grope rapidly for the windows in the dark, and throw them open; and then get the sufficated person out as soon as possible.

Swallowing indigestible things gives alarm in many cases where there is little danger of real injury. Pins are apt to be swallowed when held in the mouth, which is a very imprudent thing to do; but they will more often stick across the upper part of the throat than go down. (See Choking.) When a pin is actually swallowed, there is reason to believe that it is almost sure to find its way at last through the bowels and out with the discharges. If a horn button, or a piece of india-rubber, or a marble, is swallowed, it will be pretty sure to take the same course in time. None of those things are poisonous. A metal button, however, as one of brass, or a copper coin, as a penny, is much worse. Such a thing may pass safely through; but if it stays in the stomach or bowels, gradually corroding, it will poison the system, perhaps fatally. A brother of mine, while a child, lost his life in that way, two years after swallowing a brass button. From such a result, no medical skill can provide escape; unless, when such a thing is known at the time to have been swallowed, prompt dosing with an emetic will bring it up with A teaspoonful of powder of Ipecaeuanha, or a teaspoonful of Syrup of Ipecac., repeated in teu minutes if necessary, and followed by a large drink of warm (not hot) water, will answer for this purpose. If no Ipecae, is at hand, a tablespoonful of salt, or a teaspoonful of mustard, in a teaenpful of warm water, will do.

It is not worth while to give an emetic on account of the swallowing of non-poisonous indigestible solids. Nor is it best to give, on their account, an immediate dose of purgative medicine. Let the person eat rather heartily of soft food, as mush, pudding, tapioca, etc.; and the next day, if the bowels are not free, he may take a moderate dose of castor-oil. While, however, such things, in a majority of eases, do no considerable harm, exceptions to this do occur. Even an apple-seed or core has been known to ledge in the appendiculum vermiforme, a small tubular appendage to the large intestine, and, by inducing ulceration, to cause death. I have known swallowing cherry-stones in large numbers (as is often done by boys when up a tree after cherries) to be followed by severe pain and irritation of the bowels almost like dysentery. On the whole, it is well to use our senses of touch, taste, and sight carefully,

knowing what is in the mouth always before we swallow it. Among other things, when eating canned vegetables, fruit, etc., take care not to swallow bits of soldering metal, such as now and then become loosened in the can. As these contain lead, they may produce lead poisoning. This has been known to happen.

Tendon, rupture of. This is a rare accident, but is known to have sometimes occurred, especially at the junction of the muscles of the calf of the leg with the "Achilles" tendon, which goes down to the heel. John Hunter, the famous English surgeon, met with this injury in dancing, at the age of forty years. Treatment of it requires rest in bed for two or three weeks; the foot being extended, so as to keep the heel well raised towards the calf of the leg, and bandaged firmly in that position.

Transportation of injured persons. See the last part of the article

on Wounds.

Ulcers. An ulcer occurs only as a possible secondary result of an injury; as a large wound, burn or scald. For the treatment of such a result, see Ulcer, in Part IV., Special Diseases.

Veins, injuries of. See Wounds (pages 617, 618).

Wounds. These may be either Bruised, Crushed, Cut, Lacerated (Torn), Penetrating, or Poisoned wounds.

Bruises are familiar to everybody. If the blow or fall has been of such moderate violence as to injure only the surface of the head, body, or limbs, it is not a serious matter. Some blood will be forced out of the small vessels; swelling and discoloration will follow. It will be first red, then almost black and blue, and at last dnll yellow or yellowish-brown. This is the history of a "black eye," or of a bruise of any other part. Early use of a soothing application will do the most good. There is nothing better for this than cacao (cocoa) butter, or "camphor ice." Arnica has a reputation for bruises far beyond its desert. In the family, however, for every hurt "something must be done" to ease the minds of those around. Arnica will answer this purpose at least. When a bruised part becomes painful, a cloth wet with lead-water and laudanum will be suitable. Later, bathing with soap-limiment will hasten the absorption and disappearance of the blood-deposit which causes the discoloration.

Orushed wounds are much more serions, often endangering life. Such, affecting the head, will cause fracture of the skull (see Head, Injuries of). Falling on the chest, ribs may be broken; or, worse, the heart or lungs may be so pressed as to kill at once or shortly. When a limb is crushed in a railroad accident, it may be wholly or partly severed from the body. We might expect great bleeding in such cases; but it does not occur; the arteries are paralyzed, and bleed little or none, even when torn across. The immediate danger then is from shock, going down into fatal collapse. (See Shock.) When this is recovered from, the injured limb must be dealt with according to the methods of surgery. Amputation is often called for; the damage being too great for the limb to be possibly saved.

Shock constitutes the greatest immediate danger in all crushing injuries. Afterwards, there may be inflammation (or perhaps mortification) of internal organs involved; lungs, liver, stomach, kidneys, peritoneum, etc. Such cases will require perfect rest in bed, with treatment which can only be judged of by an experienced practitioner of medicine or surgery. Tetanus (lockjaw) occasionally follows a crushing injury.

Cut wounds are dangerous at first through bleeding. Bruised, crushed, and torn wounds bleed, as a rule, very little. Much difference exists as to what is cut in an incised wound. If only small vessels, the capillaries, are divided, the blood flows steadily, of a moderately red color, being a mixture of arterial and venous blood. If a vein is cut, the flow is steady, and the color of the blood is dark-red, almost blue-black or dark-purple. When an artery has been cut, bright red blood comes out

in jets, timing with the pulsations of the heart. (See Physiology; Circulation.)

Whatever the source of a flow of blood from a cut wound, we should endeavor (after eleaning out, best with a stream of cold water, any foreign bodies in it) to stop the hemorrhage by putting and holding the edges of the wound together. Pressure may then be added, so far as needful and available. Over a solid bone, as the skull, this will always be practicable. Bleeding even from a divided artery of the scalp can always be checked, by firm pressure on the vessel against the bone. A compress may be made by folding up a fragment of handkerchief, or rag of muslin or linen, into a thick piece an inch square. Laying this right over the source of the bleeding, it may be kept in place by the firm application

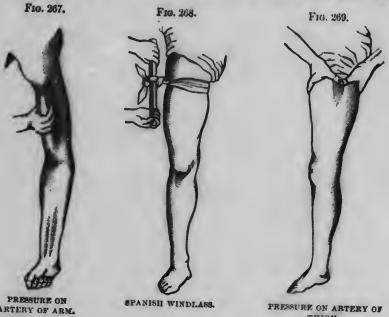
of a bandage around the head.

Elsewhere in the body the difficulty of stopping bleeding may be greater. Worst of all, of incised (cut) wounds at least, not penetrating the chest or abdomen, is the cut throat. For suicidal or murderous purposes, this is not rare. Many suicides divide only the windpipe, or the windpipe (larynx or trachea) and gullet (pharynx) together. They die a lingering death after several days. Others make a bolder cut, and sever also the ingular vein: commonly on one side only. This will bleed fearfully, enough to cause death in a very short time. If promptly seized between a thumb and finger, and then skilfully stitched with a small surgical needle, it is possible that life may be saved; but, with the best surgery, this has seldom been done. Now and then a suicide may reach with the razor one, almost never both, of his carotid arteries, which lie closer to the windpipe than the two jugular veins, but are deeper in the throat. Such a wound, unless it be a mere nick in the artery, will end life in a few seconds. A very slight incision in the carotid alone may, if at once seized and held firmly, allow of the tying of the artery with a ligature, below the wound. This operation not many surgeons have performed; and it does not always succeed in averting death as the final result.

To stop bleeding from a vein, large enough to be seen, when pressure at the wound will not do it, the rule is to press just below the wound; that is, on the side farthest from the heart; as the blood flows in the veins from the extremities towards the heart.

When an artery bleeds, and pressure at the wound fails or cannot be applied, pressure must be applied above the wound; that is, on the side nearer to the heart; the course of the blood in the arteries being from the heart. In Physiology this has been fully explained, and the way to find the main arteries of the body has been set forth. We may just repeat a few practical points.

If a finger bleeds from a deep cut very freely, pressure on the two sides of the finger will check the arterial flow and control it. If the hand or forearm has an arterial hemorrhage, the brachial detery (main artery of the arm) must be compressed. This is done by finding its pulsations behind the biceps muscle, on the inner side of the arm, and holding it there against the arm-bone (humerus). To continue such pressure, a Spanish windlass may be made. Pass a handkerchief around the arm, and tie a knot in it, close to the arm on the inside. Then put under the handkerchief, on the outside, the handle of a hair-brush, or a stick of any kind, and twist it until the pressure suffices to stop the flow of blood. If the arm is held up with the hand raised above the



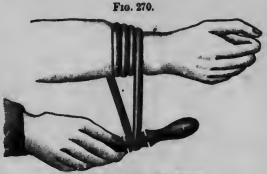
head, this will be the more easily effected. Such pressure cannot be very long maintained, without danger of mortification of the limb. Should the bleeding return as soon as the "windlass" is partially unwound, surgical aid must be obtained to "take up" the artery; that is, to cut down to it and pass a silken or catgut cord (ligature) around it, and tie this so as to stop all movement of blood through the artery.

Some hemorrhages from the forearm or hand may be held in check by forcibly doubling the arm at the elbow, in this way compressing the artery where it branches, in front of the elbow joint.

If the foot, leg, or thigh is cut so deeply as to have an arterial hemor-

rhage, the place of pressure (if it cannot be applied sufficiently at the wound) must be at the upper and inner part of the thigh; that is if the Spanish windless be used, the application being just the same in method as upon the arm. But a still surer place of pressure is where the great artery of the limb passes over the bony edge of the pelvis; just half-way between the middle of the pelvis in front and the prominent point of the ridge of bone at the front of the hip-bone (auterior superior spinous process of the ilium; see Anatomy). There its pulsations can be felt; and the handle of a large key, wrapped with tape or ribbon to soften its pressure, may be held firmly down upon it so as to keep the flow of blood back altogether.

Suppose then that, having a cut-wound to treat, all bleeding has ceased, and no dirt or fragments of any kind are in the wound; we must now try to prepare it for healing without delay or deformity.



PRESURE BY ELASTIC BAND.

Place the edges together. Will they stay so? Not often without support. On many parts of the body this may be given by strips of adhesive plaster;* if the wound is large, several narrow strips, with small spaces between them. When the edges are evidently not going to be securely held in that way, stitches will be important. Silk or shoemaker's thread (or other thread, if necessary to save time), waxed, will answer; and a large common needle may be used instead of a surgeon's needle, if professional assistance is not within reach. Two sorts of stitches are often employed: the continuous and the interrupted. The latter is generally to be preferred; each stitch can then be dealt with apart as it requires. For it, pass a threaded ueedle from within the wound out through the skin; then take off the needle and thread it with the other end, and pass it in the same way out through the other

^{*} Martin's (or Grovenor & Richards') rolls or spools of "Surgeon's adhesive plaster" are the most convenient for such use.

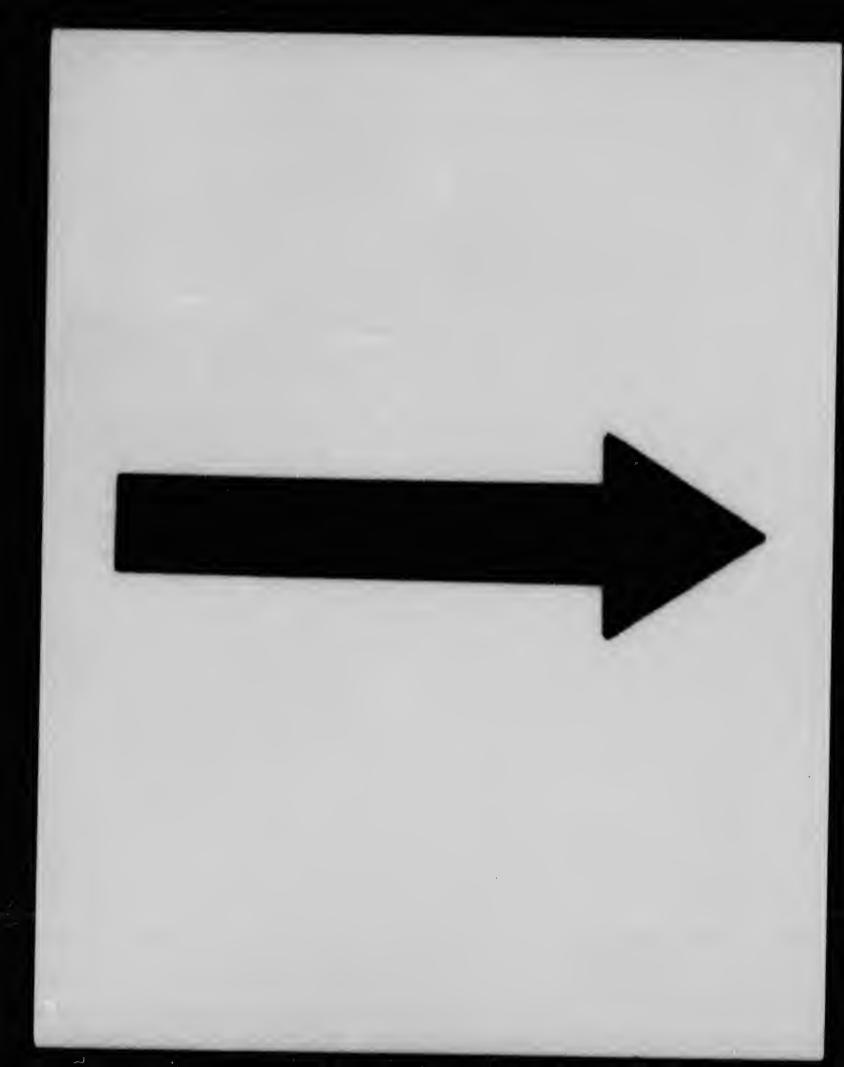
side of the wound. Then the two ends should be brought together and tied. Lips, noses, ears, and some other parts will be apt to have gaping wounds and ugly scars, when cut, unless stitches are used.

We want a wound, then, to heal "by the first intention," as it is called. That is, directly, without any pus or matter being formed. All that is necessary for this, with a clean-cut wound in a healthy body, is, that the edges shall be brought and kept close together for a few days, without disturbance. Put over the wound, then, after the plasters or stitches have been applied, a doubled piece of lint or soft clean (mark this, clean) linen, spread with simple cerate, or clean tallow, and bind this on with a bandage, just tight enough to keep it in its place. The part must then be kept at rest, and need not be disturbed, while it seems comfortable, for four or five days. In that time, a surgeon's advice can usually be obtained. If not, and the wound does not seem comfortable, it must be carefully examined, and perhaps dressed over again. After five days, at all events, it may be very carefully uncovered; removing the outer cerate dressing, and seeing whether or not any of the adhesive strips need to be renewed. If this be so, be sure to take them off one by one; drawing the strip towards, not away from, the edge of the wound; and replacing each strip by a fresh one, before another is taken off. Very little washing is necessary for healing incised wounds. Clean the parts near with Castile soap and water, but do not interfere with the plastic process going on at the wound itself.

Water-dressing is preferred to cerate by many surgeons, even for simple ineised wounds; but it appears to me to have greater advantages in the management of lacerated and penetrating wounds.

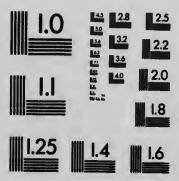
Lacerated wounds are those which are torn; as by machinery, or bites of dogs, horses, or other beasts, etc. They are irregular in shape, seldom bleed much, but often inflame, sometimes mortify, and hardly ever heal "by the first intention." Machinery injuries may be dreadful in character; a whole limb being torn off at once; or a hand or a foot torn to pieces. Such may be speedily fatal by shock; or their results may entail a tedious and uncertain struggle for life; at least when an arm or a leg is badly lacerated. Erysipelas is one of the dangers attending such injuries; tetanus (lockjaw), another; septicamia (or pyamia), another.

Besides what may be needful on account of the general shock to the system (see Shock), lacerated wounds require to be carefully cleared of all fragments of foreign bodies, dirt, etc., and then protected from the air by a proper dressing. To cleanse such a wound, a stream of water should be allowed to flow over it from a clean sponge, dipped in warm water and squeezed above the wound. Water-dressing agrees well



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Much is said in late surgical works of antiseptic dressings for wounds. The idea of it is, by chemical solutions applied to injured parts, and to the hands of surgeons and nurses, etc., to destroy the "germs" in the air, water, and other materials which are supposed to breed putrefaction, decay, and disease. We have discussed this theory in connection with the Causation of Disease (Germ Theory of Diseases). Enough here to say that the importance of it is much the greatest in large hospitals, or other houses in cities, where the air is apt to be foul; and that the practical results of antiseptic surgery, so called, are equaled, without any special "solutions," when absolute cleanliness is maintained, of air, water, and all other materials.

When much irritation or inflammation of lacerated wounds occurs, a poultice, of bread or flaxseed-meal, may be for a time beneficial. When healing is advancing favorably, instead of the wet dressing, lint or linen spread with simple cerate will answer, and is much less troublesome.

Penetrating wounds may vary much; from piercing with a pin to a bayonet, sword, or bullet wound. Even a needle or large pin may be forced into the heart, so as to cause death. One of the first Napoleon's generals so committed suicide. Usually, however, a needle glides almost harmlessly through skin and flesh, and the head of a pin prevents its deep penetration. The seriousness of larger penetrating wounds depends almost entirely upon the parts reached by the puncturing instrument or weapon. A bayonet or bullet wound of the heart will always kill. One of a lung will be most frequently mortal; but the exceptions are many, General Shields, U. S. A., was shot through the chest, many years ago, and recovered. A patient of my own, in hospital, got well after a load of buckshot had gone through a part of his right lung. A penetrating wound of the stomach is nearly certain to be mortal; yet Dr. Beaumont, of Ohio, was made famous by his physiological experiments in the case of the Canadian soldier, Alexis St. Martin, who lived for years with a hole in his stomach through which food could be taken out during digestion. Wounds of the bowels are only a little less dangerous, especially because peritonitis is so likely to supervene; and

the same may be said of injuries of the liver, spleen, kidneys, and other organs contained in the abdomen. Penetrating wounds of the head have been considered already (see Head, Injuries of). When an arm or a leg receives a knife or bayonet thrust, or a bullet or shot wound, there may be hemorrhage, from a large vessel being pierced or divided. Then it needs the same kind of management as a bleeding cut or incised wound. If not this, there is little immediate danger to life; but inflammation, suppuration, mortification, erysipelas, pyæmia, and septicæmia are ali possibilities in such cases.

Every one receiving a severe penetrating wound, of any part of the body, must be kept in a condition of complete rest, awaiting results which need to receive the best professional attention, to meet the dangers, seen and unseen, belonging inevitably to such injuries. Those who were old enough to read the daily bulletins of President Garfield's heroic struggle for life, under care of the best surgeons in America, and the best possible nursing, may well know that a sentence of death may come with the entrance of a missile, which no human skill or power can avert.

Poisoned wounds. These are seldom met with, even in war, amongst civilized nations, except by unintended causation. This may happen especially to physicians and surgeons, in their operations, and to medical students in the dissecting-room. Matter from dead bodies, or from discased living ones, introduced even into the slightest scratch with a knife, needle, or pin, may so taint the blood as to produce a dangerous illness. Not a few physicians have suffered a fatal result from pricking a finger in a post-mortem examination. To prevent such results (besides care to avoid letting an abraded or punctured part come in contact with morbid matters), as soon as such a thing has happened, the part should be immediately washed and sucked, and then kept out of the way of further danger.

In the treatment of poisoned wounds, there is nothing different from that of those which are penetrating or lacerated, unless the wound is made by rabid animals or by venomous scrpents. For either of these last, immediate suction is a right precantion; and at the same time a tight cord around the arm or leg, if either extremity has been bitten; then the end of an iron wire or rod, heated red hot, or a piece of caustic potassa, should be made to burn out the part; or a pinch of gunpowder may be exploded upon it. All these severe measures are designed to prevent the poison from getting, through the blood-vessels, into the system. Although not more, probably, than one in ten of those bitten by mad dogs have hydrophobia, that one will incurably suffer a dreadful death. Therefore it is worth while to do and suffer much to prevent

such a possible catastrophe. (See Hydrophobia, under Special Diseases.)

Bites of rattlesnakes, copperheads, and moccasin serpents in this country, and similar reptiles in the countries of the old world, are often fatal. In India, thousands die annually of the bites of the cobra and other venomous snakes. The danger is greatest according to the amount of the poison introduced, and the part of the body bitten. After a rattle-snake has already bitten anything several times, his poison-bag is empty, and his fangs are almost innocent of venom for a time. Biting through a boot, or thick clothing, detains much of the venom, lessening the danger. But if an unexhausted serpent of that species, or a moccasin, or a copperhead, bites the bare face or neck, or hand or arm, death will be likely to take place within an hour or two. If other parts of the body be litten, it may still be fatal, but there are chances of recovery. Is there any reliable antidote?

You will read accounts of such in many books and newspapers. But Dr. S. Weir Mitchell, after a most elaborate series of experiments, concluded that, at the time of his researches, no true antidote to rattlesnake poisoning had been found. Since then, two such (for other scrpent bites) have been asserted; ammonia in Australia, and permanganate of potassium in South America. Both are injected in solution, either into the poisoned wound or into the skin (hypodermic injection) elsewhere. Observers in other countries have been disappointed with Dr. Fayrer's ammonia antidote. Dr. Lacerda's permanganate treatment has not yet had sufficiently extended trial for a final conclusion; but, were I bitten, I should wish to try the latter. It can be confided in only when introduced immediately at the place of the poisoned wound.

Popular rather than scientific has been the whisky treatment of rattle-snake poisoning. Yet science cannot object to it, since one poison is often an antidote to another. The practice referred to is, to dose the viction with whisky pretty largely, with quantities which would intoxicate if the state of the system did not prevent or at least retard it. There is reason to believe that patients are recover under this treatment who otherwise would probably mave died.

Another (now quite unpopular) remedy is suggested by some facts observed in experiments upon animals. In those bitten by venomous serpents, it has been found repeatedly that drawing blood from their veins has been followed by immediate improvement, and sometimes by recovery. As a method of getting rid of tainted blood, this appears to me a most reasonable procedure. Not anticipating its general acceptance under the now prevailing opposition to this remedy under almost all circumstances, I must be content with commending its consideration and fair trial to the coming generation.

Stings of bees, wasps, yellow jackets, and hornets, as well as of some spiders, and, in other countries than this, the tarantula and scorpion, are often decidedly painful; in a few persons, they may even endanger life. When, for instance, upon disturbing a hive, a whole swarm of bees fly out and light all over a man's head, face, neck, and hands, the amount of venom introduced by even such small "beasties" stings is not trifling. Horses have sometimes been thus stung to death.

The old simple country remedy I have found effectual—smearing the price at once with mud, from the nearest spot where earth and water can mixed together. Ammonia (spirits of hartshorn) is nicer. A probably more certain to be effectual, applied at once to the stung part. If a person seems to be affected "all over" by even a single sting of a bee (which sometimes imposes), half a teaspoonful aromatic spirit of ammonia, in a wineglassful of water, may be taken as a draught, at once; and, as soon as it can be obtained, twenty grains of bromide of potassium, in the same quantity of water. The latter dose may be repeated in two or three hours, if required.

Hot water is recommended by some, to be applied at once to the part, as a remedy for the sting of a bee, wasp, etc. I have not tried it, but suppose it may be efficacious, if very hot, by destroying the poison. A moistened eigar, or plug of tobacco, is said to give prompt relief to the pain. An onion is also advised, in some popular works, as a local remedy, even for the bite of a venomous serpent. I can give no opinion as to its value.

Transportation of Injured Persons. On this subject we cannot do better than follow Esmarch, the distinguished German surgeon.*

"When an accident occurs, be it in the country, on the high road, or in a town, the first thing to be done is to transport the injured person as quickly and as carefully as possible to a doctor or to a hospital." "In such circumstances, stretchers or litters should, if possible, be used. These are simply light portable beds made of a framework of poles, with a piece of canvas stretched between them."

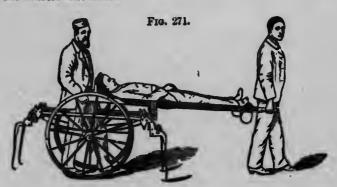
"To place an injured person on a stretcher and convey him properly requires a certain amount of handiness—which, however, is easily acquired by a little practice. Only three bearers are required, unless the distance be very great; two of them carry the stretcher, and the third attends to the patient, and changes place with one of the bearers if necessary.

^{* &}quot;Early Aid in Injuries and Accidents." Translated by H. R. H. Princess Christian. Philada., Lea Brothers & Co., 1384.

"To place the patient on it, put the foot of the stretcher at his head in a line with his body. If you put it at the side of the patient, it is in the way of the bearers, and they may stumble or fall over it. The two bearers then place themselves one at either side, join hands underneath the back and hips of the patient, raise him up, lift him backwards over the stretcher, and lower him on to it. The third bearer takes charge of the injured portion (limb or head), and steadies it with a hand on either side. The two bearers now take their places at the head and foot of the stretcher, lift it up, and carry it off; while the third walks at the side of it, as a safeguard to the patient.

"The following rules should be observed in carrying a stretcher:

"1. It should be carried with the hands, or suspended by straps over the bearers' shoulders.



WHEELED LITTER.

"2. The bearers should not keep step. If they keep pace, as in marching, the stretcher sways from side to side, and the patient is apt to roll.

"3. All jolting, hurried movements, the crossing of fences, ditches, etc., are to be avoided. Look out for gaps, gates, and doors, and make use of them.

"4. If possible, choose bearers of the same height. If this cannot be done, arrange the shoulder-straps in such a vay that the stretcher may be balanced as evenly as possible.

"5. In ascending, the patient's head must be in front; in descending, behind; except in the case of a broken leg, when, if such a course were adopted, the weight of the body would press on the injured part.

"6. The patient must be removed from the stretcher in the same manner in which he was placed on it.

"Should no stretcher be at hand, one must be improvised—i. e., you must look about for a substitute, or put together a variety of things on which the injured person can be transported without further harm.

Amongst the articles to be found in inhabited houses which can be used for such, are—bedsteads, bedframes, sofas, window-shutters, boards, benches, chairs, etc. Such hard materials should be covered by pillows, blankets, straw, etc.; mattresses, or sacks of straw, having rings or loops made with straps attached to their four corners, may also be used as stretchers. Counterpanes, blankets, rugs of all kinds, may be curried by the four corners by four men; or may have two poles sewn to their sides, and be carried by two men. Empty corn or flour sacks may be used for the seme purpose. From woods and gardens you can take branches and young spruce stems, and, binding them together with birch twigs, make excellent temporary stretchers with supports."

"If neither a stretcher nor material out of which to make one can be found, then try to transport the wounded man with your arms, which

naturally can only be done for a short distance." "The wounded man must place his arms around the neck of the man carrying him." "Should there be two people at hand to render assistance, the wounded man may be transported in a variety of ways, viz.: 1. Sitting on the hands of the bearers, who pass two hands under the thighs and two behind the loins, the patient putting his arms round the necks of those carrying him. 2. The persons transporting a A MODE OF CARRYING AN wounded man join their hands firmly together, forming a sort of sedan chair, on which they



INJURED PERSON.

can carry him a long distance if he places his arms around their neeks." We may add that a chair, especially an arm-chair or rocking-chair, in which the patient is seated, will answer well to carry an injured person. If he be faint, or if a lower extremity be hurt, the chair may be tilted backwards as far as his comfort may require. When two bearers carry a patient in any way without a litter or stretcher, they should keep step; as the motion is then more even, and there is no danger of his rolling out of their arms or out of a chair supported between them.

When any one is so injured as to be in a state of collapse, approaching death, as from drowning, suffocation, or hemorrhage (bleeding), it is necessary to attend first to his prostrate condition on the spot; before taking him to a hospital, or anywhere else. (See Drowning.)

When there is severe bleeding, its source must be found, so that it may be stopped (see page 618). For such inspection, do not wait to take off the clothing near the injured part; but cut or rip all that is necessary for the purpose.

F10. 273.



F19. 274



MODES OF CARRYING INJURED PERSONS.

Fro. 275.



BOCKIN- CHAIR FOR CABRYING A PATIENT.

PART VI.

POISONING.

POISONS are of several kinds: animal, as snake-venoms and cantharides; vegetable, as opium, strychnia, tobacco; mineral, as arsenic and corrosive sublimate. But a more useful classification of them is according to their effects: as Depressants, Irritants, Neurotics, and Complex Poisons.

Depressants are Prussic (Hydrocyanic) Acid, Tobacco, Lovelia, Hemlock, and Aconite. It is true, the effects of these, and indeed of almost all poisons, have some complexity; but their chief effect is depression, sinking, prostration; which, from a certain dose, is fatal.

Irritants are strong Acids, as Sulphuric, Nitric, Hydrochloric, Oxalic, Citric, and Tartaric Acids; strong Alkalies, as Potassa, Soda, and Ammonia; Phosphorus; Corrosive Sublimate; Tartar Emetic; Salts of Copper and of Zinc; Castor-Oil Seeds; Colchicum; Croton-Oil; Cantharides; and certain Fishes and Mollusce (some Mussels; er.).

Neurotic Poisons either produce stupor, as do Opium, Chloroform, Ether, Chloral, Hyoscyamus, and Camphor (in excessive doses); or otherwise damage the nervous system, with either delirium, convulsions, tremor, or paralysis, as Strychnia (or Nux Vomica), Belladonna, Stramonium, Calabar Bean, Cocculus Indicus.

Complex (Irritant-Neurotic) Poisons are such as Arsenic, Curbolio Acid, Creasote, Digitalis, Ergot, Fungi (Tradstools, etc.), Hellebore, Iodine, Bromine. Lead, etc.

As already aid, Depressant Poisons cause prostration, sinking: with paleness, coldness, feeble pulse, gasping breath, with or without nausea and vomiting; all the symptoms of collapse.

Irritant Poisons produce burning and pain in the mouth, throat, stomach, and bowels; with nausea, vomiting, and purging; an artificial cholera-morbus.

Neurotic Poisons have just been described as causing either stupor, delirium, convulsions, tremor, or paralysi. Complex Poisons may combine several of either of these kinds of effects.

So far, v. ave been considering Poisons as taken into the stomach by the mouth. It must be remembered, however, that they may also enter the system by being breathed into the lungs; injected ander the skin; or even absorbed from the surface of the skin (especially with children; a tobacco leaf has been so fatally used); or inserted into the bowels, etc.

With these general remarks, we may now take up those poisons most likely to be met with, or heard or read about, alphabetically, for ease of reference by the reader.

Hydrocyanic or Prussic Acid is a powerful de ressunt. Each of these



ACONITE ROOT.

will be considered in its place. Just now it may be remarked that the antidotes for Acids are Alkalies and Alkaliee Earths; as Soda, I imewater, Chalk, Magnesia, and Soap, etc. In like manner, Acids the milder sort, as Vinegar, Lemon-juice, etc., are antidotes for poisonous doses of strong Alkalies or Alkaline Earths, as caustic Potassa, Soda, Ammonia, or Lime.

Aconite. All parts of this plant (Monkshood, Aconitum napellus) are poisonous. The only form in which any one is likely to take it injuriously is that of the Tincture of Aconite Root, in overdose (the

proper dose is one, two, or three drops), or by mistake for something else. Death has been caused in this way: two bottles are standing by a patient's bedside, one containing a medicine to be taken internally, and the other a liniment for external application; an attendant, by mistake, rubs a painful part with the medicine, and gives him a tablespoonful dose of the aconite liniment.

Symptoms: burning, tingling, and numbress of mouth, throat, and stomach, extending afterwards through the whole body; sickness of stomach, dizziness, prostration, sometimes convulsions; no delirium, no



ACONITE LEAVES AND FLOWERS.

stupor, unless in quite exceptional cases. Death, from a sufficient quantity, results in a few hours. Less than a half a teaspoonful of the acture has proved fatal in some instances; a teaspoonful will alway be likely to do so, if left long in the stomach.

Treatment. There is no chemical antidote for Aconite. Vomium should be produced at once to get rid of it. In the household, do not wait to send to a druggist, but give immediately a teaspoonful of mustard, mixed in a teacupful of warm (not hot) water. Repeat this in ten minutes, with large draughts of warm water, if vomiting does not

follow. If no mustard is at hand, a tablespoonful of walt, in a teneupful of warm, not hot, water, will answer the same purpose. Then mix powdered charcoal, a tenspoonful at a time, in water, and let it be drunk; and also very strong tea, freely taken. Let the limbs be briskly rubbed with warm hands, and place hot bottles or bricks alongside of the body and to the feet. If other treatment is used, it should be only at the judgment of a physician, who should be summoned as soon as possible. This remark will apply to all cases of poisoning; and need not there-

fore be hereafter repeated.

Alcohol. Hardly ever by accident, but sometimes through folly, men have taken at one time enough whisky or brandy, etc., to kill. The quantity necessary for this varies, especially with the bils of the person so doing. An old toper may swallow a half-gallon of whisky in a day, with no extraordinary effect. A man unaccustomed to liquor might be killed by a pint; possibly even by less. In such a case, the symptoms are those of narcotic poisoning; with but little primary excitement, he falls soon into a deep stupor. The face becomes ghastly, the lips livid, the pupils of the eyes large, the eyes reddened; the breathing is snoring, and an alcoholic odor loads the breath; death may take place within an hour or two. Short of such an event, there are degrees of "dead drunkenness," in which the same symptoms appear, but the stupor is less complete; on being shaken and spoken to, the man will open his eyes partially and show some consciousness. He will then relapse into stupidity, until, after several hours, he sleeps it off.

Treatment of dead drunkenness, when there is not an actual mortal effect, does not gain by any violence. If the patient can swallow, an emetic dose of mustard (a teaspoonful) or salt (a tablespoonful) or ipecac. (a teaspoonful) in warm water, may be given. Wetting the head and face repeatedly with cold water will promote revival; and so may aromatic spirit of ammonia; half a teaspoonful, taken in cold water, and

repeated in an hour or two.
Alkalies. See Acids.

Aloes. This is an active purgative medicine, whose effects in overdose are those of an irritant poison. The same account may be also given of Elaterium (much more powerful), Colocynth, Gamboge, Jalap, and Scammony. Any of these in excessive dose will bring on painful griping, vomiting, and purging, with consequent exhaustion. Treatment of such a condition must consist in perfect rest (a bed-pan being used), and often-repeated small doses of laudanum or paregoric. An injection of laudanum (forty drops) in starch into the bowels will be well. Lime-water and milk, equal parts, may be administered by the tablespoonful to support strength; adding teaspoonful doses of whisky

or brandy, a few times, if prostration be great. Warm bricks or bottles of hot water, etc., also, applied to the body and feet, will do good.

Ammonta. This is the rolatile alkali. It has the same chemical relations as the fixed alkalies, potassa, soda, and lithia; but flies off into the air when exposed, requiring, unless dissolved, extreme cold or very great pressure to condered is. It is intensely pangent to the taste and to the breathing orga s, and acts as an invitant poison when taken in large quantities. Two . . Pur a tenspoonfuls, at least, of the stronger Solution of Ammonia will in necessary to endanger a fatul result. Aromatic Spirit of Ammonia might have such an effect, if a tablespoonful or two were swallowed at once. Symptoms of such poisoning are, extreme burning and pain in the stommen, with nausca and von iting, followed by collapse (deathly prostration), which may end fatally in a few hours. One case has been reported in which this took place in a few prinntes: another, after three days. Its being breathed freely !

Treatment of poisoning with Ammonia is like that for Alkalies. Give Vinegar and water, or Lemon-juice, quickly and largely. Afterwards, Olive Oil; then Milk; or, if no sweet-oil is at hand, Milk alone. The Vinegar or Lemon-juice combines with and neutralizes the alkaline Ammonia. Oil makes a soap with it, which is innocent. will then promote the required soothing action, and will also nourish

and support the patient.

Antimony. This metal is present in Tartar Emetic; which is an ingredient of Antimonial Wine and of Coxe's Hive Syrup. these was formerly (but ought never to be) a common domestic medicine for cronp. Syrup of ipecae, has now very properly taken its place. All preparations of Antimony are powerfully emetic, unless in extremely small dose. They are particularly severe in their action upon young children.

Symptoms of poisoning by Tartar Enecie are: a metallie ("coppery") taste, violent nausea, retching, and vomiting (the author suffered with it once, by accident, and found it worse than sea-sickness), thirst, pain in the stomach and bowels, and watery purging; then great prostration. with coldness and clammy perspiration. When only a single overdose has been taken, death may be escaped by all the poison being vomited up. If repeated soon, the danger is increased. The quantity necessary to kill varies much, chiefly for the above reason. Less than a grain of Tartar Emetic has killed a child; four grains have proved fatal to an adult; but, more often, twenty or more grains would be required for such an effect. Mostly, death does not take place for several days after the poison has been swallowed.

In treatment of poisoning by Tartar Emetic, Tannin (Tannie Acid) in

considered to have some antidotal power. If infusion or tincture of Galls can be soon obtained, let it be given, pretty freely. In the absence of this, very strong Tea may be given. At the same time administer moderate but often-repeated doses of some opiate; laudanum or Paregoric. In my own case, above alluded to, teaspoouful doses of Paregoric gave relief in a few hours; the quantity taken, however, (through mistake of a druggist's boy) having been not very large.

Arsenic. Both by accident and through suicidal or murderous intent, this is one of the most frequently fatal poisons. It is used in the manufacture of enamel, and of some kinds of glass, and in ship-building and boiler-making; as well as by farmers to kill potato bugs (Paris green), and in houses and barns to destroy rats. A medicine containing it, often valuable in its place, is Fowler's Solution of Arsenite of Potassium. Arsenic is present also in orpiment and in Scheele's green (arsenite of copper), as well as in Paris green (aceto-arsenite of copper). White Arsenic of the shops is Arsenious Acid. Metallic Arsenic is very seldom used, unless with Arsenious Acid in fly-powder.

Symptoms of arsenical poisoning are complex. It is an irritant-neurotic in its action. About an hour after taking it, there are symptoms of faintness, heat of throat, thirst, and burning pain in the stomach. Violent retching and vomiting follow, and the pain extends through the bowels, with straining and severe purging; sometimes with bloody passages. Prostration soon results; with coldness, small, frequent pulse, and great feeling of weakness; not infrequently delirium, convulsions, or even stupor, will precede death. In slower cases, headache, trembling and other distressing nervous symptoms are common. There is, however, considerable variety in the symptoms of poisoning by Arsenic. Death results in most cases within twenty-four hours; exceptionally, but rarely, in an hour or less; occasionally, after weeks, or even months of protracted suffering.

Treatment. If vomiting has not been already copious, give a teaspoonful of mustard or a tablespoonful of salt in a teacupful of warm water; and follow this with large draughts of warm water, in which Magnesia has been stirred and mixed. Magnesia is at least a partial antidote for preparations of Arsenic. The most effectual antidote is Hydrated Peroxide (sesquioxide) of Iron; in large doses, in the moist state, and freshly made. This may be prepared by putting Tincture of Chloride of Iron in water (quantity not of very great consequence, use plenty of it), and then adding Aqua Ammoniae (solution of Ammonia or hartshorn). A thick powder will be thus precipitated;—which, after washing it with clean water, may be given in tablespoonful doses as an antidote for Arsenic. After this has been freely given, or, in its absence, Magnesia,

then an opiate, as Paregoric or Laudanum, may be administered in moderate doses, to mitigate suffering; and milk, at first hot (unless preferred cold on account of thirst) will be for a time the most beneficial food.

It may be here remarked, that a practical question of some importance is, whether there is danger of arsenical poisoning from the use of Paris green to kill potato bugs or other injurious insects on growing plants, in gardens or fields. Good authority exists for the opinion, that no such danger exists, when reasonable care is taken. Growing plants, as potatoes, will not absorb arsenic into their substance so as to make them poisonous. The Paris green is entirely on the surface of the plants, or on the ground, where it becomes so diluted with moisture and earth, as to be present, when ordinary quantities are used, only in harmless amount.

Mention has been made on a previous page, of the existence of arsenic in the coloring material of many wall-papers. This is wrong, and should be made criminal under the law. When the paper is dry, arsenical dust may get from it into the air of the room, in a quantity sufficient to do much harm, and even endanger life. In one instance under my knowledge, it seemed probable that a lady suffered a fatal illness from sleeping for several months in a room whose walls were covered with green paper containing arsenic.

Atropia:

Belladonna. Atropia is the alkaloid active principle of the plant, Atropa Belladonna, called also Deadly Nightshade. The berries of this plant have sometimes been eaten by children, with fatal effect. Symptoms of this poisoning are, dryness and heat of the mouth and throat, difficulty of swallowing, sickness of stomach, dizziness, dilatation of the pupils, imperfect sight, flushing of the face, delirium, convulsions, and finally stupor. When recovery occurs, some of these symptoms are slow to disappear.

Atropia may cause death in doses of less than a grain; perhaps as little even as but half a grain by the mouth, and still less when intro-

duced under the skin by injection.

Treatment of poisoning by Belladonna or Atropia requires the prompt use of an emetic. Give at once a teaspoonful of mustard, or a tablespoonful of salt, in a tea upful of warm water. Repeat this (or ipecac. if at hand) in ten minutes if it does not cause vomiting; and accompany it with large draughts of warm water, in which finely powdered charcoal has been mixed; or better, charcoal and magnesia. Physicians have much confidence in the antagonism between Atropia and Morphia (or Belladonna and Opium); but that part of the treatment had best be reserved for professional skill and judgment. The principle of it is to give, by the mouth or by hypodermic injection, rather large doses of the antagonist alkaloid (morphia for atropia poisoning, or the converse), at intervals of half an hour or so, until relief is obtained, or the characteristic effects of the antidote appear. Atropia causes the pupils of the eyes to become very large; Morphia makes them contract; in this way the predominant influence of one or the other can be seen. A large dose of Morphia (sulphate or acetate) would be a quarter of a grain; of Atropia, one-thirtieth of a grain.

Bitter Almonds. Oil of Bitter Almonds, whose flavor is agreeable, contains a small amount of Prussic (Hydrocyanic) Acid; and this is a deadly poison. Twenty drops of Oil of Bitter Almonds may kill. Symptoms of this poisoning, which come on usually in a few uninutes, are, extreme prostration, coldness, nausea, dilatation of the pupils, sometimes convulsions; in other cases stuper, with snoring respiration. Death is likely to occur within an hour. In treatment, we have no certain antidote. Dashing cold water repeatedly in the face and on the chest (drying it at once with a warm towel), or even over the whole body, is recommended; and the careful but repeated application of ammonia (smelling-salts) to the nostrils. Recovery from the effects of a large potion of this poison is, however, hardly to be expected.

Camphor. This is not mentioned among the poisons in books on Toxicology. A young relative of mine, however, as a boyish experiment, swallowed about a tablespoonful, or possibly more, of Spirits of Camphor. He lay in a stupor for six or eight hours, and then gradually recovered. I have never known another similar case; but this is mentioned to show the need of care in leaving powerful, even though familiar, drugs within the reach of children.

Cantharides. Spanish Flies. Ointmeut of Cautharides is used to raise blisters. The Tincture is occasionally employed as a medicine. In large doses it acts as an *irritant poison*, especially disturbing the urinary apparatus; strangury (difficult and painful discharge of urine) being its characteristic effect. Vomiting and purging also occur, and sometimes convulsions before death, which may not result for two, three, or more days. In treatment, as there is no chemical antidote for Cantharides, an emetic must be at once given (mustard, salt, or ipecae., with copious draughts of warm water), and may be followed by charcoal and





CANTHARIS VITTATA.



CANTHARIS VESICATORIA.

magnesia water, or, if at hand, flaxseed-tea. Strangury may be best relieved by an injection of forty drops of landanum, with a little starch, into the bowels; also, eloths wrung out of hot water may be applied over the bladder; or the warm hip-bath may be used with advantage.

Carbolic Acid. This is also called *Phenol*. It is to Coal-Oil (Petroleum) what Creasote is to Tar from wood. *Symptoms* of poisoning by either Carbolic Acid, Kerosene, or crude Petroleum, are those of an *irritant narcotic*. First there are burning of the mouth, throat, and stomach, pain in the abdomen, vomiting; then great prostration, faintness, coldness; lastly, insensibility and stupor, ending in death. A tablespoonful of the liquid Carbolic Acid will be pretty sure to cause death, in from half an hour to eight or nine hours. In *treatment* of this form of poisoning, we must first use au emetic (mustard, salt, or ipecac., with plenty of warm water), and then give the patient large draughts of sweet oil. If that is not on hand, lime-water and milk, freely given, will be likely to do good by shielding the coats of the stomach and bowels from the poison.

Castor-Oil Seeds. From these the entirely safe though disagreeable Castor-Oil is obtained; but, when swallowed whole, the seeds have sometimes (three or four or more taken at once) caused death, in the manner of an irritant poison, in less than forty-eight hours. In treatment, give first an emetic (mustard, sult, or ipecac., with abundance of warm water), and then flaxseed-tea or lime-water and milk; also teaspoonful doses of Paregoric, or ten or fifteen drops of Laudanum, every hour, until forty to sixty drops (if the latter be used) have been taken, to allay pain, vomiting, and purging.

Cheese. The daily papers, in April, 1884, mentioned two families having just been severely, but not fatally, poisoned in Brooklyn, by some English Dairy Cheese. A chemist who examined it thought the poison to be in the coloring-matter. The exact explanation of this occasional (rare) acquirement of a poisonous quality by cheese is yet wanting. (On this see page 131.) Unless made so by malicious intent a cheese not so spoiled by keeping as to have a harsh, unpleasant taste, is extremely unlikely to be poisonous; especially in such small or moderate amounts as it is wholesome to consume of even very good cheese.

Treatment for such poisoning must consist in the prompt use of an emetic (see Aconite, Treatment), followed by charcoal and magnesia or lime-water, and paregoric, or small doses of laudanum, to allay suffering. The instances of a fatal result from this cause are very few.

Hydrate of Chloral is the right name of this medicine. which is much used, especially to promote sleep. It is very uncertain in its action upon different people. While some are but little affected by drachm (sixty-grain) doses, others will be considerably narcotized by half as much. Twenty or thirty grains will be an ordinary medicinal dose. Less than a drachm has been fatal in a few instances; three drachms would probably almost always kill; although some persons have taken much more with impunity. The symptoms of the poisonous action of Chloral are merely those of deep narcotism; the victim cannot be roused, and sleeps away to death, in a few hours. Treatment of it, in the absence of a certain antidote, consists in the immediate use of an emetic, followed by very strong come or tea; dashing cold water on the face and chest; if the patient can walk, moving him about, slapping the back and limbs briskly, etc., to keep him awake, as in opium-poisoning; for last resorts, the galvanic battery and artificial respiration. A physician may carefully try the antagonism which probably exists between Strychnine and Chloral.

Chloroform. This liquid is much used in Europe, but less than Ether in this country, as an anæsthetic, by being breathed to annul the pain of surgical operations.' It is more dangerous, by far, than Ether

or Nitrous Oxide, in this mode of employment; and, of course, it should never be taken or given in this way by an approfessional person. I was the first physician to experiment with its internal use, on my own person and afterwards on a number of others, in the Pennsylvania Hospital, in 1848. I found that a much larger quantity is safe in this way, by swallowing, than when it is breathed; and have since given it many times in tenspoonful doses, with only moderate soporific effect. A case has been reported of a boy four years old being killed by a drachm of Chloroform taken into the stomach. Deep stupor resulted, in which he died. While this gives reason for caution, it is not likely that less than four fluidrachms (half an onnee, about a tablespoonful), and probably not often that much, taken by the stomach, would produce death in an adult.

Symptoms of Chloroform poisoning are those of stnpor, from which the patient cannot be roused. This may be preceded by signs of great irritation of the stemach; as Chloroform is very pungent and heating when swallowed. Treatment requires an emetic at once (see Aconite, Treatment); and then, as there is no ehemical antidote, dashing cold water on the face and chest, and, if it can be obtained, the galvanie battery; as a last resort, artificial respiration.

Citric Acid. This is the natural acid of lemons, separated from them by a chemical process. It is only poisonous when taken in very large amount; an ounce or more. Treatment for this, as for other acid poisons, is, first, an emetic (see Aconite, Treatment), then magnesia, chalk or soda, or soap, to neutralize the acid.

Coal-Oil. See Carbolic Acid.

Cocculus Indicus. The berries of this Eastern tree are nsed in some places to poison fish. They are said also to be pnt, as an adulteration, into beer (in England), to increase its intoxicating power. Probably not much of this is really done. Their poisonous principle is picrotoxin. A tea may "Cocculus berries is sometimes employed to kill bedbings, etc.; and sionally this has been swallowed by mistake, with fatal result. The symptoms are, irritation of the stomach (pain, nausea, and vomiting), followed by a peculiar sort of narcotism; a half-awake lethargy, knowing what is going on, yet quite without power to speak or move.

Treatment for this poisoning, in the absence of any known antidote, must consist in the use of an *emetic* (see Aconite, Treatment), followed by dranghts of warm charcoal and magnesia water, and strong tea or coffee; when the worst is over, allowing the patient to sleep it off at length.

Colchicum. This plant, Meadow Saffron, Colchicum autumnale, is used considerably in medicine; the Wine of the Root and the Wine of

the Seeds. By an overdose (a teaspoonful or more) violent vomiting, pain in the abdomen, purging and prostration are caused; in some instances it is fatal. *Treatment* for this poisoning should be the same as

for that from Castor-Oil Seeds; which see.

Copper. While this metal, when pure, is not itself poisonous, its compounds are; and they are made by the action on copper of the fluids of the stomach, or by acids and other materials used in cooking, pickling, etc. In this way copper poisoning sometimes occurs, as well as among those working in copper. Mineral water (Carbonic Acid Water, Soda-Water) dissolves copper; hence reservoirs of that metal, without any, or with only an imperfect, lining of something not soluble, ought not to be used for it. The compounds of Copper most often acting poisonously are, Blue Vitriol (Bluestone), the Sulphate; and Verdigris, the Subacetate of Copper. In large amount taken at once, either of these will cause severe vomiting, pain in the abdomen, and purging; afterwards headache, and, in fatal cases, convulsions or paralysis before death. Slow poisoning will result from taking small amounts of copper daily, as in cooked or pickled articles, for a length of time. Symptoms of this are, a coppery taste in the mouth, with parched tongue and throat; nausea, retching, perhaps vomiting; pains in the stomach and 'owels; diarrhosa, with straining; weakness, with nervous restlessness; dizziness, cold sweats, cramps, and at last convulsions.

Treatment for rapid Copper poisoning (as it is itself an emetic) should consist in giving an abundance of whites of eggs; albumen making a harmless compound with copper. Milk may be given freely if no eggs are at hand; its effect is of the same kind. For slow Copper poisoning, the main thing is to withdraw the cause, in whatever thing or things it may exist. Then, a milk diet, with moderate doses of an opiate, as Paregorie, or small doses of Laudanum, to assuage the pain and diar-

rhœa, will be suitable.

Corrosive Sublimate. This, the Chloride of Mercury, is a deadly poison; three or four grains of it may kill a man. Symptoms of its action are, in a marked degree, those of the irritant poisons; a metallic taste, burning in the mouth, throat, and stomach, pain in the abdomen, vomiting, purging, with straining, nervous anxiety, extreme prostration; often convulsions, sometimes stupor, before death. Commonly, death does not result under one or more days; but examples are recorded of its taking place within an hour after the poison had been swallowed. Treatment of Corrosive Sublimate poisoning requires (as for copper) free administration of whites of eggs; the more the better, until relief is obtained; or, if eggs cannot be had, large and repeated draughts of milk.

Creasote. This, obtained from Tar, has poisonous properties much

resembling those of Carbolic Acid; which see.

Croton Oil. Obtained from the seeds of the plant called Croton tiglium; this oil is a very powerful cathartic, as well as an irritant to the skin. One drop of it will purge severely. Thirty drops have been known to kill, with symptoms of irritant poisoning; namely, vomiting, pain in the abdomen, violent diarrhea, and prostration. For treatment of these symptoms, so caused, see Castor-Oil Seeds.

Cyanide of Potassium. See Hydrocyanic Acid.

Digitalis. Forglove is the common name in England for this purple-flowered plant. The leaves are used in medicine, chiefly in the form of a Tincture. Its active principle, Digitalin, is a powerful poison.

Not many cases of death from taking either Digitalis or Digitalin have been reported. The symptoms resulting from either of them are, vomiting, purging, pain in the abdomen, dizziness, disordered sight, dilated pupils; the pulse full and slow while the patient is lying down, but becoming rapid and weak when he sits up. Later, prostration and faintness follow, with an irregular pulse; towards the last, delirium, convulsions, and stupor. Death does not generally occur under twenty-four or thirty-six hours; although in one case it is asserted to have taken place within an hour.

Treatment of Digitalis poisoning, as of that of other agents for which we have no certain antidotes,* must consist of the use of an emetic (see Aconite, Treatment), unless copious as well as frequent vomiting has already occurred; and then charcoal and magnesia-water, with such cautious use of stimulants (ammonia, whisky, external heat, the galvanic battery) as the symptoms appear to call for; and, if all else fails, arti-

ficial respiration.

^{*} Aconitia is said to ; r physiological antidote for Digitalin; but it is itself too potent a poison to be dealt with by any but skilful professional hands.

Ergot. Secale cornutum, or Spurred Rye; this is a kind of parasitic

vegetable growth upon the grain of common Rye;

most frequently met with on damp grounds in some parts of Northern Europe. Before its qualities were understood, whole communities were sometimes more or less severely poisoned by it; the worst symptom at-



tending its use as food being gangrene of the extremities. Wine of Ergot is largely used as a medicine, especially in cases of sluggish labor, or for the arrest of hemorrhage. I do not know of any cases of fatal poisoning by overdoses of this preparation. If any one should be made ill by such, or by the Fluid Extract of Ergot, taken by mistake, an emetic, followed by charcoal and magnesia-water, would be proper in the treatment.

Ether. Although much safer than chloroform as an anæsthetic, breathed to produce insensibility under surgical operations, or to mitigate the pains of labor,

an anæsthetic, breathed to produce insensibility under surgical operations, or to mitigate the pains of labor, Ether may possibly be inhaled to such an extent as to coase dangerous and even fatal narcotism. In such a case, the pulse fails; it flutters, and almost or quite ceases. When complete insensibility has been brought on by any anæsthetic, as shown by the arm

dropping at once when lifted, by deep breathing, and by the lids not closing forcibly when they are opened with the fivgers, then the ether, chloroform, or nitrous oxide should be withdrawn at once. In using ether in child-koor, it is not needful or desirable to produce entire insensibility. The "edge" may be taken off of severe pains in the second stage of labor (expulsive pains) by the patient beginning to breathe the ether from a sponge wet with it and held near the nostrils, as soon as a pain begins; and continuing it only for a minute or two with each pain. If, under anæsthesia, the pulse ceases to be felt, the breathing becomes feeble, and the face shows collapse, dash cold water in the face; put a bottle of ammonia under the nose for a moment at a time; and, if reaction is slow, lift the patient's heels above his head for a few seconds; then, if necessary, begin artificial respiration. (See Drowning.)

Fish, Poisonous. Accounts are given of certain kinds of fish, chiefly in tropical climates, being unwholesome and even dangerous food. I have never heard of any such in this country. Most cases so reported are probably instances of "idiosyncrasy"; that is, peculiarity of individual constitutions. Those so affected may require an emetic, if the irritating undigested article remains in the stomach. If the bowels are not already purged freely, charcoal and magnesia will be appropriate; and perhaps moderate doses of paregoric or laudanum may be called for (although not nearly always so) to allay lingering pain and distress of the stomach and bowels.

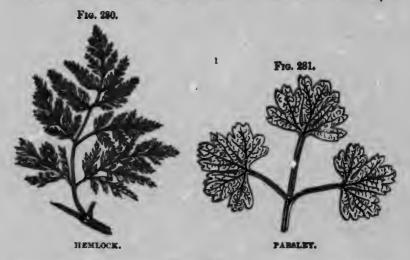
Fungi. Mushrooms and Truffles belong to this group of plants; both being largely eaten, and agreeing with most persons. Botanists inform us that there are many species of innocent and non-ishing fungi; but there are some, also, that are desigerously poisonous. While, then, the general rule is, that those whose color is not dark, nor taste harsh, nor odor disagrecable, are harmless, experiments are not safe in such a matter, when made by those ignorant of the kind they have found. The true eatable Mushroom, Agaricus campestris, grows on open ground, has pink "gills" or a frilled arrangement underneath its crown, a small "ruffle" also on its stem, and a thin skin on top, which can be peeled off easily. The assertion made by some that even this plant is unsafe until cooked does not agree with my experience; as I have often eaten at least a small handful of mushroom plants raw, .ithout any injury. Still, they may under some circumstances be less wholesome, and cooking improves their flavor as well as secures their innocency. Symptoms of "toadstool" poisoning are those of irritant poisoning; vomiting, purging, and abdominal pains; with, also, dizziness, partial blindness, delirium, perhaps convulsions and stupor, at least in fatal cases. Generally, the symptoms do not show themselves for a number of hours, if the irritant effects are most promiuent; but stupefying effects have sometimes appeared within an hour or two.

No antidote for fungus-poisoning having been ascertained to exist, the proper treatment for it is, the use of mustard, salt, or ipecac. as an emetic, followed by charcoal and magnesia-water, and then stim ants (ammonia, whisky, etc.), if required by great debility; lime-water and milk for nourishment (later, beef-tea, etc.); and, if irritation and pain without stupor be present, careful use of moderate doses of some opiate as paregoric or laudanum, to assuage distress and procure relief.

Hellebore. Three plants go by this name: Black Hellebore (Helleborus Niger), Green Hellebore (Veratrum Viride), and White Hellebore (Veratrum Album). These are all poisonous when taken in considerable dose; the White Hellebore the most so, containing as its active principle veratria.*

Black Hellebore is sometimes given, in the form of a ten, in Eugland, for worms; but it is not a safe domestic medicine. Death has sometimes resulted from its use, with symptoms like those of cholera-morbus,

Green or American Hellebore, Veratrum Viride, is not infrequently prescribed by physicians as a sedative medicine, in the form of a Tineture, in doses of two or three drops at a time. In large dose, it will kill, chiefly by prestration. Veratria, in a dose less than one-twelfth of a grain, has caused alarming effects. Two grains of it will kill a



cat in less than a minute. White Hellebore depends for its action on this powerful alkaloid.

Treatment of Hellebore or Veratria poisoning requires, first a brisk emetio (see Aconite. Treatment), and then stimulants; as ammonia and landanum. The last-named has seemed in several cases to be especially useful; but it must be given with caution, so as not to substitute one kind of poisoning for anot er in an excessive degree.

Hemlock. Socrates, the Greek philosopher, was put to death by this poison (Cicuta of the ancients; now Conium maculatum). It is a depressant; not very unlike Tobacco and Lobelia in its effects. Sometimes Hemlock has been eaten by mistake for Parsley; to which it has

^{*} Probably present also in Green Hellebore (Verairum viride).

some resemblance in appearance. Actions cynapium, Fool's Parsley, is another poisonous plant, growing wild in New England, which has been sometimes eaten by mistake for parsley. Prostration and loss of power to move are the chief symptoms of its action; the mind ber g clear of stupor or even delirium to the last. Plato describes Socrates as conversing calmly with his disciples until near his end.

Treatment of Hemlock poisoning must be by an emetic (mustard preferred), followed by stimulation, with ammonia, whisky (small doses at short intervals), heat to the body and limbs, and, as last resorts, the galvanic battery and artificial respiration.



Hydrochloric Acid, Muriatic Acid, the old name for this, is still much used. It is not so strong an acid as Sulphuric Acid (Oil of Vitriol), but its effects are of the same kind. The smallest fatal dose recorded is half an ounce (about a tablespoonful). Much larger quantities have been taken without destroying life. The symptoms are those of irritant poisoning. (See Sulphuric Acid for these symptoms, and also for their Treatment.)

Hydrocyanic Acid. The common name for this is Prussic Acid. It is one of the most deadly of all known poisons. Yet, in small

amount, it is present (or is easily formed from) several familiar things; as peach-flowers, leaves, and kernels, bitter aimonds, apple-seeds, stones of the cherry, plum, and apricot, the root of the mountain ash, and the flowers of the cherry-laurel. Water distilled from this last (cherrylaurel water) is quite poisonous. In all these, it is not the acid itself that is present, but two substances which readily form it, when mixed together with water. Prussic acid is used in medicine in the condition of Dilute Hydrocyanic Acid. It is of two strengths; the officinal, two. parts in one hundred of water; and Scheele's, containing about five parts ir. one hundred. The medicinal dose of the officinal Prussic Acid is one drop. Fifty or sixty drops will generally be a fatal dose. The symptoms are those of sudden and extreme prostration; coming on in a minute or two, and ending life in from ten to fifteen minutes. Time for treatment is thus seldom allowed. Dashing cold water repeatedly upon the face and chest, and careful breathing and swallowing of Ammonia, are about all that can often be done. Dessertspoonful doses of whisky or brandy, a few times, will be appropriate. It would be right to try also, in so desperate a case, the quick and powerful stimulation of limited strong heat; by touching the pit of the stomach and the middle of the back, alternately, . In the end of a poker, or a piece of stout wire, heated not quite to a red heat at the nearest fire, gas, lamp, or candle flanc. Electricity, an analogous excitant, can seldom be had ready in time for this kind of poisoning.

Cyanide of Potossium has precisely the same effects as Prussic Acid, in doses still smaller. It is used by photographers and in electrotyping. Treatment of poisoning from it should be the same as for Hydrocyanic Acid.

Hyoscyamus. The Henbane (Hyoscyamus niger) has a root like a small parsnip, and has occasionally been eaten by mistake for it. Poisonous effects result from this, as well as from swallowing the seeds or leaves. An extract from the leaves is used in medicine. Symptoms of Hyoscyamus poisoning are: dryness of the throat, with difficulty of swallowing; enlargement of the pupils, and dimness of vision; headache, ringing in the ears, dizziness, vomiting; later, delirium, sometimes convulsions and paralysis, and stupor, which may end in death. Treatment of such poisoning, at least in the absence of a physician, should consist of the immediate use of an emetic (mustard, salt, or ipecae.), followed by charcoal and magnesia-water, freely given.

Iodine. Several preparations containing this substance are used in medicine; but they are not very likely to be taken poisonously. Were this to happen, the effects would be chiefly those of an irritant poison. The antidote for Iodine is starch; if it is not on hand in a pure state, flour and water, or rice-water, made thick, will supply it sufficiently well.

James n Weed. See Stramonlum.

Jessamme. The Yellow Jessamine (Gelsemium sempervirens) contains an alkaloid, Gelseminia, which has produced death in the dose of one-sixth of a grain; with symptoms of irritant and depressant poisoning. Of course the plant itself is dangerous only when swallowed in much larger amount. An emetic, charcoal and magnesia-water, and stimulation with ammonia and whisky, etc., would be the proper treatment for such poisoning.

Kalmia. The common laurel of lower Pennsylvania (Wissahickon woods near Philadelphia) and elsewhere, also called Sheep Laurel, Kalmia Latifolia, has long had the reputation of being poisonous. Thomas Meehan, one of the best scientific botanists in America, recently (Gardener's Monthly, 1884), on the basis of experiments by chemists who found no poisonous principle in it, denies its poisonous quality altogether. He is probably right; but there is no occasion for risking anything by esting it.

Laurel. See Kalmia, above. The Cherry Laurel has in its leaves the ingredients which, with water, make Prussic Acid. See Hydrocyanic Acid.

Lead. While metallic Lead is not poisonous, many of its compounds are so. The one most nearly inert is the Sulphate of Lead. Hence Sulphuric Acid, and its salts, as Sulphate of Magnesium, are antidotes for it. Sugar of Lead (Acetate of Lead) and the Subacetate, present in Goulard's Extract, which are often used to make Lead-water, are sometimes taken poisonously by mistake. Violent vomiting and purging, with very severe pains in the abdomen, followed by prostration, have been the symptoms in such cases; death taking place (if the quautity was very large) in from one to three days. Treatment for such acute or sudden poisoning by Lead, should consist in the use, if vomiting is not copious, of an emetic dose (twenty to thirty grains) of Sulphate of

Zinc, followed by whites of eggs in abundance, milk, and moderate doses of Sulphate of Magnesium (Epsom Salts); with warmth applied to the body, and opiates (as Paregoric or Landanum) to relieve pain when the most urgent symptoms have been overcome.

Slow or chronic Lead poisoning is much more common. engaged in the separation of Lead from its ores, or in the manufacture of "white" and "red" Lead, lace-whiteners, card-glazers, painters, and also glaziers, plumbers, pewterers, and those who glaze pottery, are all exposed to it. Sleeping in a freshly-painted room affects some persons. Cooking-vessels lined with glazing containing Lead, and fruit or vegetable cans in which it has been used in the soldering process, when acid fruits or vegetables have been kept for some time in them, make such articles of food more or less poisonous. Mineral (carbonic acid) water in leaden reservoirs becomes so. When leaden pipes are used to carry the liquid from such reservoirs, so much of the carbonic acid water as remains long in the pipes dissolves enough lead to be injurious. Beer or cider drawn through leaden pipes is likewise tainted. Using shot to clean wine-bottles, leaving some shot, in the bottles and again filling them with wine, exposes it to this action. Wrapping tobacco in tinfoil ("patent" tinfoil) which contains lead, as pure tinfoil does not, is unsafe for the same reason. Hair dyes, to blacken the hair, generally contain Lead, and serious poisoning, once at least fatal, has resulted from their free and frequent use; and the same is true of some enamels, etc., for the complexion. (Another objection to these last is the fact that sulphir, or sulphuretted hydrogen gas, will blacken such cosmetics; with a frightful effect occasionally upon the faces so meant to be adorned.) Water may be poisoned by passing through leaden pipes, under certain circumstances. Not always, clearly; as the tens of thousands of hydrants in the cities of New York, Philadelphia, and others, are so supplied. But so much has been said about this in a previous part of this book, that we may refer concerning it to Water Supply, under Our Homes, in Hygiene.

Two kinds of slow Lead poisoning occur; Lead Colic and Lead Palsy. Both of these have been considered in our alphabetical series, under Special Diseases. As, also, they are always sufficiently prolonged for opportunity to exist to obtain medical advice, their treatment does not require here to be dwelt upon.

Ley. See Potassa.

Lime. Especially unslaked Lime, being strongly alkaline, is caustic, and irritating to the stomach and bowels. Its effects, if largely swallowed, are those of the *irritant* poisons; vomiting, purging, abdominal pains, and subsequent prostration. *Treatment*, vinegar and water, or

lemon-juice (both acids, to neutralize the alkaline earth, lime) and water,

quickly and abundantly given.

Lobelia. Indian Tobacco, Lobelia inflata, a common small plant in this country, has long been popularly used as a medicine. Tincture of Lobelia is a valuable remedy for attacks of asthma. In overdose, it is very poisonous, with a depressant action, resembling that of tobacco. The "Thomsonian" system of pseudo-medicine used Lobelia freely, and thereby has been charged * with sacrificing the lives of thousands of persons. Symptoms of Lobelia poisoning are; vomiting, sometimes purging, extreme prostration; in some instances convulsions before death.

In treatment of Lobelia poisoning, as we have no special antidote, we can only depend upon an emetic (mustard preferred), followed by charcoal and magnesia-water, and stimulation, with ammonia, whisky, etc., and heat applied to the body.

Lunar Caustic. See Nitrate of Silver. Its antidote is common

salt.

^{*} By Dr. Beck, in his Medical Jurisprudence.

Mercury. This metal, in the pure state, is not poisonous; but several of its preparations are so; notably Corrosive Sublimate; which see. Morphia. See Opium.

Mushrooms. See Fungi.

Mussels. On the coast of Enrope, in many places, these are used extensively for food; but now and then they make people ill; whether because of their peculiar "idiosyncrasy," or on account of a change in the mussels, it is very hard to ascertain. The symptoms are generally others of irritant poisoning; an eruption on the skin like nettle-rash being also common. Death has sometimes resulted. In treatment, an emetic, and charcoal and magnesia-water, are appropriate.

Nitrate of Silver. Lunar Crustic is the common name for this. It is a powerful irritant poison. If swallowed by accident or mistake, the symptoms of its action will be like those of corrosive sublimate poisoning, only less rapid and violent. The antidote for Nitrate of Silver is common salt (cholor of sodium); which makes with it the harmless chloride of silver. Let salt be taken, a tablespoonful at a time, in water; its emetic action will be an advantage.

Nitric Acid. Aqua Fortis is an old commercial name for this powerful acid. Two teaspoonfuls of it swallowed will generally destroy life. Breathing its fumes has repeatedly caused death within ten to fifteen hours. Symptoms of Nitrie Acid poisoning, and their treatment, are the same as those of the other mineral acids. See Sulphuric Acid.

Nux Vomica. See Strychnia.

Oil of Bitter Almonds. See Bitter Almonds.

Opium. This is the most powerful and frequently used of the sleep-producing (hypnotic) and anodyne (pain-relieving) medicines. Morphia is its most characteristic and important active principle. Laudanum, Paregoric, and McMunn's Elixir are familiar preparations containing it. The effects on the human system of all these are very much the same, in different degrees.

Four or five grains of solid Opium will generally kill a person not habituated to it; and this amount is represented in a teaspoonful of Landanum, in a wineglassful of Paregorie, and in a grain of Sulphate, Acetate or Muriate of Morphia. The regular American Solution of Morphia contains one grain of Sulphate of Morphia in each fluidonnce; Magendie's solution of Morphia contains sixteen grains in each fluidonnce. While, therefore, about two tablespoonfuls of the American solution

will be the smallest poisonous dose, a half-teaspoonful of Magendie's

Solution will be equally dangerous.

Under the heading of Stimulants and Narcotics, in Part II., on Hygiene, attention has been given to the enormous doses taken by those who have long been accustomed to the use of Opium. Those suffering extreme pain, also, sometimes bear much larger than usual medicinal amounts; but the increase of the quantity in such cases requires a great deal of care. Children are remarkably susceptible of the influence of opiates. Very small doses of laudanum, paregorie, etc., should be given to a child, before ascertaining its individual liability in this respect. Laudanum, when long kept, grows stronger; we should be especially cautions, therefore, in giving the last drops of an old bottle of laudanum.

Symptoms of any kind of Opiate poisoning are: in not very excessive dose, at first a short period of excitement; in overwhelming dose, this is absent and the deep stupor comes almost at once; with closed eyes, whose pupils, if the lids be raised, are seen to be contracted; pulse slow and full; breathing snoring (stertorous); face flushed and skin warm, until near the end, when pallor and coldness precede death. The slowness of the breathing in bad cases is very remarkable. The condition on the whole bears a close resemblance to apoplexy, dead drunkenness, and compression of the brain from fracture of the skull. In neither of these, however, are the pupils contracted as in Opium-poisoning.

Death usually follows within from seven to twelve hours.

Treatment of Opium-poisoning calls first for an emetic; a teaspoonful of mustard, a tablespoonful of salt, or a teaspoonful of ipecae., in warm water, should be poured down the throat at once, if the patient can swallow. When this is not possible, a physician will use a stomachpump. After the emetic, if Tineture of Belladonna can be obtained, let twenty drops of it be given every half hour until the pupils begin to dilate. This is advised because of the frequent experience showing that atropia (the alkaloid of Belladouna) and morphia antagonize each other in their effects upon the human system. If a physician is on hand, he will be likely, instead, to administer atropia hypodermically; that is, through and under the skin, in doses of one-twentieth of a grain each time, watching its effects. Also, cold water should be dashed upon the face, and the patient's body may be slapped vigorously, or, if he can, he may be made to walk about; anything to keep him awake, or from sinking into the fatal degree of lethargy. (Observe how different a case this is from that of apoplexy, or of stupor from fracture of the In either of those conditions, the patient should be kept as quiet as possible; brain-rest is then indispensable to give a chance of recovery.) The galvanic battery, applied to the back and chest, and a tificial respiration (see Drowning) are last resorts in Opiate poisoning. Touching the back and pit of the stomach lightly but repeatedly with a very hot irou (e. g., the end of a piece of thick wire, etc.) will be worth trying for the same rousing effect. If the patient begins to improve so as to swallow, strong tea or coffee will assist in removing the narcotism.

Oxalic Acid. A small amount of this gives the sour taste to sorrel and to the leaves of rhubarb (pie-plant). When pure, it is a crystalline solid, enough in appearance like Epsom salts to have been occasionally taken for it. In taste, however, it is very different. The smallest amount ever fatal is a drachm; half an ounce or an ounce may easily be so. Symptoms of its action are those of an irritant poison (see Corrosive Sublimate, etc.), with extreme prostration, and also headache, delirium, and convulsions before death. A very large dose may kill in a few minutes; generally death results within an hour. In exceptional instances, it has happened after several days.

Treatment () Dealic Acid poisoning must be, the immediate use of something containing lime, mixed with water or oil. Chalk will answer best, unless lime-water is at hand, to be used freely. Magnesia will do, if there is no lime or chalk within reach. Scraping plaster from a wall and giving it to the patient will be better than to wait half an hour to send to a druggist, as there is no time to lose.

Phosphorus. This substance, a small portion of which is always naturally present in our brains and in our bones, is, when in the separate state, a most destructive poison. It acts rapidly; when, for example, ends of lucifer matches are swallowed, through mistake or malice. It is known also to act slowly, in producing disease of the jawbones, with those engaged in making lucifer matches. Symptoms of acute or rapid Phosphorus poisoning usually begin to appear a few hours after it is taken. There is a garlieky taste, with burning in the throat, pain in the stomach, violent vomiting, sometimes purging; coldness, prostration, and either convulsions or stupor before death, which may follow in from one to five or six days. The amount necessary to kill an adult is less than a grain. A child two years old is reported to have died in consequence of swallowing the ends of eight friction-matches; and two of these have killed an infant two months old.

Treatment of Phosphorus poisoning must be conducted without any known artidote, unless old spirit of turpentine, in teaspoonful doses, be such, as some have asserted. First give an emctic (see Aconite, Treatment), with plenty of warm water; then charcoal and magnesia-water, abundantly. No oil (unless oil of turpentine, as above said) is to be given after Phosphorus poisoning; oil dissolves and diffuses it more rapidly. Rice-water, milk, or flaxseed-tea will be suitable to allay

irritation, in a case which escapes death.

Potassa. Caustic Potassa, or Potash, is a powerful destroyer of animal tissues; having a very strong affinity for water. Ley contains it in considerable amount. Its effects, when swallowed, are those of an irritant poison. (See Corrosive Sublimate, etc.) Injury of the throat may remain for a long time. Treatment must be by an emetic, and the neutralization of the alkali potassa with an acid; as vinegar or lemon-juice promptly and freely given, in an abundance of water. Afterwards, flaxseed-tea, milk, rice-water, etc., will be appropriate, to soothe the inflamed stomach and bowels.

Prussic Acid. See Hydrocyanic Acid.

Sausage Poisoning. The history of this is quite obscure. Most of the cases have been reported in Germany, where uncooked sausagement is often eaten. Some of the deaths are undoubtedly to be accounted for by trichinosis. (See the account of the spiral thread-worm, trichina, under Worms.)

Probably spoiled sausage may sometimes acquire a poisonous property without these parasites. The symptoms described as following sausage poisoning are those of an *irritant-narcotic* kind, *Emetics* and charcoal and magnesia-water will constitute a reasonable treatment for them.

Soda. This alkali, when pure, is caustic, like potassa. What is commonly called Soda, however, is the Bicarbonate of Sodium. This is not poisonous; although tablespoonful doses would be irritating and



JAMESTOWN WEED (STRAMONIUM).

unwholesome for the stomach. For the symptoms and treatment of poisoning by caustic Soda, see Potassa.

Stramonium. Datura Stramonium is the botanical name of the common Jamestown (often called Jimson) weed. Thorn-apple is another name for it. The seeds are sometimes eaten by children, with fatal effect. Both the seeds and the leaves are sometimes used in medicine.

Symptoms attend Stramonium poisoning, of the same kind, essentially, as those resulting from Belladonna or Atropia. For an account of these, therefore, and the treatment thereof, see Belladonna.

Strychnia. This violent poison is contained in the fruit of the Nux Vomica (Dog buttons), a tree native to India. Brucia is another poisonous alkaloid present with it in the same fruit or seeds, and in a few

other plants. One nut or seed of Nux Vomica is a fatal dose for an adult; of Strychnia, half a grain has killed a man. Symptoms of this kind of poisoning are quite peculiar. Almost immediately after taking it, great restlessness comes on, with a feeling of suffocation. Soon follow jerking movements of the arms, legs, and head; and then a tetanic condition (like that of lockjaw) in which all the muscles of the body become stiffly contracted; the body making an arch, resting upon the head and heels. The mind is at the same time unaffected. After a minute, more or less, this spasmodic attack gives way; but it is repeated in half an hour or so; being hastened by any sudden sound, touch, or other sensation. Death results in some cases in a few minutes; in others, not under several hours. The average time is about two hours.

Treatment. Give at once an emetic of mustard, salt, or ipecac., with large drinks of warm water. Then use chloroform, carefully, by inhalation. Lay a handkerohief single over the patient's face; and drop upon it, near the nostrils, one drop at a time, of chloroform, will the breathing and other movements are quieted. Then remove the handkerchief, but renew the dropping when another tetanic spasm appears to be beginning. The internal use of chloroform, in teaspoonful doses, well diluted with water, is also recommended; having saved life in recorded instances. This is heroic treatment; but there is hardly any more terrific poison to deal with than Strychnia.

Sulphuric Acid. Oil of Vitriol. A heavy liquid, very corrosive. Swallowing a teaspoonful of it may kill a grown person, within twenty-four hours; chiefly from suffocation. Sometimes death is almost immediate. With smaller quantities, burning pain, vomiting and pros-

tration are the symptoms.

Treatment. At once, soda, magnesia or chalk, freely given in large draughts of water or milk, if the patient can swallow; if not, there is little hope of recovery. A physician may, in bad cases, use the stomach-pump, or perhaps open the windpipe to prevent death by suffocation.

Tartar Emetic. See Antimony.

Tartaric Acid. The natural acid of grapes. It is present in cream of tartar (bitartrate of potassium). In doses as large as an ounce, or perhaps less, it is an irritant poison. Its symptoms and their proper treatment are the same as those of Citric Acid; which see.

Tin. Pure metallic Tin is not at all poisonous. Water may be kept, boiled, or conveyed in vessels or pipes made of it, with entire safety. If it is ever alloyed with lead, which is said to be the case with one kind of patent tinfoil, and some other cheap tin now made, this is an injurious fraud. It is doubtful whether even the long-continued action of vinegar, or of the acid of fruits, in cans of pure tin, will dissolve enough of the metal to become unwholesome. Bits of solder, consisting partly of lead, may sometimes drop into the contents of cans; and these fragments, if swallowed, will be likely to produce lead poisoning. One should use the tongue, watchfully, before swallowing each mouthful of anything taken from a tin can.

Dyer's Spirit, a preparation containing the chlorides of Tin, is an irritant poison of moderate power. Very few instances of its being injuriously taken are recorded.

Toadstools. See Fungi.

Tobacco. Containing a very poisonous volatile liquid alkaloid, nicotin, the leaves of the Tobacco plant are capable of destroying life, when a portion is swallowed, or even long applied in a moist state to a considerable part of the surface of the body. Two cases are recorded, also, of death from excessive smoking; one from seventeen, and the other from eighteen pipes at a single sitting.

Probably a grown man, unaccustomed to the use of Tobacco, might be fatally poisoned by swallowing the whole of a single strong cigar. Symptoms of Tobacco poisoning are dizziness, restlessness, vomiting, sometimes purging, and extreme prostration. It is a depressant poison. Treatment should be, the use of a mustard or salt emetic, followed by ammonia as a stimulant, with warmth to the body and rubbing the limbs to excite reaction.

Zinc. Pure Zinc is not poisonous. The Zinc commonly used, however, contains some antimony and lead, a little arsenic, and other impurities. It is not a safe thing, therefore, to store water in, or to line cooking-vessels, etc., with.

Sulphate of Zinc (White Vitriol) is a powerful irritant poison. It produces vomiting at once, and therefore seldom kills unless in very large doses; half an ounce or an ounce at once. Symptoms and Treatment of such poisoning are like those of other metallic irritants. See Corrosive Sublimate, or Copper. Chloride of Zinc is used in solution as a disinfectant, under the name of Burnett's Fluid. It is still more corrosive and irritant than the Sulphate. See Copper, for symptoms and treatment of such poisoning.



PART VII.

OLD AGE AND DEATH.

WE ALL DO FADE AS A LEAF.

NOT many persons die a perfectly natural death. This, as was said earlier in this book, *ought* to take place not much, if at all, before the end of the hundredth year. Yet many persons may truly enough be considered to die of old age, without having any manifest disease, at ninety, or even eighty-five years; indeed, possibly, before their eightieth year.

Opportunity to observe very closely the last stages of one slowly declining life, with a less direct acquaintance with several others, has confirmed my view, that old age is, in several respects, a second childhood. The development seen in infancy, during the first five years of life, is, more gradually, reversed, in those who live to be from eighty-five to a hundred years old. The changes most noticeable are these:

1. Wasting. The least necessary part of the body, the fat, first disappears; causing the shrivelled appearance of the figure, and the deeply wrinkled face and bony hands. Then the muscular flesh is absorbed, with accompanying loss of strength; which, however, is less felt because of the little weight left to be moved about.

2. Food is wanted to be taken often, though not in large amounts at once. After seventy, the old man should take food four times a day; after eighty, even five times will be better; milk being an important part of his dict. Near ninety, almost all his food should be liquid; especially as the teeth have (with few exceptions) gone long before. It is true that the dentist's art, by supplying artificial teeth, when "the grinders cease because they are few," has now made very advanced age more possible. Beef-tea, or beef-essence, not filtered, but warmed and spiced moderately with red pepper, will greatly help out the dict of those who are very aged.

3. More and more hours of repose are required. They may not be all hours of sound sleep; as old persons often do not sleep so many

hours continuously as those who are younger. But every one over sixty should spend at least eight hours of the twenty-four in bed or reclining on a couch. After seventy, the hours of repose should never be less than nine; after eighty, ten; and at or near ninety, half or more of the old man's time will most naturally and advantageously be spent at rest.

4. Childhood is repeated also in the feebleness of mental power, from the wasting of the brain. The memory goes first; especially the recollection of recent events. Far off remembrances, of early days, and of those of middle life, come up almost as freshly as ever; but what happened yesterday, or even to-day, is easily forgotten. The power to reason closely, or to give attention very long to one subject, next gives way. We need not dwell on the dimness of sight and dulness of hearing, which are among the usual (but not universal) infirmities of age. In all these particulars, there is a very great variety in individuals. Some of those who live the longest retain till the last more of their original mental capacity, with good sight, hearing, and muscular strength, than those whose life-energy is exhausted not much after the end of four-score years.

5. Temperature is lowest in the aged; and resistance to cold is, with them, feeble. A very old person should be sure to wear a sufficiency of warm clothing, and should not sleep in a room where the thermometer marks less than 50° Fahr. Such a one risks death from cold stroke by even walking out of doors when the temperature approaches zero.

Life ends, before old age, through general exhaustion from disease, or through failure of one or more of the three great organs, the heart, lungs, and brain. Cessation of the heart's action may be called death by syncope; that by interference with the function of the lungs, asphyxia; from oppression of the brain, coma. Exhaustion of the whole system constitutes asthenia.

Sudden death may result from apoplexy; or rupture of the heart, which had undergone fatty degeneration; or very copious bleeding from the lungs or bowels; or bursting of an aneurism or an abscess within the chest, or of an aneurism within the abdomen; or suffocation; or exhaustion from violent over-exertion, or from effort too severe or prolonged for the strength to endure; or shock; as from violent mental agitation, of grief, fear, or even joy.

Observation of not a few death-beds has given the writer the impression that much suffering at the time of death is the exception rather than the rule. A natural anæsthesia precedes the moment of dissolution; when the eye grows fixed, and the lips scarcely move, there is but little.

If any, sensibility left; and even the last convulsive movements, which sometimes have the aspect of agony, are usually unconscious. The most natural mode of death has almost as little violence in it as the burning out of a candle in its socket.

Pale Twin of Sleep, why do men dread to meet thee?
For all Earth's ills, thy anodyne is best.
Come gently, Death; then weary Life will greet thee,
As greets the sun the rosy-curtained West.



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GLOSSARY.*

A.

Abdomen. In common language, the stomach or belly.

Abdretor. Drawing from, or apart. Aberration. Wandering, or going away

from a certain ilne or place.

Abortion. Miscarriage; childbirth before full time.

Absceas. A gathering; an inflammation, with formation of liquid matter, called pus.

Abainthe. A poisonons intoxicating liquor used in France.

Absorbent. Soaking np liquids readily.

Absorption. The drawing or soaking np of a liquid into a tube or solid substance,

Acarus. A very small creeping animai, something like a tiny spider.

Acclimatize. To make accustomed to a new climate.

Accommodation. In the eye, the change hy which sight is adapted to near things.

Acid. In chemistry, a substance which

Acid. In chemistry, a substance which reddens litmus-paper and nuites with alkalies.

Acne. A disease of the akln; most common on the face.

Aconite. A plant whose root and leaves are poisonous; used sometimes as a medicine.

Acute. Applied to a disease, sharp, vlolent, and not continuing iong.

Adductor. Drawing to or together. Adult. Grown np; of full age.

Adulterate. To add something not belonging to a substance.

Aëration. Supplying air to a person, piace, or thing.

Æsthetic. Having to do with fine taste or feeling.

Afferent. Bearing to or toward a centre.

Affinity. Attraction between different kinds of substances.

After-birth. The round flat mass to which the navel-cord is attached in childbirth.

Agitana. Shaking; applied to a kind of palsy.

Agne. Chills and fever; intermittent fall fever.

Albamen. The white of egg. It is also found in the blood of men and animals.

Albaminaria. Aihamen in the arine; one of the signs of Bright's disease. Alcoholism. The general effect upon the

body of alcoholio Intemperance.

Alkaii. In chemistry, a substance which
nnites with acids, and changes the yel-

low of turmeric to brown.

Alloy. A compound of two or more metals.

Allapice. Pimento; a pleasant, pepperlike article used for seasoning food.

Alinvial. Deposited from rivers, lakes, or the sea.

Alterative. Something which changes the condition of a part of, or the whole constitution of, the body.

Altitude. Height above the level of theses.

Amaigam. A compound of mercury with some other metal.

Amauroais. Blindness from failure of the nerve of sight.

Amenorrhea. Stopping or delay of a woman's monthly courses.

Amæba. A very small animal, consisting of one cell.

Amputation. Cutting off a limb.

Amylaceons. Starch-like.

Anaconda. A very large serpent of South America.

Anemia. Thinness or poverty of the blood.

Anwathesia. Loss of feeling; insensibility.

Anceathetic. Something which destroys feeling, as other or chloroform.

Analysis. In chemistry, separating the elements of a substance from each other. Amasarca. Dropsy all over the body.

^{. *} M. . ines or diseases not named in this Glossary will be found in the alphabetically arranged sections of this book, beginning on pages 235 and 405,

human or animal body.

Amenrism. An enlargement of part of an artery, usually containing a clot of

Angina. Distress, threatening suffocation. Aziline. A substance got out of coal tar, nsed for the manufacture of dyes, etc.

Animalcule. A very tiny animal; for instance, that which causes the itch.

Annihilate. To hring to nothing; to destroy utteriy.

Anodyne. Capable of relieving pain. Anomalous. Very nncommon; ont of usual order.

Anomaly. An extraordinary or irregular thing.

Anorexia. Loss of appetite.

Astacid. Something which nentralizes or destroys the effects of acids.

Autoversion. Turning forward (as of the womb).

Anthelmintic. Capable of killing or driving out worms.

Anthrax. Carbuncle, an extremely bad sore; also, a disease of sheep.

Autidote. Something given to neutralize or prevent the effects of a poison.

Antiphiogistic. Opposed or giving relief to Inflammation.

Antipyretic. Capable of lessening the heat of the body in fever.

Antiscorbatic. Preventive or curative

Antiseptic. Preventive or corrective of rottenness or decay.

Anus. The ontlet from the bowels. Aorta. The largest artery in the body; going ont from the heart.

Aperient. Opening; applied to medicines which move the bowels.

Apex. The pointed end of anything; for example, of the heart. Aphasia. A disease of the brain, at-

tended by loss of speech.

Aphoula. Loss of the voice. Aphthæ. Smail white formations in a

sore mouth. Apoplexy. A stroke of hrain disease,

often fatal. Appetizer. Something which improves the appetite.

Aqueous. Watery.

Arachnoid. Spider-web-like; applied to one of the membranes covering the brain.

Areoia. A small space or area; as around the nipple.

Aromatic. Spicy.

Anatomy. The study of the parts of a | Artery. A blood-vessel which carries blood outward from the beart.

> Artesian. Named from a place, Artois; applied to a very deep weil.

> Articulation. Pronouncing syllables and words; also, a joint.

Asphyxin. Loss of pnise; suffocation. Assimilate. To make one thing like another; in physiology, to make digested food like the material of the

Asthenia. Loss of strength; weakness. Asthenopia. Weakness of the eyes, affecting the sight.

Asthma. A distressing disease, with difficulty of breathing.

Astigmatism. A defect of sight, giving things a wrong shape.

Astringent. Shrinking together, so as to eheck a discharge.

Ataxia, ataxy. Disorder, irregularity. Athletic. Active; fond of exercise and feats of strength.

Atmosphere. The common air everywhere around ns.

Atomization. Maklug a fine spray of a lionld.

Atony. Loss of tone or energy.

Atrophy. Wasting away.

Auditory. Belonging to the hearing; as the auditory nerve.

Auricie. One of the smaller chambers of the heart.

Auscultation. Listening; a mode of examination in diseases of the lungs and heart.

Automatic. Going of itself; like an antomatou.

B.

Bacillus. A very smail club-shaped microbe (which see).

Bacterium. Akind of microhe (which see). Benigu. Favorable; not destructive.

Beverage. A drink (as distinguished from a medicine).

Bicarbouate. A compound of two portions of carbonic acid with another sabstance.

Biceps. Two-headed: the name of a large muscie of the arm.

Bicuspid. Having two cusps or projections: the name of one of the valves of the heart.

Bile. A yeliowish-green liquid secreted hy the liver,

Bilious. Belonging to the hile; often applied to a disorder of digestion.

Bitartrate. tions of tartaric acid with another substance. Bituminous. Pitch-like; applied to soft

coal, etc.

Blonde. Of a fair complexion.

Blue vitriol. Suiphate of copper.

Botany. The science of plants. Bright's Disease. A disorder chiefly affecting the kidueys, named after Dr. Bright.

Bronchia. The larger windpipe, branching into the lungs.

Brouchitis. Inflammation of the hronchiai alr-tubes

Brouchoceic. Goitre; aswelling in front of the throat.

Bruactte. Of a dark or brown complexion.

Bunion. A swelling ou one of the toejoints, iarger than a corn.

Cachexia. An unhealthy condition or hahit of body.

Caffeiu. The strongest active principle of coffee.

Caicify. To bring to a condition like chalk or lime.

Calcium. The metal of which lime is the oxide.

Calculus. In medical language, stone in the hiadder.

Calisthenics. Ligit exercises to promote beauty and strength.

Calomel. A drug containing chlorine and mercury.

Cancer. A diseased growth, usually fatai nniess early removed.

Canine. Belonging to or resembling a dog.

Canker. A bad kind of sore month. Caunabis. Indian hemp.

Capillary. Like a hair; applied to very amaii biood-vessels.

Capsuic. A smail sac or bag.

Carhohydrate. Made of carbon and water; examples, sugar and starch.

Carbolic acid. A substance got out of

coal tar, used as a disinfectant. Carbonic acid. A gas given out lu hreathing and from burning wood, coal, etc.

Carbuncie. A very bad gathering, larger and worse than a holi.

Cardiac. Belonging to or near the heart. Cardialgia. Heart-burn; pain near the heart.

A compound of two por- Caries. Decay of a tooth or bono from inflammation.

Carminative. Something used to relieve colicky pain.

Carnivorous. Living on flesh as food. Carotid. One of the large arteries of the ueck.

Carpus. The wrist.

Cartilage. Hard gristie; for example, the ear.

Cascin. The eurdy part of milk or cheese. Casualty. An accident or a disaster.

Catalopsy. A disease in which the museles become fixed in one positiou.

Cataplasm. A ponitice.

Cataract. A film or opacity in the iens of the eyo, causing blinduess.

Catarrh. A running of phiegm from the nose, windpipe, etc.

Cathartic. A medicine acting on the boweis; purgative.

Catheter. An instrument used to draw water from the nrinary biadder. Caustic. Something which burns and

destroys a part. Cell. A very small sac or bag (seen

through the microscope). Centenariau. One who lives a hundred

Cephalalgia. Headache.

Cerate. An ointment partiy made with WAY.

Cercbellum. 'The smaller brain. Cerebro-spinal. Beionging to the brain

and spinal cord. Cerebrum. The larger part of the hrain

(in man and the higher animals). Cesspooi. A privy weil.

Chalybcate. A name given to medicines. containing iron.

Chilbiniu. Frost-bite.

Chloral. A medicine used to promote sleep or relieve pain.

Chlorate. A substance containing chlorie acid.

Chloride. A compound of chiorine with another substance.

Chloroform. A liquid drug sometimes breathed to prevent pain under surgical operations.

Chlorohydricacid. A compound of chiorine and hydrogen; mnrlatic acid.

Chlorosis. A disease of women or girls, sometimes called "green sickness." Cholemia. Blie in the blood.

Chorea. A jerking disease: St. Vitus'

Choroid. One of the coats or layers of the eyeball.

Chromate. A compound of chromic acid. | Congenital. Beginning with birth. Chronic. Lasting for a considerable time. Chrysatis. The coces stage of an insect's life.

Chyle. What food becomes when perfectly digested in the small intestine.

Chyme. What food becomes under the action of the gastric juice in the stomach.

Citta. Eyelashes; also, very small lashlike hairs seen only through a micro-

Circulation. Moving of a fluid round and round; for example, that of the blood in the body.

Citrate. A compound of citric acid, the acid of iemon-juice.

Claviete. The coliar-bone.

Clonic. Fixed, rigid; not jerking.

Congulate. To clot.

Cochien. A part of the internal ear.

Co-education. Education of boys and girls, or men and women, in the same schools or colleges.

Colitis. Inflammation of the colon or large intestine.

Collapse. Giving way; a state of extreme weakness.

Cottodion. A solution of gun-cotton in

Colloid. Jelly-like.

Colon. The large intestino; the lower part of the bowels.

Color-bilind. Unable to tell one color

Colostrum. The first mlik from the hreast after childbirth.

Coma. Deep stupor, from which a person cannot be ronsed.

Complementary. Making the set full: red and green light together make full white light; they are complementary to each other.

Compose. To quiet and make comfortable. Composite. Made up of several things. Compound. Made of two or more ele-

ments-or parts. In surgery, a compound fracture is one in which a piece of bone sticks ont through the skin.

Concave. Hollowed out, like the inside of a watch-glass.

Conception. The first beginning of life in a child in the womb.

Concussion. A shaking up or jarring. Condiment. Something used to season food, as pepper, etc.

Conductor. Something which carries; for example, copper wire is a conductor of electricity.

Congestion. Settling of blood in a part. Conjunctiva. The outermost coat or covering of the eyeball.

Consanguincons. Nearly related; as hrother and sister, etc.

Conscions. Knowing what is going on. Conservancy. Font matter of privies, alops, etc. which has to be removed.

Constipation. Stoppage or slow action of the bowels.

Constituent. Something which is a part of something else.

Consumption. A wasting disease, in which the lungs are commonly most affected.

Contagious. Catching, from person to person.

Contaminate. To make font; to defile. Convalence. To get well of a disease. Convection. Conveying, as of heat,

through a medium, as air. Converge. To come together toward one point.

Convex. Rounded ontward; as the ontside of a watch-glass.

Convolution. A rolled or rolling part of the ontside of the hrain.

Convulsion. A fit.

Copperas. Green vitriol; sulphate of

Cordial. An agreeable warming or stimnlating drink.

Cornea. The transparent coat or covering of the eyeball under the conjunctiva.

Corolla. The showy part of a flower; composed of petals.

Corpus. A body.

Corpuscie. A very tiny body.

Corrode. To eat or wear away; as strong acids do metals.

Cortex. The bark or outer covering. Cosmoline. Another name for vaseline, a soft material used instead of ointment.

Cosmopolitan. At home in any part of the world.

Costive. Slow, tight, not easily moved; applied to the state of the bowels.

Connter-irritant. Something used to heat up the outside of the body, to relieve an irritation within It.

Coxalgia. Hip-joint disease.

Cranium. The sknii.

Creasote. A liquid obtained from tar; used as a medicine and to relieve toothache.

Cremometer. An instrument to measure the cream on milk.

Cretaceous. Chalky or chalk-like.

Cretin. One who is dwarfed and stupid, as some children are in Switzerland and other places.

Cryptogumous. Having no flowers; for example, ferns.

Cutaneous. Belonging to the skin.

Cyanosia. The hine disease, in which the face is bine or purple.

Cyst. A smail hiadder.

Cystitis. Inflammation of the nrinary bladder.

D.

Debility. Weakness.

Decimal. A tenth part; applied to the system of counting which goes hy tens, hundreds, thousands, etc.

Decoction. What is got hy boiling anything in water.

Decompose. To break a thing up into its elements.

Degeneration. Getting worse; going down from health and strength to weakness and disease.

Degintition. Swallowing.

Delirinm. Wanderiug in mind, flightiness. Delivery. Childbirth.

Demeatia. Loss of the powers of the mind.

Demnicent. Something soothing.

Dengne. A miid kind of fever; "hreakbone fever," of the South.

Dense. Thick; containing much matter in a small space.

Dental. Beionging to the teeth. Dentifrice. A toothwash.

Dentine. Tooth-bone.

Dentition. The growth and coming out of the teeth.

Depression. A state of low strength; great weakness.

Desiccate. To dry up, by driving water ont.

Dew-point. The degree of the thermometer at which moisture begins to settie on a cooling body.

Diabetes. A disease in which an excessive amount of nrine is passed.

Diagnosis. Finding ont the nature of a disease.

Diagonal. A line across from one corner to another.

Diagram. A figure drawn to expiain semething.

Diameter. The shortest distance across a surface.

Diaphoretic. Causing increase of sweat (perspiration).

Diaphragm. The rounded muscle between the chest and the abdomen.

Diarrhen. Looseness, of the howeis.

Diathesis. An unhealthy condition or habit of body.

Dicrotons. Donhie.

Diet. What we cat and drink.

Digestion. The action of the stomach, etc. on food.

Digit. A finger (in anatomy, aiso, a toe).
Dilutation. Stretching out, enlargement.
Diphtheria. A disease in which "faise membraue" is formed; especially in the throat.

Diplopia. Seeing double, as "crosssyed" persons do.

Dipsomania. Insane thirst for intoxicating drink.

Disgorge. To throw np or out,

Disinfect. To purify air, water, etc. from things which cause disease.

Dislocate. To put out of joint.

Disorganize. To break up the structure
or organization of anything.

Distil. To drive off hy heat, and coilect a part in a coid vessel.

Disretic. Acting ou the kidneys, increasing the flow of urine.

Drastic. Very strong and severe.

Dropsy. Sweiling from water collecting nuder the skin or inside of the body.

Duct. A tube or channel through which

a iquid passes.

Dnodeanm. The first tweive inches of

the bowel next to the stomach

Dysentery. A disease of the bowcis with

pain and hioody discharges,

Dysmenorrhen. Pain at the time of a

woman's monthly courses.

Dyspepsia. Difficult and painful digestion.

Dyspacea. Difficulty of hreathing.

Dyspacea. Obstruction of the passage of nrine from the biology.

7.1

Eccentric. Going out from a centre; applied to a person odd, peculiar.

Eczema. A disease of the skin, a kind of tetter.

Efferent. Carrying something outward from a centre.

Effervesce. To hubbie up, as soda-water, leer, etc. do.

Effete. Worn ont; used np; done with. Effusion. A ponring or flowing ont.

Etephant leg. Large and hard swelling of the leg; elephantiarie.

Emacintion. Wasting away; loss of fat | Excrete. To throw or pass out waste and flesh.

Embryo. A very young, unborn child or animal.

Emetic. A drug which will, when taken, cause vomiting.

Emmenagogue. Promotive of monthly flow from the womb.

motional. Beionging to the feelings. Emphysemm. Swelling of the skin with air under it.

Empyemm. A collection of pus (matter) in the chest.

Empyreumatic. Produced by the action of fire.

Encephaloid. Brain-like.

Encephalon. The contents of the head; the brain.

Endemic. Applied to a disease prevaillng in a certain place.

Endocarditis. Infiammation of the inner lining of the heart.

Endosperm. The inside lining of a seed or ovum. Enema. An injection into the bowels.

Enteric. Belong to an Intestine (bowel). Enteritls. Inflammation of the bowels. Enthetic. Introduced into the body from ontside of It.

Entomology. The science or study of

Ephemeral. Living but a day or a short

Epicure. One who is very fond of pleasant llving.

Epidemic. Prevailing or spreading from place to place.

Epitepsy. A disease in which convulsions (fits) occur habitually or frequently.

Eruption. A breaking out on the skin. Eryslpeins. A spreading inflammation of the skin.

Esplonage. A French word meaning spying out or close inspection.

Etherixe. To put one under the action of ether.

Etlology. The study of causation.

Enstachian tube. The small channel correcting the ear with the nose.

Evanue on. Emptying; clearing ont the boweis). 18.

6. To pass or drive off in vapor. Evape Examtheum. An eruption or eruptive disease. (See Eruption.)

Excito-motor. Belonging to a movement resulting from exoltation or

Excrement. The "stools" or passages from the bowels.

matter from the body.

Excretion. That which is passed out as waste matter.

Exhate. To breathe out.

Exophthalmic. Accompanied by enlargement of the eye.

Exotic. Not native; brought from some other country.

Expectorate. To cough up or discharge something from the chest.

Expiration. Breathing ont, exhalation. Extract. Something got by a process out of a buiky or complex substance.

Extremity. One of the limbs of a man or animal.

Exudation. A material cozing out of some of the blood-vessels of the body.

Fahrenheit. The name of the inventor of the thermometer most in use in this country.

Faradization. Application to the body of an Interrupted current of electricity.

Furlunceous. Stareir-containing, as arrowroot, rice, etc.

Febrile. Feverisb.

Feces. The "stoois" or passages from the

Felon. In surgical language, a severe inflammation of a finger.

Femur. The thigh-bone.

Fermentation. A change in a substance, one result of which is giving ont gas.

Fertilize. In physiology, to so act upon a germ that It will develop into a plant or suimal.

Flbrin. The substance in the blood which makes it clot.

Fllament. A thread or thread-like, delicate form.

Filter. To pass a liquid through something which keeps back the particles and impurities.

Fisance. A crack or slit.

Fistula. An opening in a part which, when sound, is closed,

Wind in the stomach or Flatulence. bowels.

Flexible. Easily bent.

Fiexlon. The act of bending or being hent.

Flexor. Bending; for example, one of the muscles which bend the fingers to the

Florid. Applied to the complexion, red. flushed.

Finctuation. A wave-like movement.

Finch. In canitary arrangements, to pour
a stream of water through a tube or
channel.

Focus. A point at which rays of light or heat come together.

Fætas. An unborn child.

Foutauelle. A soft piace where the bones meet ln the head of a newborn child.

Foot-ton. One ton lifted a foot; a term used in measuring powers of different kinds.

G.

Gall-bladder. The bag under the liver which receives and stores away the bile.

Gall-duct. The tube which earries blie from the gall-biadder to the bowel.

Galvanize. To apply galvanic electricity to anything.

Ganglion (plural, ganglia). A nervecentre.

Gangrene. Mortification; death of part of a living body.

Garbage. Kitchen and table refuse.

Gargie. To hold a liquid in the throat

a while without swallowing it.

Gastric. Belonging to the stomach.

Gastritis. Inflammation of the stomach.

Generation. Begetting offspring.

Genitals. Private parts of the body.

Germ. A seed or spore; the first beginning of a living plant or animal.

Gestation. Pregnaucy; carrying a child in the womb.

Gin-liver. The diseased liver caused by excessive drinking of spirits.

Gland. Au organ in the body which separates something from the blood; as the liver, kidneys, etc.

Glanders. A disease of the horse, sometimes conveyed to men.

Glancoma. A painful and serious disease of the eyebail.

Glucose. Grape-sugar.

Gluten. The pasty matter in wheat and other grains.

Goitre. A swelling lu front of the throat; called also bronchocele.

Gonorrhea. A nasty disease caught in impure intercourse.

Graduated. Marked to degrees or otherwise, as thermometers, etc. are.

Gramme. A little more than 15 grains.

Granulate. To break up into a coarse

"grainy" powder.

Graphite. Black lead, a kind of mineral.

Gravei. In medical language, small pieces of stone in the urinary bindder.

Gravitation. Weight,
Gravity, specific. The weight of a certain bulk of a substance, compared to that of an equal bulk of something else.
Green vitriot. Suipbate of Iron.

Gullet. The swallowing part of the threat.
Gustatory. Having to do with taste.
Gynmcology. The science or study of the

diseases of women.

H.

Hæmatemesis. Vomiting of blood.

Hæmophilia. A tendency to bleed from
the slightest wound.

Hurd water. Water which will not easily make suds with soap.

Hasheesh (Hashish or Haschish). Indiau hemp.

Heartburn. Pain in the neighborhood of the heart; often from indigestion.

Heat-stroke. Sudden lliness from exposure to great heat.

Hemiopia. Seeing only half of anything looked at.

Hemiopiagla, Paley of one half of the

Hemipiegia. Palsy of one half of the body.

Hemisphere. Half of a globe or sphere; for example, of the earth.

Hemorrhage. Loss of blood from any cause.

Hemorrhoids. Piles; small sweilings near the outlet from the bowels. Hepatic. Belonging to the ilver.

Herbivorous. Eating plants, as grass, grains, etc.

Hereditary. Passing from parents to children.

Hermaphrodite. Having both sexes at once.

Heraia. Rupture; a part of a bowel, etc. being forced ont of its untural place.

Hiccough (pronounced hiccop). A quick, jorking kind of breatbing, from disorder of the stomach or from great weakness.

Hamerus. The arm-boue between the shoulder and elbow.

Humidity. Moistnre, dampness. Humus. Soil; earth in which plauts will

grow.

Hydatid. A watery bladder-like growth in some part of an animai's body

Hydrate. A compound of water with some other substance.

Hydraulic. Belonging to or acting by means of water.

water on the brain.

Hydrochioric acid. Muriatle acid. Hydrocynnic acid. Prumic acid; a deadly poison.

Hydrometer. An instrument to show how much water a substance (as spirits) contalus; also used to find the specific gravity (which see) of liquids.

Hydrophobin. The disease caused by the lite of a mad dog.

Hydrothorax. Water in the chest. Hygiene. The science of the preservation of health.

Hygrometer. An Instrument to show the amount of moisture lu the air of a place.

Hyoid. Shaped like the letter U. Hypmethetic. Lessening sensibility;

partly bennuling feeling. Hyperæmin. Too much blood in a part

of the body. Hypermathesia. Tenderness to the

touch, beyond what is natural lu health.

Hypermetropin. Long-sightedness; lnability to see very near objects. Hyperopia. Same as Hypermetropia.

Hypertrophy. Overgrowth. Hypnotic. Promotive of sleep.

Hypnotism. A kind of artificial or unnatural sieep or somnamhulism.

Hypochondrinc. One who suffers from imaginary disease.

Hypodermic (Hypodermatic). Under the akin.

Hysteria. A disorder of the nervous system, most common in young women; sometimes connected with disorders of

Hysterical. In a state of nervons disturbance, beyond the control of the

Hysterics. Violent laughter, crying, or convulsions, etc., which the person cannot help.

I.

Idiosyncrasy. A personal peculiarity; something in which one person differs from almost all others.

Idiot. A simpleton, a natural dummy. Heum. A part of the bowel or "small Intestine."

Ileo-colic. Belonging to the lleum (see above) and the colon (large intestine). Himm. The hip-bone.

liicminate. To light up.

Hydrocephaius. Dropsy in the head; Image. A perfectly-formed insect, as, for example, a butterfly.

Imbecile. Silly; without sense Immersion. Dipping or plunging,

Impermeable. Not allowing anything (water, for instance) to soak through it. Impervious. Same as Impermeable.

Incidence. The act of striking or falllug upon anything. Incisor. Cutting or nipping.

Incontinent. Not able to hold in (as," for example, water in the bladder). Indigestion. Failure lu the disposai of food in the stomach.

ebriant. Having an Intoxicating effect.

Inebriate. A drunkard. Inebriety. Drunkennem.

Intection. Prevalence of the cause of a disease in a place, which may then be mid to be infected.

Inflammation. Redness, heat, swelling, and pain in any part of the body.

Influenza. An epidemic of "bad colds." Infusion. A mixture made by soaking something in water without hoiling

Infusoria. Tiny living things seen by the microscope in infusions of various

Ingredient. Something contained in a anbetance.

Inhalation. Inbreathing; drawing in breath, either of air or of other gases or vapors.

Inocuinte. To put something under the skin, so as to affect the condition of the body.

Insainbrious. Not healthy.

Insune. Crazy; unsound in mind.

Insoluble. Not capable of being dissolved.

Insomnin. Sieeplessness.

Instinct. An impulse shown hy an animal to do something in a certain way. Insular. Belonging to or like an Island. Intellect. The mind; the thinking pow-

Intercostal. Between the ribs.

er or powers. Interment. Burial.

Intermittent. Having regular changes; for instance, chills, one every day or every other day.

Intestine. A bowel.

Intussusception. Catching of one part of the bowels in another (like a stovepipe).

Iodide. A compound of iodine with another substance.

Iodine. A violet-colored element, obtained from sea-weed.

Iris. The ring around the pupil of the Landanum. Astrong medicine, the tine-

Iritie. Inflammation of the iris,

Irrigate. To flood or pour water over land, etc.

Inthormal line. One marking equal temperatures in different places on the

Jamestowa weed. A poisonous wild plant, the Datura Mramonium.

Jaundles. A disease in which the body becomes yellow all over.

Juguiar veiu. A large vein ou each side of the neck.

K.

Kakeiang. A large stove or heater used in Sweden and Norway.

Kiiogramme. A weight, according to the metrical system, equal to somewhat more than 2 pounds.

Kindergarten. A school for young children, where play is turned into drill and instructive work.

L

Labor. In medical language, the process

Labyriuth. In anatomy, the bony structure of the internal ear.

Lacerate. To tear.

Lachrymai giand. The tear-glaud, within the bony socket of the eye. Lactenis. In anatomy, the small vessels which take up chyle from the

Intestine. Lactic acid. The principal acid of sour mlik.

Laotin. Sugar of milk.

Lactodensimeter. An instrument to show the density (specific gravity, which see) of milk.

Lactometer. An Instrument to show the quality of milk.

Laparof my. Opening the belly by a surgual operation.

Larva. The gruh or worm-like state of an insect.

Laryngitis. Inflammation of the upper part of the windpipe.

Larynx. The organ of the voice; first part of the windpipe.

Latitude. Distance of a place from the equator.

ture of opium; poisonous in large

Lavatory. A wash-room.

Launtive. Something which acts gently on the bowels.

Leaven. Yeast; a material used in raislug bread.

Lous. A form of glass (or other transparent material) used lu spectacles, micruncopes, etc.

Leprosy. A severe disease of the skin, met with only in certain countries.

Leucocyte. A white blood-corpuscle; seen by aid of the microscope in great numbers in the blood,

Lencocythemia. White-cell blood; adiscase attended by an excessive number of white corpuscies in the blood.

Leucorrhea. The "whites;" a kind of discharge not uncommon in wemen.

Leukemin. Same as Leucocythemia.

Lichen. A pimply disease of the skin. Ligament. A tough fibrous band, such as gives strength to the joints, etc.

Liniment. Something used to bathe or ruh the surface of the body for sprains, rhoumatism, etc.

Litmus-paper. Paper so prepared that It is reddened by acids, for which it is therefore a test.

Lobe. A more or less regular part or division of anything; as of a leaf, a lung, or the liver.

Lochia. The flow which women have for a time after childhirth.

Luckjaw. A fixed condition of the jaws from disease; trismus or tetanus.

Locomotor ataxy. A disease in which the legs are not perfectly auder control of the will.

Longevity. Length of life.

Longitude. Distance of a place east or west of a certain line.

Lumbago. A painful affection of the back and loins; most common in

elderly people.

Lumbar. Belonging to the lower part of the back.

Lumbricoid. Resembling the earthworm.

Lymph. A clear liquid found in the lymphatie vessels of the body; resembling the watery part of the blood.

Lymphatics. The small vessels which take up lymph from various parts of the body, so that it can be returned to the blood.

Maize. Indian corn.

Mulady. Disease of any kind. Maiar. The auatomical name of the cheek-bone,

Maiaria. Literally, "bad air;" commonly spplied to the atmospheric cause of autumnal fevers.

Malignant. Destructive; tending constantly toward death.

Mammai. The name describing a class of snimals, all of which suckie their

Maain. The most common kind of lusanity.

Maaine. An income person.

Manipulation. Working with the hands. often used for massage.

Marnemus. A wasting disease, chiefly affecting the bowels.

Maritime. Belonging to the sea.

Marrow. The fatty matter inside of bones. Spinel marrow, the nervous cord within the backbone.

Mascaiine. Beionging to man; contrasted with feminine, belonging to

Massage. Rubbing and knesding the skin and flesh, to improve the circulation, relieve paln, etc.

Masseur. A man who practices massage; a manipulator.

Massense. A woman who practices mas-

Masticate. To chew. Maternity. Motherhood.

Maximum. The greatest sum, degree, etc. of any series of things or events.

Mediam. Literally, the middle; appiled variously in medicine and in connection with other subjects.

Medniin. Merrow.

Megrim. Neurnigia of one side of the head and face.

Melanchoty. Lowness of spirits; tendency teward despair.

Meilitus. Honeyed.

Membrunous. Spread out in a flat, thin layer (membrane).

Meningitis. Inflammation of the meninges, the membranes covering the brain.

Menorrhagia. Excessive flew of monthly discharge ln a women.

Menses. The monthly "courses" of

Meastrum!. Belonging to the "meases" of women.

Monstruction. The occurrence of the monthly flow in women,

Meathol. A solid preparation of the oll of mlut.

Mesentery. The thin scrops membrane covering the howeis.

Meamerism. Animal magnetism.

Metacarpas. The bony part of the hand next above the fingers

Metamorphosis. A change of form and condition in anything.

Metatareas. The bony part of the foot next shove the toes.

Motor. A measure nearly equal to 34. feet.

Meteorology. The science or study of the weather.

Methomania. An inmue craving for intexicating drink.

Metricai. The name given to the decimal system of weights and measures

Microbe. A very minute living thing, seen only by aid of the microscope

Micrococcus. One form of microbs (plurui, micrococci). Microphyte. A very minute vegetable

form (microbs). Microscopie. So smali as to be seen only

hy aid of a microscope.

Mitk leg. A swelling of the leg followlng childbirth.

Milk sickness. Iliness cansed by drinklug the milk of cows which have eaten poisonous food.

Milliard. A thousand millions.

Milligramme. One-thousandth of a gramme; a gramme is about 15 grains. Minim. Our-sixtieth part of a fluid-

drachm; about an sverage drop-Miscarriage. Abortion; birth of a child

before its time. Molar tooth. A back or jaw tooth; a grinder.

Moie. A red or brown mark on the face or elsewhere on the body.

Motecute. A very tiny particle.

Molinak. A soft-bodied animai, as an oyster, ciam, etc.

Monomania. Insanity on one subject.

Monotony. Continued going over and over the same thing.

Monsoon. A wind which blows half the year in one, and the other half of the year in the opposite, direction.

Monstrosity. Something strange and nulike anything common or natural.

Morbid. Diseased.

Morphia. The principal agent contained in opinm.

Mortality. The liability to or actual oc-

.arrence of death.
Mortification. Death of a part; sloughing, gangrone.

Motor. Having to do with motion.

Maer's. "logm; the thick liquid formed ir the catrile, windpipe, etc. on muceue MUNITERS.

Muriatic acid. A strong sold liquid, called also Agdreckleric or alterabydric

Musem votitantee. Plying specks, rings, etc. before the eyes.

Myalgia. Pain in the muscles; most commen in the back.

Myesin. A substance obtained by chemista from flesh.

Narcotic. Something which stupefies, as opinm, chloral, etc.

Naturalize. To enable an animal or plant to live in a different country from Its own.

Nansea. Sickness of stomach short of vomiting.

Necrosis. The death of a part; applied especially to decaying bones or teeth. Nephritis. Inflammation of the kidney. Nervine. Acting favorably on the nerv-

ous system. Nenralgin. Nerve-pain.

Neuraethenia. Nervous Jelaky

Neurataxin. Disorder of the narround system.

Neurotic. Acting As a per hale on he morrous system.

Neutralise. To open and stop tax action of anythin.

Nicotine. The chi a par ments pan oblin in tobacco.

Nitrate. A compound of safety a le well some other substance.

Nitrite. A compound of william ment,it. something.

Nitrogenous. Containing a portion of the element nitrogen.

Nocturnal. Belonging to or occurring in the night.

Non-conductor. Not carrying electricity, heat, etc.

Normai. Regular; according to the rule or usual nature of things.

Natrition. Nourishment.

Obesity. Fatness. Oblique, Slanting. Obstetrics. Miswifery; the art and sci-

once of safe delivery in childbirth. Octogenarian. A person over 80 years

of age. Oculist. One skilled in the care and

treatment of the eyes. Œdema. Dropsy of a part of the body; water under the skin.

Grophagus. The guilet; lower part of the swallowing part of the throat.

Oil of vitriol. Suimburic acid.

Oinomania. Inmus craving for wine or other intoxicating drink.

Olengine us. Oily.

Omniverone. Enting all serts of food, vegetable and animal.

Opacity. Non-transmission of light. Opaque. Not allowing light to pass through; the opposite of transparent. Ophthaimic. Having to do with sight.

Ophthnimoscope. A mirror arranged for looking at the interior of the eye.

Optic. Balonging to the eye or sight.

Organ. An instrument,

Organic. Belonging to an organ or organized body.

Organism. An organized body; that is, an animal or a plant.

Organize. To form into an organism. Eiguratively, we sometimes speak of organizing a society, etc.

Ornithology. The scientific study of birds.

Orthopnen. Difficulty of breathing, requiring the person to sit up instead of lying down.

- selfication. Turning into bone.

Oinigia. Earache.

fricith. Ear-stone; one of the tiny stone particles found in the internal stal . .

Outie (French). Outlandish; extraordinarily strange.

Ovariotomy. Removal of an ovary by a Eurgical operation.

Overy. One of the female organs of reproduction.

Ovnm. An egg.

Oxidation. Combination of something with oxygen.

Oxide. A compound of oxygen with a metal or some other elementary body.

Ozenn. A disease of the Interior of the nose, with an unpleasant discharge. Ozmazone. The brown outside part of

roast meat.

Ozone. A modification of oxygen gas,

present in variable quantity in the atmosphere.

P.

Palatable. Agreeable to the taste. Palpation. Examining by touch and gentle prosenre.

Palpitation. Violent beating of the

Paley. Loss of feeling, or of power, or loch.

Pancreas. The sweethread; a gland mean the stomach.

Paralysis. Paisy (which see).

Paralyse. To cause paralysis (palsy). Parapiegia. Palsy (less of power and feeling) of both legs.

Parasite. An animal or plant which lives on the substance of another. Paregoric. A tincture of opinm and camphor.

Parotid gland. A small gland near the angle of the jaw, which forms saliva.

Parexysm. A spell or attack of any dis-

Partnrient. Bearing a child.

Pelvis. The bony basin enclosed by the large hip-bones.

Penetrate. To pierce into or through, Peniasula. Land jutting ont into the

Pepsin. A substance formed in the stomach and taking part in digesting food.

Percussion. Knocking, tapping; a mode of examination of the chest or abdo-

Percanial. Lasting through a number of years.

Perforate. To bore through.

Pericarditis. Inflammation of the onter covering of the heart.

Pericardium. The onter covering of the beart.

The crotch between the thighs.

Periodical. Happening at regular times. Periodicity. The fact or property of recurrence at regular periods.

Periphery. The onter part of anything; circumference.

Peristaltic contraction. The natural movement, from above downward, of the muscular coat of the bowels.

Peritonenm. The delicate membrane lining the abdomen and covering ali the organs contained therein.

Peritonitis. Inflammation of the peritoneum.

Permeate. To pass all through. Permicious. Very injurious.

Perspiration. Sweat.

Pertussis. Hooping congh (whooping cough).

Phalanges. The joints or separate pieces of the fingers and toes.

Pharmacy. The business of an apothecary (pharmacist).

Pharyngitie. Inflammation of the pharynx.

Pharyax. The upper portion of the swallowing part of the throat.

Phenic acid. Carbolic acid. Phiebitis. Inflammation of a vein.

Phlegmatic. Languid; not rensitive or excitable; heavy.

Phosphate. A compound of phosphoric seid.

Photophobia. Dread of the light.

Phrenology. A so-called "science" of the organs of the hrain, supposed to correspond with the faculties and propensities of the mind.

Phthisis. Consumption. Physical. Material or bodily, as distinguished from mental or spiritual.

Physiology. The science or study of the functions (nses, operations) of the organs of a living being.

Piles. Sweilings, often sore and hiceding, near the ontlet from the bowels.

Placenta prævia. The after-hirth, coming down before the hirth of the child.

Planchette. A piece of wood with a pencil attached, for involuntary writ-

Plethera. Excess of blood or excessive richness of the blood.

Pleura. The membrane lining the chest and covering the lungs.

Pleurisy. Inflammation of the pleura. Pneumatic. Having to do with air or

gases. Pneumonia. Inflammation of the lungs. Polarity. The mutual relation of oppo-

site things, as the north and south poles of a magnet, etc. Pone Varolii. A bridge of hrain matter

In the lower and back part of the head. Poroas. Fuii of small hoies.

Portal. Of the gate; applied to a large vein which carries blood into the liver. Precocious. Coming forward unnsually

soon. Pregnant. Being with child.

Premolar teeth. Those next before (nearest the front) the molar or back jaw teeth.

Presbyopia. Oid-sight; long-sighted-

Prism. A five-sided soild, with two threesided bases.

Process. In anatomy, a jutting-out part of a bone.

Procidentia. Falling (of the womb). Prognosis. Knowlug beforehand what will happen.

Prolapsus. Sllding downward.

Prophylactic. Preventive.

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Prostate gland. A small gland at the base of the genital organs ln man.

Prostration. Great weakuess.

Proteid. Consisting mainly of protelu. Protein. A substance found by chemists in blood, white of egg, muscie, etc.

Protoplasm. A substance present in the blood of ali anlmals, and in the sap, etc. of all plants.

Protozoa. The lowest and simplest of all animal forms.

Protrusion. Bulging or jutting out.

Prussic acid. Hydrocyanic scid, a very deadly poison.

Pseudo-membranous. Made of faise membrane; a deposit (in the throat, for example) from disease.

Psoas abscess. A large gathering under the pseas muscle, within the abdomen.

Psychology. The science or study of the

Puerperal. Belonging to childhearing. Pnimonary. Belonging to a lung or the lungs.

Pulsate. To best or throh ilke a puise. Pulse. The beating of an artery under the finger.

Pulverize. To reduce to powder.

Papa. The middle stage of insect life, usually in a cocoon.

Pupil (of the eye). The opening (snrrounded by the lris) through which light passes for sight.

Purgative. Acting upon the bowels; cathartie.

Pnrpura. A disease in which purple hiotehes appear on the skln.

Pns. Thick, yellow matter from an ahscess, etc.

Pustule. A small swelling containing Dus.

Putrefy. To rot.

Putrescent. Liable to rot or decay.

Pyæmia. A disease in which matter (pns) exists in the blood.

Pylorus. The opening at the right-hand end of the stomach luto the small intestine.

Quadrigemina. Made of four nearly equal portions.

Quadruped. A four-footed animal.

Quarantine. Detention (of a shlp, etc.) to keep out disease from a piace. Quickening. The movement of a living

lafant felt within the mother's womh. Quinay. Inflammation of the tonsii (In the throat), often with formation of a

gathering there. Quotidian. Occurring (as, a chill) every day.

R.

Rachitis. Rickets.

Radiate. To throw off in rays, as those of heat and light.

Radius. In anatomy, the bone of the forearm whose lower end is nearest the thumb.

Rancid. Spolied, strong in taste and smeil; as, for example, bad hutter. Rectum. The iast part of the lower

bowei.

Rectns (piural, rectl). Straight.

Pecuperate. To restore the strength.

Reflection. Turning back.

Reflex. Turning back toward the starting-place or in another direction. Refraction. Bending out of a straight

Refrigerant. Cooling.

Régime (French). A system of usage or mauagement.

Register. In honses, the fixture through which warm air is iet into a room.

Relapse. To fail back.

Relax. To loosen.

Remittent. Lemenlug, without entirely stopplng.

Renal. Belouging to the kidneys.

Reproduction. Generation; begetting offspring.

Respiration. Breathing.

Resuscitate. To restore to life.

Retina. The innermost coat or layer of the eye.

Retroversion. Turning backward.

Rhythmic. Occurring in regular successive movements.

Rickets. A disease in which the bones are softened and weakened.

Rigor. A stiffening of the muscies.

Rinderpest. Cattie-piague. Ringworm. A disease of the skin, with round patches of eruption.

Roie. A part to be performed.

Roscola. A disease of the skin, with bright red patches of various forms. Rotate. To go round like a wheel.

Rubcoia. Measles.

Ruminant. A cud-chewing animal. Itaminate. To chew the cud; that is, to chew the food once, swallow it, hring it np again, and chew it a second time.

Rupture. Hernia; the buiging out of a part (knnckle of bowel, for instance) into an unnatural position.

Saccharomyces. The minute yeastplant found in the foam of beer, etc. Salat Vitus' dance. Chores; the jerking disease.

Saizeratus. Aired salt; hicarborated potash.

Saiine. Salty. Saiiva. Spittle.

Salivate. To increase the flow of saliva, as some medicines do; often with sore-

ness of the mouth. Sniubrious. Good for health (applied to places).

Saiutury. Having a good influence on health.

Same. Sound is mind.

Saugniac. Pull-hiooded; also, cheerful, confident, kapeful.

Sanitarian. One who is interested in the science of heaith.

Sanitarium. An institution for the restoration of invalids to health.

Snaitation. Attention to the conditions of a place in regard to health. Sanity. Soundness of mind.

Saturate. To make a thing take all it can of something else.

Savaat (French). A learned man. Scubies. The itch, a disease of the skin.

Scaid-head. Ringworm on the head. Scapula. The shoulder-bisde.

Scariatina. Another name for scarlet fever.

Scintica. Pain along the hip and thigh. Scirrhus. Hard cancer.

Scierosis. Hardening from disease.

Scherotic. One of the coats or layers of the eyeball.

Scorbatic. Of the nature of (scorbatus) scurvy.

inherited.

Scurvy. A disease caused by deficiency of fresh food.

Seat-worms. Small white worms in the lower part of the bowels.

Schaceoas. Greasy or grease-producing. Secrete. To form or throw out something; as the liver secretes bile, the kidneys urine, etc.

Sudative. Soothing, depressing, lowering. Sedentary. Not active; living with little or no exercise.

Sediment. Something settling down at

the bottom of a liquid. Segregate. To separate and set apart. Scientive. Picking out one thing from amongst others.

Semiinaar. Half-moon shaped.

Sensitive. Quick to feel impressions. Sensori-motor. Moving in response to sensations.

Seasorium. The part of the brain which receives sensations by means of the nerves connecting with it.

Seasory. Having to do with sensation (feeiing).

Septic. Of the nature of, or promotive of, decay.

Septicæmia. Disease of the blood from introduction into it of products of decay.

Sequela. That which follows after some-

thing else.

Serous membranes. Thin, delieute layers spread out within the cavities of the budy; as the pleura, peritonoum,

A watery liquid making part of the blood; also moistening serous

sewage. The foul matter of houses, stables, streets, etc. collected in a iiquid state.

The disposal of sewage in Sewerage. pipes, etc.

gies. A disease of the skin affecting the middle of the body on one or both sides.

Singultas. Hiccorgh.

Skeleton. The bony framework of an animal body.

Siough. To mortify and drop off from a living body.

Sodium. The metal of sods and of common sait.

Soft water. Water which will easily make lather with soap.

Scrofula. A constitutional disease, often Soil-pipe. A pipe used to carry off the contents of water-closets, nrinais, etc.

Solarium. A room open above to receive the rays of the snn.

Sommembulion. Walking in one salesp. | Subclavian. Under the collar-bone Sonorous. Making a loud or considerable son ч

Sordes. A think deposit on the tongue, gums, etc. in lever.

Spromodic. Occurring in spanus or ells; net continuous.

Specific. Peculiar; distinct from everything else in nature or effect.

Spectroscope. An instrument to examine rays of light passing through different substances.

Spectrum. An image produced by rays of light passing through a body; for example, that made hy sunlight going through a glass prism.

Sphincter. Contracting and closing an opening.

Sphygmograph. An instrument hy which the pulsations of an artery may be measnred and recorded.

Spina bifida. Cleft spine; a deformity sometimes met with in newborn infants.

Spine. The backbone.

Spicen. A round, slate-colored gland situated near the stomach.

Spicaic. Beionging to the spicen.

Statistics. Facts arranged in precise fignres concerning any snliect.

Stercoraceous. Containing fecal matter-i. e. that belonging to the lower bowels.

Stereoscope. An instrument which gives pictures seen through it a solid appear-

Steranm. The breast-bone.

Stertorons. Snoring.

Stillborn. Born dead.

Stimulant. Exciting.

Stimulate. To excite; to bring out the action of a living organ or system.

Stone. In medicine, a hard body found in the kidney, arinary bladder, etc. Strabismus. Squinting, crom-eyes.

Strangulation. Strangling, choking, as in hanging.

Strangury. Difficulty in passing water from the bladder.

Striated. Striped.

Stricture. A tightening or obstruction; as of the urethra (passage from the urinary bladder).

Struma. Scrofula. Stupor. A dead sleep, from which a person cannot be roused.

Stye. An infiamed swelling on the eyelid. Styptic. Something used to check bleeding or other discharge.

(clavicie).

Suboutaneous. Under the skin.

Subpolar. Under or near one of the poies of the eartic.

Subseil. The earth underneath the surface of the ground.

Subsaitus. Jerking, irregular motion; as of the tendons (leaders) at the wrist in fever.

Subterranean. Under ground.

Subtropical. Near the tropics; next to the equatorial part of the earth.

Sulphate. A compound of aniphnrio seid.

Sulphide. A compound of the element suiphur.

Sulphite. A compound of suiphurous seid.

Sulpharic acid. Oil of vitrioi, a very strong acid liquid.

Suppository. A small mass of something prepared for insertion into the iower bowei.

Suppression. Complete stoppage.

Supporation. Formation of matter (pns) in a part of the body.

Symbol. A sign representative of something; for example, in chemistry the symbol of oxygen is O; of hydrogen, H, etc.

Symmetry. Equal balance or proportion of parts; as between the two arms and hands, etc.

Sympathy. Feeling together; one being affected by the feeling of another.

Syncope. Fainting.

Syntemin. A substance obtained by chemists from flesh.

Syphilis., An ngiy disease cansed by impure sexual intercourse.

Syringe. An instrument used to inject iiquids into a cavity; a smail handpump.

T.

Tabes. A slow, weakening, and wasting disease.

Tonia. Tape-worm.

Tannin, er tannic acid. An astringent substance obtained from oak-bark, untgalis, etc.

Tartar, on the teeth. A rough, hard deposit formed when the teeth are negiected.

Tartaric acid. One of the scids of grape-jnice.

Turtrate. A compound of tartaric soid.

Tegument. Skin, outer covering.

Temperament. Habit of body and mind; special constitution.

Temperate. Moderate; not extreme either way.

Temporal region. In anatomy, the temples on the two sides of the head. Tentator. One who, or that which, tries

or tests something.

Tertian. Occurring (as chills) on the first and third days; every other day.

Tetnuns. Lockjaw; a very severe and often fatai disease.

Thaiamus. In anatomy, a part of the base of the brain.

Theine. The principal active substance contained in tea.

Theobromin. An active principle obtained from cacao- (cocoa) seeds.

Therapentics. The science of the action of remedies in treatment of disease. Thermic. Having to do with heat.

Thermometer. An instrument to measure degrees of heat.

Thoracic. Baionging to the thorax or chest.

Thorax. The chest, enclosed by the ribs, breast-bone, and spine.

Thrush. A disease of the month, most common in children.

Thyroid giand. A giand in front of the throat, which is much enlarged in goitre.

Tic doniourcux. Nenraigia of one side of the face and head,

A preparation made with aicohoi.

Tinnitus anrium. Ringing or rearing in the cars.

Tissue. Stuff, fabric; that of which organs are made (anatemy).

Tonic. Increasing tone and strength. Tonic spasm is fixed, rigid contraction of muscles.

Tonsii. A small gland on each side of the throat.

Tonsillitis. Inflammation of one or both of the tonsils.

Torniquet. An instrument used to check bleeding from wounded arteries.

Torrid. Very hot.

Torula. The yeast-plant; Succharonyces cerevisia.

Toxemia. Poisoned blood.

Toxic. Having to do with poison or

Toxicology. The science or study of potsons.

Traches. The windpipe below its first part, which is called the larynz,

Tracheitis. Inflammation of the traches. Translucent. Allowing light to pass through. Transparent. Capable of being seen

through.

Transpiration. Passing through slowiy. Trap. In a house, n fixture used to keep fonl air from getting back from soilpipes, etc.

Trembling or nttended by Tremens. tremor.

Trichina. Thread-worm, a parasite of pork.

Trienspid. Three-parted; applied to one of the vaives of the heart.

Trismus. Lockjaw.

Tropical. Belonging to the equatorial part of the globe.

Tropics. Lines at n certain distance on each side of the equator.

Tubercle. A deposit caused by disease in the inngs or other parts of the body.

Tubereniosis. Tendency to formation of tubergle; the tubercuious constitution.

Tympanie. Drumelike.

Tympunum. A danm; in anatomy, the drum of the ear.

Typhlitis. Inflammation of the larger howei.

Typhoid. Low, prostrating, stnpefying, or stapefied.

Typhne. Stupid or sinpefying (the name of a low fever).

Typical. Showing a type; a representative thing or form.

TI.

Ulcer. An open sore on any part of the body.

Uina. The bone of the forearm which connects with the wrist on the little finger side.

Unconscious. Not knowing anything, as in a faint or a stupor.

Unduiating. Moving in waves.

Ungnent. Ointment.

Unleavened. Made without yeast, not · raised.

Uramia. Tainting of the blood with matters belonging to the urine

Urate. A compound of nric acid.
Urea. One of the substances contained naturally in the urine.

Ureter. One of the tubes which connect the kidneys with the bladder.

Urethra. The tube which carries out the Vertebra. One of the natural pieces of urine from the bladder.

Uric acid. A substance naturally contained in the urine.

Passing water from tho Urination.

Urize. The water formed in the kidneys and passed out from the biadder.

Urticaria. Nettle rash, a klud of skin disease.

Uteriae. Belonging to the nterus (womb).
Uterus. The womb.
Utilize. To make useful.

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ed ect Utopian. 'Too good to be made to happen.

Vaccinate. To lnoculate with matter from cowpox.

Vnceinia. Cowpox.

Vagina. The outlet from the womb.

Vapor. Steam; molsture (of any liquid) rising Into the air.

Varicella. Chicken-pox.

Varicose. Enlarged; swollen lu parts (as, for example, velns).

Variola. Small-pox.

Varioloid. Small-pox modified by the effect of vaccination.

Vaseline. Cosmoline; a substance obtained from coal oil, and used instead of grease.

Vegetarian. One who eats only vegetable food.

Vegetative. Belonging to, or like, vegetable life.

Vehicle. Something which carries.

Vein. A vessel conveying blood toward the heart.

Vena cava (ascending and descending). The name of each of the two largest voius in the body, both entering the

Venescetion. Opening a vein to draw blood.

Venom. Poison.

Venous. Belonging to a velu or the velus. Ventilate. To change the air of a place. Ventricle. One of the larger cavities or chambers of the heart.

Verdigris. Copper rust; carbouate or acetate of copper.

Vermifage. A drug which will, when taken, kill or drive out 'rorms.

the backbone.

Vertebrates. Anlmais having backbones.

Vertical. Straight up and down.

Vertigo. Giddlness.

Vesicate. To raise a blister.

Vestibule. A threshold; in anatomy, part of the Internal ear.

Vibrate. To quiver or move in small waves, as the metal of a bell does when struck.

Vibrio. A very mlnute living form often found in living and dead organic bedles.

Visible. That which may be seen. Vision. Sight.

Visual. Belonging to sight.

Vitalize. To give ilfo to anything.

Vitiate. To spoil badly.

Vitrefied. Brought to a glass-like condition.

Vitreous. Glassy; like glass.

Volatile. Easily turned to vapor by beat. Voluntary. Done, or possible to be done, at the hidding of the willi.

Vulcanize. To harden hy beating with an appropriate substauce (applied to Indla-rubber).

Water-brash. Water comlug from the stomach into the mouth.

Water-scal. The water in a trap (which see) to keep gases from going through

Wean. To get one away from, or out of the habit of, something.

White vitriol. Sulphate of zinc.

Whites. A discharge from the womh or vagiua in women.

Whooping cough. Hooping cough.

Windplpe. The tube ln the throat through which we breathe.

Wrist-drop. Palsy of the muscles of the arm from lead-poisoning.

Z_{\cdot}

Zest. Strong interest in something. Zone. A region of the earth-arctle, temperate, troplcal, etc.

Zymotie. Caused by a process in some respects like fermentation.

