coincidence that the first two Harveian Orators died within a few months of fulfilling their office.

Daniel Whistler (1619-84), the third Orator (1659), is remembered for the first clinical description of rickets. He held in succession the offices of Registrar, Treasurer, and President of the College, not entirely to the advantage of the College funds, and his conduct was censured in the Orations of Walter Harris (1707) and John Hawys (1721); but his friend Evelyn thought him "good company and a very ingenious man." Thomas Coxe (1615-85), Orator in 1660, is warmly referred to by Thomas Sydenham as "the patron and promoter of my first endeavours."

The fifth Oration, that of Sir Edward Greaves (1608-80), delivered on July 25, 1661, was the first to be printed. It appeared as a slim quarto of 32 pages in 1667. According to Sir Norman Moore, it "contains a few facts and many conceits, but some of these are happy. He says that before Harvey the source of the circulation was as unknown as that of the Nile, and compares England to a heart, whence the knowledge of the circulation was driven forth to other lands." The original manuscript is in the British Museum (Sloane 302).

The sixth Orator, Nathan Paget (1615-78), was the familiar friend of Milton, and among the guests at his Oration was John Evelyn, who records the fact in his Diary. Let it be recorded to the honour of Samuel Collins (1617-85), Orator in the Plague Year of 1665, that he was one of the physicians who remained in London throughout the epidemic. Happily, he survived to deliver the Oration a second time, in 1682.

Notable Orations

There are many remarkable features about Richard Mead's Oration of 1723. Not only was it the first to appear in an English translation (1763) but a French version appeared as late as 1774. The Oration proper, a brief argument in defence of the status of the physician in Greece and Rome, has been confused by eminent medical historians with the *Dissertatio de nummis* with which it was first published. This illustrated essay on ancient medical coins was not even Mead's own work, but that of Edmund Chishull, divine and antiquary (1671-1733). Mead's remarks on the high prestige of the ancient physicians led to a "pamphlet war" with Conyers Middleton, the Cambridge antiquary. In 1761 the elder Heberden found among the Harleian MSS. a final unpublished "Defensio" of Middleton's in which Mead was referred to in the most generous terms. He had a "few copies printed to be given away," and so publicly vindicated the honour of the medical profession and of one of its staunchest champions. The Oration (1751) of the eccentric Sir William Browne (1692-1774) is one of the finest from the typographical point of view. It has a handsome engraved title-page and the first page of the text bears a head-piece representing the Sheldonian Theatre at Oxford, the Senate House at Cambridge, and a view of the old College of Physicians in Warwick Lane. The Oration of Robert Taylor (1755), one of the most polished and elaborate of any, was the medium for disseminating the favourable opinion of the College with respect to inoculation for smallpox.

Contemporary Comment

With the rise of the medical journals in the early part of the nineteenth century we are provided with a wealth of contemporary comment on the Orators and their Orations. These are always interesting and sometimes startling. Thus, the *Lancet* of June 29, 1833, records that "the Harveian Oration was delivered at the College of Physicians, Pall Mall East, by Dr. Paris, on Tuesday afternoon last. It consisted of the usual twaddle uttered on such occasions. The meeting ended in a jollification, and the proceedings have been duly recorded in the theatrical portion of the columns of the daily journals."

Perusal of John Elliotson's Oration of 1846, which is a veritable apologia for mesmerism and for his own conduct with regard to it, recalls one of the bitterest episodes in British medical history. The Oration was delivered in Latin, but in order to give his views wider publicity Elliotson had it published in both Latin and English versions simultaneously. Apart from topical references to the cholera epidemic of 1849 (Wilson, 1850), the Crystal Palace (Spurgin, 1851), medical politics

(Alderson, 1854), and the Indian Mutiny (Wood, 1858), there is little of note in the few remaining Latin Orations. The last of these to be printed was that of A. J. Sutherland in 1863, and in the following year Robert Lee delivered the last Oration in Latin. This was not printed, but the original manuscript is preserved in the College Library.

Sir Henry Acland in 1865 made the final break with tradition by delivering and printing his Oration in English, and since that date no Orator has ventured to use the Latin tongue. The effect of this has been to instil reality into what had become a rather stultified performance, and the fine series of English Orations since that date contain many valuable observations on the advances made in physiology and clinical medicine, for of recent years Orators have taken the rational course of departing boldly from the somewhat narrow bounds laid down by Harvey in 1656, a course of which the great experimenter would surely have approved.

We are indebted to Dr. E. Ashworth Underwood, Director of the Wellcome Historical Medical Museum, for permission to reproduce the title-page of the very rare Harveian Oration of Sir Edward Greaves from the copy in his care.

PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF ACCIDENTS AND ACCIDENT PREVENTION*

BY

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Up to now there have been few organized attempts to understand either the emotions and instinctive impulses underlying road accidents or the social forces involved. Perhaps we have not sufficiently regarded accidents as an integral part of our community life. There is a temptation to regard them almost as interlopers, and it may be for this reason that they have not been studied systematically in their natural setting in the community.

Laboratory experience has demonstrated some relationship between accidents and fatigue, lack of experience, and poor general health. Road accidents, in particular, tend to occur more commonly among drivers who are not in good health or who are unskilful, among older people and the inexperienced young drivers, and among those with delinquent records. It is noticeable that nearly all these classes include complex combinations of human attributes or influences. Then there is so-called "accident proneness" to be considered. Scientific studies of drivers showed in one case that 10% of a group of drivers was responsible for 60% of all its accidents; and in another that 20% of the drivers had an accident rate $3\frac{1}{2}$ times as high as the remainder. Certain laboratory tests of quickness of reaction and of muscular co-ordination have shown that poor performance in the tests was four times as common among the accident-prone group as among the remainder. Less decisive correlations were obtained with tests of intelligence and of temperament.

Accident proneness is related to lack of quickness, slow reaction time, poor muscular co-ordination, poor intelligence, instability of temperament, and distractibility. Once again, every one of these factors is complex and by no means constant in each individual all the time. For example, what is meant by instability of temperament and distractibility? During the recent war, when the Army had to select many thousands of men to become drivers, it was found that a combination of laboratory tests with careful assessment of past history and of present temperament achieved an encouraging success in reducing both the period of training and the occurrence of accidents during training. On the whole, men and women of under 40, with good civil records, a healthy attitude towards military service, with average intelligence, enjoying good health, and who did well in the tests, were the most successful. However, this type of person is wanted for every other responsible job, and

*Abridged from a paper read to a joint session of the Safety Education and the Home Safety Sections of the Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents' Silver Jubilee Congress at Brighton on Oct. 8.

perhaps common sense would have got us as far. But much has been learnt in establishing even this piece of exact knowledge.

One large-scale inquiry into the causes of military road accidents over a period of six months failed to reveal any accident-prone drivers, but it may be that the period of time was insufficient. It did reveal certain accident-prone military units, and this observation opens up a whole new field for speculation: Why is it that certain groups of men are more liable to accident than others working under identical conditions?

The Sociological Approach

Accidents need to be studied as social events. They occur as integral parts of our daily life in the community; we expect them and make provision for them, and they are as much social events as any other happening in the group. Practical difficulties arise out of the need to study large numbers of people in order to provide enough accidents from which to draw conclusions, to keep them under notice for a long time, to study relatives and friends of the principals, and to study the onlookers. Moreover, the public dislikes being studied; which means that any project will need to be introduced with great wisdom and care.

The tests of temperament and emotional stability used up to now have mostly been of a static, question-and-answer type and have not given decisive results. The method of study needs altering to include a systematic study of the emotional life of participants and their past history up to the critical moment when they all converged for the final drama. The onlookers (the people in the street) must not be left out, for they were present and may be an influence to be reckoned with. Lastly, and most important, our study should include facts and ideas not only as they appear to a dispassionate outside observer but as they appear to the people involved in the accident themselves. Fantasy plays a large part in the lives of most of us; and fantasy distorts objective reality all the time and in ways that few of us clearly appreciate.

The differences in attitude shown by pedestrians, motorists, and cyclists owe much to distortion by fantasy. Therefore it is vitally important to learn more about what being on the road does to the individual who is walking, driving, riding, or merely standing and looking on, and to find out how road users influence each other. Much can be learnt by studying children, whose component forces are apt to appear with less concealment than those of adults. It is easy to see how the natural properties of childhood lead to danger. This subject was dealt with by Dr. Susan Isaacs in a paper read to the Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents in 1938, and I cannot do better than paraphrase her main conclusions.

Child Psychology and the Road

Dr. Isaacs drew attention to the adventurousness of young children, their impulsive curiosity and need to gain mastery over things. They possess a relative lack of prudence and foresight, a span of attention too narrow to take in all the details of a crowded street, and a rudimentary perception of space and time—i.e., they cannot estimate the speed of an oncoming car.

Other observers have noted the child's lack of understanding of mechanical cause and effect and of impersonal events: to a young child the wind is a person or is blown by a person; he endows all outside happenings with a personal and often human significance.

Dr. Isaacs observed that toy cars and trains are used by young children to symbolize their parents and friends and often their own feelings. The boy who crashes his toy car noisily into his sister's doll's-house symbolizes a wealth of feeling. From this it is only a short step to the child's endowment of real vehicles on the road with his own feelings or with the attributes of his parents. For him traffic may represent formidable objects of great power—like Daddy when he is angry, or his own internal feelings of anger which are so terrifying to him.

Dr. Isaacs pointed out that children make a positive contribution to their own danger. The child's normal sense of helplessness contributes to bravado: he must test himself and the traffic (which may symbolize his fantasied fears). The child who is unsettled or insecure or basically not happy in his

relationships at home is particularly prone to bravado, to suspicion, or to test out whether the oncoming car (which may represent a parent) will respect him or not. He may wish to defy, attack, or annoy the motorist, who in the child's mind may not be clearly distinguished from the policeman or a fussy mother. Even more than this: there may well be a real and deep desire to be hurt. Just as some children attract bullying, others invite punishment. In human nature, the not uncommon impulse of a child to displace his parent is followed by a great sense of anxiety and guilt—traditionally in mythology, usurpation of the father's position is punishable by death.

What happens if a young child by the side of the road has a sudden impulse to defy a car because in fantasy it represents his own father? The situation is potentially dangerous, and it becomes more so if the impulse is as quickly followed by remorse, by a desire to throw himself at the mercy of the car or even to invite punishment. It may be argued that this line of thought is leading us into deep waters, but such mechanisms and symbolical actions are not uncommonly encountered in disturbed and maladjusted children. Dr. Isaacs sums up the situation with moderation by remarking that some children have deep impulses stronger than their powers of intelligent control.

The importance of admitting the possibility of these childish mechanisms lies in the way such attitudes tend to linger on and influence adults in strangely uneven and unexpected ways. Most grown-ups are aware of little islands of childishness within themselves; many will pride themselves on retaining some of the magic of childhood. This state of incomplete maturity or lack of perfect balance makes it doubly important to recognize that reason and conscious knowledge do not govern everything; and that accidents should be understood, if possible, not only in their total social setting, but also in terms of what they really meant to the participants and what the parties meant to each other in fantasy as well as in fact.

Type of Inquiry Required

A few weeks ago, in a quiet side-street in St. Marylebone, an elderly lady began to cross the road in a slow, rheumatically manner about midway between two pedestrian crossings set 100 yards apart. Just at that moment the traffic lights across Baker Street, 50 yards away, flashed green, and an open, cigar-shaped sports car with no mudguards roared into our street, driven by a youth of about 18. As a fellow pedestrian my personal sympathies were with the old lady, though the stickler might assert that she should have dragged her rheumatically self 50 yards to use the pedestrian crossing. The youth had ample time to apply his brakes partially and slide gently behind the old lady, but he delayed action until the last moment, stamped on his brake and pulled up violently with brakes and tyres screaming, exactly behind her. He put out his head and said something unkind, audibly rammed in his gear lever, and went off in a roar of indignation. The old lady looked round vaguely and went on her way without comment.

There are many questions urgently requiring answers—e.g., did having control of a car make any difference to that young man? Was this a sample of his normal behaviour? What was his relationship to his mother? What did the old lady mean to him, if anything? Did she symbolize for him at that moment his own mother, or perhaps authority in general? Was he inflicting on the head of an innocent substitute all the hostility stored up against another person to whom he dared not appear as he felt? Was his behaviour merely due to irritation at the interruption of a dream of power and speed which he was deriving from his car? Again, is a sports car in the hands of a young man more dangerous than a saloon car of equal power? Thirdly, were the onlookers being asked to witness the prowess and cleverness of this young man? Would it have happened had they been alone in the street? Fourthly, was the old lady really as ignorant of wise behaviour on the road as she appeared to be? Did the young man perhaps symbolize anything to her—her own son, or something unpleasant? Had she any personal reasons for courting danger or death?

It would be foolhardy to dismiss this incident merely as boorishness on the driver's part meeting stupidity of the old lady. To do so would prevent any possibility of ever coming to understand causes. But there is one other unanswered

question which seriously reflects on the present state of our knowledge: Does this kind of happening bear any relation to accidents proper? One feels that both parties are of the stuff of which accidents are made, but there is no proof of this.

More General Aspects of Behaviour on the Road

There are more general inquiries besides intimate studies: what effect has driving a car on the ordinary man and woman? and what effect has facing an oncoming car? We know that cars symbolize power without effort, speed, adventure, exploration, and independence—all characteristics more in line with male psychology than with female. Is there, after all, a genuine difference between men and women drivers, as misogynists maintain? It needs exact investigation. If a car ministers to a young man's sense of power and his more animal characteristics, is our friend in the sports car the modern equivalent of the classical centaur, with the head of a man and the body of a horse and behaviour compounded of both (but without the centaur's intellectual propensities!)? Some women feel this instinctively and sense that driving a car is in some way a threat to their femininity. Such women are apt to treat their cars as dangerous animals needing strict control.

The implication of all this may be that people react to driving in a similar way to their reaction to their own instinctive and emotional impulses—a principle that applies equally well to pedestrians and cyclists. The mature, well-balanced person faces the road without a qualm; he estimates the danger accurately and is confident of his powers to cope with it. He also faces his social responsibilities squarely. The immature, unstable person reacts not only to the traffic but at the same time to his own fantasies of violence, aggression, fear, and power as symbolized by the traffic. Consequently, the likelihood of the unstable person doing foolish and inappropriate things is greatly increased. It is probably fair to conclude that road accident prevention is intimately bound up with the broad principles of mental health to a degree far greater than is generally realized in both its personal and its social aspects.

Practical Applications

One practical result of demonstrating the deeper emotional significance of accidents may be to show that a high proportion of so-called accidents not only are deeply motivated but also fit into the life pattern of one or more members of the group. The next task is the more accurate prediction of dangerous emotional forces; and I believe that at last psychologists possess techniques of investigation to enable them to undertake the task profitably. The chief deficiencies are money and a clear mandate from the public to go ahead.

It is time for a series of large-scale investigations on carefully chosen sections of the community into the psychological forces behind every accident in their individual and group significance, both real and arising from fantasy. This would involve studying a great number of people and could scarcely be completed on a voluntary basis. Whether it would be possible to get the same statutory powers to investigate as for rail and air accidents is very doubtful, but it may be necessary to seek these. This investigation would be very unpopular with the public unless presented to them with great care, and to do it well would involve expenditure of much time and labour. We must weigh these depressing considerations against the continued and appalling loss of life and destruction at present. The public conscience is dulled by the very fact that road accidents are so commonplace.

Safety Education

This suggested investigation would quite possibly lead to the prevention of accidents at their source so far as the "human elements" are concerned; but this is a long-term aim which would not easily be reached. A more immediate effect would be on the propaganda and public education campaigns. It is difficult confidently to direct educational work without exact knowledge of the dynamic forces involved.

Nowadays much stress is laid on "training children to obey," the modern feeling being that though children will no longer obey at once for authoritarian reasons (if they ever did), they can at least be trained to obey (if the educator is cunning enough) as a kind of conditioned reflex. It is often hoped that

obedience and road sense can be so instilled by maxims as to become part of the child's second nature. For instance, by harping on danger it is hoped that automatic avoidance of danger will result. Quite apart from the fact that, psychologically speaking, this is a very doubtful proposition indeed, avoidance of danger is not the real aim, which is more fundamental—namely, to strengthen the positive factors on the side of safety and to remove morbid motives leading to the active seeking of danger.

Much of safety education still relies on authoritarian and horrific methods, both of which are effective in reasonable doses with well-balanced children but positively dangerous with mal-adjusted and unhappy children. The former method challenges children to defy authority; the latter challenges them to dare to test out the fear aroused. Not only children but many adults react unhealthily, and no one can estimate the potential damage of these methods. Similarly, repetition can be overdone. A report issued some time ago by the L.C.C. said that safety education required "damnable iteration." If the iteration really were damnable it is a safe bet that the results would be equally damnable.

Road-safety Films

A recent inquiry into the effect of three road-safety films raises certain points of importance to the whole field of safety education. This inquiry was made by the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations at the request of the Petroleum Film Bureau, to whom I am indebted for permission to quote the results. The investigators aimed at spontaneous expression of attitude by children divided into groups of ten and engaged on chalk drawings, completion of stories, making up games and plays, and discussion, before and after seeing the film.

It appears to be very relevant to the success of the film—or, indeed, possibly to the success of any other educational technique—whether the children are able to enjoy it freely, express criticism openly, and join in discussing its story and problems afterwards; all of which will affect the amount of assimilation and change of attitude. It may be risky to generalize, but those children from the stricter schools reacted less unfavourably to the didactic or direct teaching sequences of the films than those from freer schools. I have deliberately used the expression "less unfavourably" because it is not sufficiently recognized that normal children not dragooned by rigid discipline react in a hostile way to being talked down to, which may go far to explain many difficulties experienced by some teachers in schools.

It is striking that the children's own ratings of the three films were in reverse order from those of an experienced adult reviewer, who failed to recognize the strongly negative or hostile reactions which parts of the films evoked in the children. The latter responded by mistrust to being talked down to and by resentment to seeing a child depicted who was obviously foolhardy. Their hostility was shown by open criticism, by rejection, and by omission from play and story-making. They also appeared to try to get even with the adults by being very critical of all the small technical mistakes which they noticed.

The films revealed the possibilities of an effective indirect approach by stimulating thought about social problems arising out of the film—e.g., playing on bomb sites, the lack of playing space, co-operation with motorists in quiet roads, and so on. Such thinking and discussion may be more fruitful than even a direct teaching technique.

The report of the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations recommends that films be used as preludes to discussion, games, and other spontaneous play activities in which children can work out their own ideas about road safety. In particular, direct teaching sequences and pointing the moral should, if wanted, be left to the teacher and not incorporated in the film.

An Indirect Approach.—The observation that the films indirectly stimulated interest in such topics as playing-fields for crowded areas leads to the speculation whether good results could not be obtained by showing story or narrative films of everyday life in which the road-safety theme appears as an incidental sequence; then, by the discussion-play technique, to work on the ideas stimulated in the children—a possibly difficult but theoretically sound and promising technique.

Some Psychological Ideas on Educational Methods

Can some of the findings of the film inquiry be applied in principle to other methods of safety education? The primary aim is to harness, as it were, the child's sense of responsibility; to make him whole-heartedly on the side of responsible behaviour, not merely as a sense of duty imparted by parents and teachers, with the jungle half of him in rebellion, but heart and soul. Our greatest natural ally is the child's own desire to grow up. Methods which place responsibility on the shoulders of children in a way which they can bear are the safest means of conveying ideas that are charged with emotion; finding out for themselves by play is one example of such a method. Didactic, dogmatic, or direct teaching methods are the least satisfactory for conveying emotionally powerful ideas such as discipline, danger, and death.

The negative aim of avoiding provoking hostility is at least as important as the more positive aims. Hostility may be aroused by the ideas themselves, by the method of conveyance, and by the person conveying them, and when aroused tends to irradiate the whole subject, thus leading to an increase in danger to the unstable child.

The ordinary straightforward classroom teaching method is probably best kept mainly for factual education and for invoking the child's reason and sense of responsibility. This method is less effective for dealing with the dangerousness of roads or for presenting the antithesis between safety and danger, if only lest we succeed too well and persuade the children that the aim of man is to be safe and to avoid danger. The facts and statistics of danger, presented reasonably, can be handled by direct instruction. There is also an ample field for classroom methods in combating the often surprising ignorance of why traffic exists and of the part it plays in everyday life. Few children realize how dependent they personally are on the free and safe circulation of vehicles on the roads and of the roles of traffic regulations and policemen. We also need greater widespread knowledge of how vehicles work, of what they can and cannot do, of the limitations of the driver, and of what the road looks like to the driver compared with the pedestrian. There is nothing new in this; many authorities have been using these methods for years.

Such teaching must take care to avoid moral judgments suggesting that it is "good" to obey traffic rules and "bad" to dart into the road. In teaching, to link road behaviour with morals is to risk a negative response, especially from the unstable child, and may, like oversteering the horrific, actually increase the danger to that child.

Ideas of emotional importance such as danger, damage, injury, death, and bereavement lend themselves to a more indirect technique by films, plays, discussion, and the spontaneous production of ideas by groups of children. Just as accidents often arise in the social group, so it is reasonable to seek their prevention by group as well as by individual methods. In particular the moral ideas associated with road behaviour—and all behaviour has inescapable moral implications—are best left to spontaneous evolution by the children themselves.

Conclusion

Good safety education achieves much, and in principle what has been said here will apply also to adults, and in the home and factory. When education has harnessed to it all the knowledge which could be acquired from an investigation into the inner emotional implications of accidents and their significance to the social group, who knows how much more could be achieved? That is why so much emphasis has been laid throughout this paper on the need for a new approach before the full contribution of psychology to the prevention of accidents can be realized.

The shortage of doctors in Berlin has caused the Allied *Kommandatura* to authorize the city *Magistrat*, according to a report in *The Times* of July 26, "to set up a committee to deal with the applications of medical men who have been convicted of criminal offences to be restored to the register." The applicants must first have served their terms of imprisonment.

FOOD AND DRINK INFECTIONS

Conference of Representatives of Local Authorities

A conference of representatives of local authorities of England and Wales and Northern Ireland, including the chairmen or members of health committees, medical officers of health, and sanitary officers, was summoned in London on Oct. 9 by the Central Council for Health Education to discuss food and drink infections.

Lord Woolton, the chairman, said that there were between 1,500 and 2,000 deaths annually in England and Wales due to bovine tuberculosis conveyed by infected milk. When he was Food Minister he had spent many anxious weeks investigating this problem, and had come to the firm conclusion, from the evidence available to a Government department, that there ought to be compulsory pasteurization in this country. Was it too much for local authorities to accept the same standard of responsibility for the milk consumed in their areas as they already accepted for water? The large number of deaths of young children from diarrhoea and enteritis was also lamentable. Most of these deaths were due directly or indirectly to food or drink infections. A message was then read from the Minister of Health in which he stated that the information obtained by his department made it ever more clear that a great part of infection could be avoided by scrupulous attention to cleanliness in equipment, clothing, and person at all stages of manufacture and handling of food and drink.

The Problem Stated

Sir William Savage said that in some cases, as with staphylococcal infections, the reservoir of infection was from human sources; in others, as in the *Salmonella* group, it was derived from animal sources, particularly pigs, ducks, and small rodents, while in the case of botulism the organism was in the soil. The greater the manhandling of food the greater the likelihood of infection. Outbreaks of food-poisoning arose rarely from pork, but much more often from ham, which was handled more. He had frequently come across cases in which a food as originally prepared was perfectly harmless, but had become poisonous after a lapse of time because it was left at a temperature which encouraged the rapid multiplication of organisms. Food-poisoning the source of which was a diseased animal was not very common; he recalled that the first outbreak he ever investigated, forty years ago, was due to brawn from a pig which was so ill that it had to be carried to the place of slaughter in a milk float. Much had been done under Lord Woolton's administration to concentrate slaughtering in a selected number of slaughter-houses, some 500 instead of the former thousands; but it was now time that these selected slaughter-houses, which were often cramped and difficult to supervise, were all made really satisfactory premises.

The growing popularity of communal feeding-places, Sir William Savage continued, while advantageous from many points of view, had its disadvantages. Washing-up arrangements were often far from satisfactory. There were too few tanks, and the tanks were not kept to their assigned purposes—one for washing and another for rinsing. Utensils were in short supply, and often went back into circulation after perfunctory cleansing. The choice and strength of detergents were important, and the temperature of washing-water was a point too often disregarded. Food when prepared must be kept cool in refrigerators working at the proper temperature. Medical examination of all food handlers he considered to be impracticable, for if it was superficial it would be of no use, and if elaborate, involving bacteriological examination of stools and so forth, it would be prohibitive in cost. But it should be a condition of licence of any premises where food was consumed or sold that all cases of illness among the staff were reported to the medical officer of health.

Varieties of Infections

Dr. G. S. Wilson, director of the Public Health Laboratory Service, said that the number of food-poisoning outbreaks reported annually was now some 500, about a sevenfold increase since before the war. Bread was a very uncommon