INTRODUCTORY ADDRESSES

DELIVERED AT THE MEDICAL SCHOOLS.

ON

MEDICAL TRAINING AND UNIVERSITY ORGANISATION.

Delivered at the Opening of the Session of the Medical Department of Queen's College, Birmingham, October 1st, 1890.

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THE function at which I have been requested by the Council of Queen's College to assist on this occasion is, I believe, primarily to present the prizes which have been gained by students of the College, and then to deliver an address on some subject which may be appropriate at the opening of the session of a school of medicine. In connection with the first part of the duty now required of me, I wish most heartily to congratulate all the students who have just received prizes and distinctions. From the high character which the Queen's College has attained as a place of medical education, I feel confident that these distinctions have not been gained without labour and effort on the part of those who have been successful, and that they well merit the honours which they have now received.

By some persons the acquisition of knowledge is looked upon as its own reward. Titles, diplomas, distinctions and prizes are regarded by them as excrescences, which ought to have no place in an ideal system of education. The personal pleasure to be derived from the pursuit of learning and science ought to be, they say, sufficient without extraneous recognition. Constituted as is, however, frail human nature, there are few amongst us who reach so high a standard of perfection as not to feel some satisfaction in having our work acknowledged in a more or less substantial form. The desire to excel and to show the world by some outward mark that excellence has been attained offers, moreover, a constant stimulus to exertion in our several spheres of activity, and I cannot but think that one's life would be the poorer if this and similar ceremonies in which one occasionally takes part were to be abolished.

But in all such competitions as you have been engaged in, whilst there are some that have succeeded there are others that have failed. To these latter I would also offer my congratulations—not because they have failed to gain the prize, but because they have tried to gain it. I will assume that they conscientiously worked and did their best to succeed. If I am right in this assumption, then they have profited much by the efforts they have made. They have increased their stock of knowledge, have strengthened their powers of application, and perhaps, as far as concerns their own intellectual training, have reaped as much profit as if they had gained the prize. A sluggish contentment is the enemy of all progress. Browning tells us that the value and meaning of life to each individual is to be measured by the passion, intensity, and sincerity with which it is lived, and not by success or achievement.

Let a man contend to the uttermost
For his life's set prize, be it what it will.

Without strenuous endeavour we are

Left in God's contempt apart,
With ghastly smooth life, dead at heart.

Those of you who have been engaged in these competitions have reached a stage in your professional education in which you have gained experience in methods of work, and have acquired a knowledge of the subjects to be studied. But the month of October always brings to our medical schools a number of new candidates, of fresh aspirants to professional knowledge and distinctions. To these it will not be out of place that, as a teacher of some experience, I may be permitted to say a few words.

In this, your present stage of life, one of the most fitting lessons to learn is that there is no royal road to knowledge. Nothing that is of value can be acquired except by a great expenditure of time and labour and personal effort. You will soon recognise that there are two sides to your education—the one essentially practical, in which you will study facts; the other largely theoretical,

in which you will have to weigh the value of opinions. The fulness of life has been said to consist in the balance between the flesh and the spirit, each of which has its allotted sphere. The fulness of medical education is in the due preservation of the balance between the theoretical and the practical.

One of the first lessons that you will have to learn, and that your professors will have to teach you, is how and what to observe, how to train your senses to recognise closely and accurately the objects placed before you. By reading many books and by thinking over what you read, by taking voluminous notes of the lectures which you are attending, you may collect and arrange in the mind, in a more or less orderly way, a multitude of facts, and load—perhaps overload—the memory. You must undoubtedly read books and attend lectures, so that you may know what others have done in the various departments of your studies, and what the state of knowledge is in the different branches of professional training; how those who have gone before you have contributed to the progress of medicine as a science and as an art; how the present standard of knowledge has been attained, and what the direction is in which it may be extended and improved; but that which constitutes most essentially your own personal training is the cultivation of exact and careful observation—the power of perceiving and appreciating objects, facts, signs, and symptoms. When this power is acquired you will then be in a position to diagnose disease, and you will have advanced some distance on the road to recommend a rational system of treatment.

The subjects and methods of medical education have been, in a more or less perfect way, arranged to meet this great end. In the early months of your studies you will be required to pay attention to botany, chemistry, elementary physics, and it may be also to zoology and comparative anatomy. If these sciences be worked at in a proper spirit and with sufficient material for observation and study, the general properties of matter, the forms and appearances and structure of living things, the great principles which underlie the construction of organisms, and the forces which are at work within them, will have attracted your attention, and an important step will have been taken to place your special medical training on a broad and stable foundation of science. This, indeed is the true reason why botany, zoology, and comparative anatomy are included in all well devised schemes of medical education. One sometimes hears the question asked why should a medical student spend so many months in the study of these subjects, which have little, if any, direct relation to the treatment of disease, and that his time might more fitly be spent in the wards of a hospital, or in otherwise attending the sick and hurt. I am one of the last to undervalue a thorough system of clinical training, but I hold that the best preparation for it is the cultivation of a scientific spirit and method, of the power of seeing things correctly, and of giving a proper interpretation to the meaning of what is seen.

After this preliminary training the strictly professional education begins with the study of human anatomy. The student is now like a traveller about to explore a tract of country where he proposes to settle; or like a man who has bought a house for a residence and at once applies himself to examine every nook and cranny of his new home. The shape and form of the human body and of its constituent parts are to be studied; their arrangement in relation to each other, their mutual connections, their development and growth are all to be inquired into. How is this to be done? The student must at the outset rely upon the written teaching of books and the oral teaching of his professors and demonstrators. But this in itself is not sufficient. He must explore the human body for himself; he must examine its topography and its structure, and this he can only do effectually by the labour of his own hands; that is, by dissecting. He must test the statements made in his books, or what his teachers tell him, by his own observations, and satisfy himself that the parts are present of which he has read or heard, and that their arrangement and structure are what they are said to be. In this way he trains himself to observe and to compare his observations with those of others. And this not merely from curiosity, or as a general training in science, such as he would derive from the study of a plant or an animal; but by special and continued observation on that very organism of which it is his business to know the formation and structure, so far as has yet been reached by human knowledge. By this method of study the eyesight is brought in to aid the memory. The time and attention to be given in the manipulative work required to display the whole series of objects which

occur in an anatomical region, or to follow out a blood vessel or a nerve also help to fix the parts in the memory. In this way the student gradually builds up in his own mind a picture of the human body as he has seen it in his own dissections, and so permanent does this picture become as a consequence of continued work, that he can recall it in his after-life, on occasions when an exact knowledge of the disposition of parts in a particular region is of importance in the diagnosis and treatment of disease. The more minute his observation has been, the more carefully his dissections have been conducted, the more vivid and lasting will be the impression produced. This, indeed, is the reason why all anatomical teachers, who have a true sense of the value and importance of their subject, insist so strongly upon care in manipulative work and attention to minute details. For human anatomy is to be studied both as a collection of facts which are to be applied in practice, and as a form of mental training in exact observation. A marked distinction must be drawn between genuine knowledge acquired by personal observation and work, and the *pseudo*-knowledge which is got by cramming. Of the student who relies upon this latter method we may say that his last state is worse than the first. For he thinks that he knows his subject—perhaps he has passed his examination in it—but when he seeks to apply this supposed knowledge to the purposes of practical life, it vanishes from his sight at the time when it is most needed, like a phantom, and his supposed proficiency in the subject is but as sounding brass and tinkling cymbal.

Physiology, the sister science of anatomy, is to be studied along with it. There is no branch of medical education in which greater progress has been made during the last thirty years, both in the methods of research and of teaching. It has profited enormously by the application to its study of the experimental methods of the physicist, and although in some respects still highly speculative in its teaching, it has in others assumed the position of an exact science.

Having mastered, let us suppose, the most important facts and principles to be acquired by the study of the structure and functions of the human body in a state of health, you are then in a position, as regards mental preparation, to commence in an intelligent way the study of disease. You will have, under the supervision of your teachers, to see patients both in the wards of the large general hospitals of this city and in the out-patient department, and to examine the organs and parts of the body so as to detect the morbid changes which have taken place in them. You will have to attend the lectures, and listen to the oral exposition of those of your professors whose duty it is to explain to you the signs and symptoms of disease, the cause of its production, its probable termination, and its method of treatment. But, further, you must supplement this oral teaching by reading good textbooks and monographs.

With the commencement of your work in the hospital you will at once begin to apply your knowledge of anatomy and physiology to the recognition of disease. If your training has been sound in these subjects the meaning of many of the symptoms exhibited by the patients will be obvious to you without explanation, and the signification of many others will soon become apparent. The value, also, of the training in careful observation, to which I have referred as so important in your anatomical studies, will now become manifest. In clinical work, indeed, all your senses, but more especially touch, sight, and hearing, have to be brought into play. The more minutely and precisely that you can recognise morbid signs and appearances, the more exactly will you be able to determine the boundary line between health and disease. The more acute your observation is, the more definite should be your diagnosis. Observation alone, however, does not make a great physician or a great surgeon, but it is the basis of excellence in our profession; for without careful and precise observation you have not the data to enable you to determine the seat of disease, or the cause of its production, or to compare what you see in one case with what you have seen in others, or with your reading, or with what you have learnt from your teachers. Careful observation and comparison of cases with each other, combined with long-continued reflection—the employment, in short, of scientific principles and methods—have led, more especially during the present century, to a marked increase in our knowledge of the causes of disease, of the precautionary measures to be taken to prevent it, of precision in diagnosis, and of improvements in methods of treatment. If I were to name any group of diseases which has specially profited by the advances made during the last thirty years in the fundamental sciences of anatomy and physiology, I

should select those of the nervous system. The much more accurate knowledge of the structure and functions of the brain and spinal cord which we now possess has enabled the physician to recognise symptoms which had previously had no value given to them, and a precision of diagnosis has been reached on which in many cases methods of operative treatment have been based that twenty, or ten, or even five years ago would not have been supposed possible.

Previous to my appearing to address you here this evening, under the guidance of Dr. Heath, the learned Principal of Mason College, and of Dr. Windle, your most energetic and capable Dean of the Faculty of Medicine, I have visited the colleges and medical institutions in which you will have to receive your professional training. I have satisfied myself that the educational material for affording you instruction in the scientific and practical work of your profession which is placed at your disposal in this city is most efficient. The hospitals provide an abundance of beds and patients, and the school is organised on a comprehensive basis, with an adequate staff of teachers, with museums, laboratories, and such other appliances as are required in the modern teaching of medicine.

In this connection I may be permitted to look back for a moment into the history of the College and of the Birmingham School of Medicine. The first attempt at the teaching of medicine was made in this city in 1825 by Mr. William Sands Cox, by the delivery of a course of anatomical lectures. In the selection of this subject he recognised the true basis of all medical teaching, and, unconsciously it may be on his part, he imitated what had been done in Edinburgh at the beginning of the last century when the great school of medicine in that city was founded. In two or three years, lecturers on other subjects were associated with him, and, although the number of students was at first small, the school of medicine and surgery at Birmingham slowly assumed a definite position in the district. It acquired, largely through the liberality of the Rev. Dr. Warneford, endowments for various purposes. Buildings and equipment were also provided, and in 1845 the Queen, by Royal Charter, conferred the name of the Queen's College on the institution. Since that time, after undergoing various turns of fortune, the medical school has become strengthened and consolidated, and the foundation of the Mason College of Science, which was opened in 1880, has placed within the reach of students of medicine in Birmingham the opportunities of acquiring a sound education in the preliminary sciences. Such is a brief narrative of the rise of your school. Is there any lesson to be derived from it? I think there is. It is one of several instances not unknown in this country where great educational institutions have taken their rise from very small beginnings, have thriven and prospered by the enthusiasm and public spirit of individuals resident in the locality itself, and have owed little or nothing to the State. It is astonishing, indeed, when we survey our great educational institutions, how small a part the State has taken in their inception. Almost all have arisen through private enterprise, and not infrequently through the enthusiasm and liberality of one or a few persons. When the institution thus formed has given a satisfactory record of good work either executed or in process, it gains the confidence of the community in which it is placed, other public-spirited persons make it the object of benefactions, its educational machinery is improved and extended, students flock to it from all quarters, and it becomes of more than local importance. In this, as indeed in so many other departments of human industry, our country presents a striking contrast to what we see on the Continent of Europe, where the universities and great schools are under the close supervision of a Minister of Education and a government bureau. To place our universities and colleges under the control of a government office would be an administrative arrangement which I, for one, have no desire to see imitated in this country. I believe that State control has a tendency to crystallise the educational institutions which it administers, to cramp their expansion, and to deprive them of that elasticity which is necessary in order that they may adapt themselves to the progress of science and learning. I think that all educational bodies are better administered by those who are themselves practically engaged in educational work, together with such an admixture of persons possessing public spirit, administrative capacity and business habits as may be required for managing their funds, providing more money, more buildings, and more appliances when they are needed. Such an administrative body is, I believe, much to be preferred to one consisting of officials in a Government office, having no

special knowledge of the subjects or methods of education, or acquaintance with local requirements.

But there has been a stage in the history of many great educational bodies when the interference of the State has become, one may say, almost a necessity, when the head of the State has had to step in, and by Royal Charter confer upon an institution powers which without his or her interference could not be obtained.

If we compare England with many neighbouring States, we find, as regards the number of universities and the proportion which they bear to the population, marked differences. For example, Belgium, with a population of about six millions, has four universities; Holland, with a population of about five millions, has a similar number; Switzerland, with three millions of people, has also four universities. Germany has at least twenty universities. France, profiting by the bitter lesson which she learned in 1870, has since that date been largely expanding her university system. When we come nearer home we find that Scotland, with a population scarcely so numerous as London, has four universities. Even before the Reformation, when her population was poor and scanty, Scotland had three universities, and in 1583 an addition was made to the number by the foundation of the University of Edinburgh. No one can doubt that the establishment of universities in so many parts of the country, so as to bring the higher education within reach of the people, and the institution of the admirable parochial school system at the time of the Reformation, have contributed largely to the development of the intellectual and material wealth both of Scotland as a whole and of individual Scotsmen.

When we look to England we note a remarkable difference in the relation between the number of universities and that of the population. It is astonishing how long and deeply the conviction was rooted in the English mind that the two renowned universities, Oxford and Cambridge, were sufficient for the needs of the people. It is indeed the more astonishing when we remember that they were organised and administered largely on an ecclesiastical basis, and that though they gave a general education of the highest order, yet, until comparatively recent years, they provided scarcely any special professional training except for clergymen and schoolmasters. It has indeed been argued, and by very eminent men, that the universities should content themselves with the position of being schools of general culture, and not superadd to this part of their functions the training required for particular professions.

About the beginning of the second quarter of the present century, people awoke to the necessity of providing additional facilities for obtaining higher education than could be obtained in Oxford and Cambridge and in the public schools. In the year 1832 the Bishop of Durham, in association with the Dean and Chapter, obtained an Act of Parliament to empower the appropriation of certain of the revenues of the See for the establishment of a university in that diocese, so as to meet the wants of the large and growing population in the north of England; and in 1837, a Royal Charter of incorporation was granted to them. At first, all that was intended in the establishment of the University of Durham was to provide a general academic education and a course of theological study; but, as years have passed on, the university has extended its area, and has brought into close connection with itself both the School of Medicine and the College of Physical Science which have been established at Newcastle-upon-Tyne. These latter institutions, therefore, have practically become colleges of that University, take a part in its government, and educate for its degrees. Educational institutions elsewhere have also been affiliated to it.

When this movement took place in the North of England, London also was bestirring itself to obtain improved educational arrangements, and, had it not been for ecclesiastical and political difficulties, a teaching university was on the high road to becoming established in the metropolis. Owing, however, to opposition proceeding from various quarters, the original scheme fell through, and there arose in its place, by a Royal Charter granted in the first year of the reign of our gracious Queen, the institution which we all know as the University of London. This University, in its constitution and duties, was founded on an entirely new basis, one quite distinct from tradition and previous experience. Instead of being both a teaching and a degree-conferring institution, it was organised as a mere examining board in several faculties, and the members of its Senate or governing body were drawn from a wide circle. Colleges and institutions of all kinds which in the judg-

ment of the Senate came up to a certain standard of efficiency in education were affiliated to it, and it has gradually acquired the position of a national examining board. But the divorce of the teaching from the examining functions, which was an essential part of its constitution, led in the course of time to many complaints, more especially in the great counties of Lancashire and Yorkshire, where educational institutions, vigorous in their growth and efficiency, had within recent years been founded, but which had no share or voice in the administration of the University and in the appointment of its examiners. So clamorous was the demand on the part of these institutions for a restoration of the touch between the teaching and examining functions, that the agitation ended in a Royal Charter being issued in 1880 for the foundation of a Victoria University. Power was granted to this new university to admit as colleges of the University such institutions as possessed a proper staff of teachers, adequate endowments, buildings and teaching appliances, not only for giving instruction in medicine and science, but in the great branches of general education. The Owens College, Manchester, which had led the agitation, was sufficiently provided with the necessary staff, funds and appliances to at once take advantage of the powers conferred by the charter, and, after an interval, Liverpool and Leeds placed their colleges on an adequate basis, and became members of the federation. Each of the colleges, and to some extent the towns in which they are situated, are represented on the governing body of the University.

England, therefore, now possesses four teaching and degree-giving universities, and one the sole duty of which is to examine and confer degrees. With its teeming population, its huge industries, so many of which owe their existence and their possibilities of expansion to the progress of science, with its intellectual life, quickened and propagated by the diffusion of knowledge and the spread of education under the Education Acts which Parliament has passed during recent years, England, at this time, so far as regards the number of her universities, stands only on the same plane as Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, and Scotland, with their comparatively limited populations, and on a much lower platform than Germany.

But there is one part of England from which a cry has gone up long and loud for an extended university system, and that is the metropolis itself. London is the only great capital in Europe in which there is no teaching university. London undoubtedly possesses teaching institutions in great numbers, in many faculties and of the highest efficiency, but they are independent institutions and have no organisation in common. Although individual members of these teaching institutions may be, and undoubtedly are, to some extent, members of the Senate or governing body of the University of London, yet the institutions in which they are teachers have not, in their corporate capacity, any voice in the adjustment of the curriculum of study, in the appointment of the examiners, or in the conduct of the examinations. The demand for a change in the existing arrangements for the higher education in London became so clamorous that a Royal Commission was issued two years ago, to inquire whether any or what kind of new university or powers is or are required for the advancement of higher education in London. In taking evidence, the Commission seems to have restricted itself to obtaining the opinion of eminent persons connected with various colleges and institutions in London, and not to have sought the advice of persons engaged in education elsewhere. The Commissioners apparently were forgetful of the fact that if the reform was to be carried out, as indeed they have suggested in their report, by a change in the constitution of the national examining board called the University of London, the matter ceased to be a purely London question, but that many institutions outside the metropolitan area had an interest in it, nearly, if not quite, as strong as those in London itself.

So complicated did the Commissioners find the question which was submitted to them, that they have in the meantime practically thrown the onus of unravelling the puzzle on the Senate and the Convocation of the University of London, and they suggest that if those bodies together cannot solve the problem, it be remitted again to them for further consideration and report. Should the final resolution be the foundation in London of a teaching and degree-conferring university, entirely distinct from the existing university, and with the numerous educational institutions within the metropolitan area federated to it, then by all means give to these institutions a dominant voice in its government. But should, as the Commissioners evidently prefer, no new

university be founded, but the existing University of London be so modified in its constitution as to make it a teaching university for the metropolis, whilst it admits to its examinations and degrees all qualified students, wherever they may be educated, then both the provincial colleges and the present graduates will have to be heard. The provincial colleges may reasonably claim that in adjusting the details for the government and administration they should have a voice in questions connected with the arrangement of the curricula of study, the scope and method of examination and the appointment of examiners, in all of which they would have as direct an interest as the metropolitan colleges themselves. The existing graduates should insist that the standard of examination should be efficient, and that the cry which one sometimes hears of degrees on "easy" terms for London students should not be listened to.

But if the reasonable requests of the provincial colleges be not met in an equitable manner, it will be for them to reconsider their position. If I read the charter of the Victoria University aright, the colleges which it has power to receive into the federation are not restricted to such as are situated in the north of England, but may be localised anywhere in England and Wales, the essential conditions being that they have an efficient staff of teachers, and that the means and appliances for teaching are on a sound basis. The charter, therefore, is so wide that Birmingham and other great cities may, if they think fit, claim to have their colleges admitted members of the federation under the central authority of the Victoria University, when they are able to fulfil the conditions imposed by the charter of that university.

But it is possible that Birmingham may have a higher ambition. It regards itself as the capital of the Midlands, and has good grounds for assuming this honourable distinction. It is a great industrial metropolis. Although the intellectual activity of the district has in many cases taken a political direction, yet since the middle of last century when Priestley lived here, Warwickshire and Staffordshire have been the home of many men of light and learning. As the history of the Queen's College teaches, much practical sympathy has been shown to the cause of professional education, and the foundation of the Mason College proves that your great manufacturers are willing to give freely of their wealth to promote the higher education in literature and science. Birmingham, therefore, fulfils in many respects the conditions which should precede the granting of a Royal Charter for the conferring of university degrees and privileges. But much more would have to be done before a university worthy of the Midlands could be established on a proper basis. So far as I can judge from a perusal of the calendars of your colleges, there is no provision for the teaching of history, of mental or moral philosophy, and of economics—all of which subjects are powerful instruments in the development of the human mind, and without which a faculty of arts cannot advance much beyond the standard of a high school. Your faculty of science is much more complete; but even here there are gaps which would need filling. There is no trace of a faculty of law; but that of medicine, as I have already stated, is organised on a satisfactory basis. It is possible, also, that there may be other difficulties and hindrances of a local nature which might have to be removed.

What is, however, needed to put your educational institutions into the highest state of efficiency, as was so powerfully and eloquently urged yesterday by Dr. Dale at the opening of the Mason College, is more money. Money is the sinews of education as well as of war. The higher education is an expensive luxury. By a large outlay your educational institutions have become what they now are; and, by a further expenditure, all the deficiencies to which I have just adverted may be supplied. Competent teachers can always be got if the public will properly pay them, and the materials required for extending your buildings and giving them a proper equipment follow the usual laws of supply and demand. When I tell you that the people of Edinburgh and the district raised, not many years ago, by public subscription, £160,000 for the building and equipment of a new school for the teaching of medicine in the university in that city, I show you what can be done when people are satisfied that a necessity has arisen and that funds must be provided. I cannot, therefore, but think that if Birmingham and the populous district which surrounds it, abounding in resources and in public spirited citizens, wish for a university to be established in their midst, the money necessary for the purpose will be forthcoming. Two great requisites are needed for carrying out any great scheme of improvement, either in educa-

tion or any other form of human enterprise, namely, faith and courage. Faith in the goodness of the cause, and courage to make your belief known and to press it on the attention of the public.

We read that Matthew Boulton, when he founded his great manufactory at Soho in the middle of the last century, aimed at establishing a character for the excellence of his productions. They were to be, says Mr. Smiles, "not only honest in workmanship, but tasteful in design." The citizens of the present day will, in their educational work, I feel sure, not wish to fall behind Boulton's ideal. The instruction to be imparted in their colleges they will desire to have sound and thorough, not scamped or dressed up with a little varnish or thin veneer, but honest and true; and with a grace and polish superadded which can only be imparted by a literary training and culture. Students would then be attracted to Birmingham for the same reason that brought James Watt here, more than a hundred years ago, because they would have at command a staff of skilled workmen, and could feel confident that they could rely on the quality of the workmanship.

The multiplication of universities in a country to an extent sufficient to satisfy the requirements of the people develops in the districts in which they are situated a desire for learning, it improves the intellectual tone of the locality, and encourages the aspiration for something higher than material welfare. But, further, in matters strictly educational, it preserves the touch between education and examination, which from the point of view of one's own profession is of the utmost importance.

It is not so many years ago that the medical profession in many parts of England raised for itself a fetish which was called the one-portal system—a method of admission to the privileges of practice which, had it ever come into operation, would have widened the breach between teaching and examination to an extent much greater than now prevails. It would, I believe, have discouraged healthy and legitimate study, and have encouraged a wholesale system of cramming.

Fortunately, for the future of our profession, the cry for a single examining board, either for the whole kingdom or for each division of the kingdom, has practically ceased. We may date its cessation from the passing of the Medical Act of 1886, when increased statutory powers were given to the General Medical Council for the inspection of examinations, and when the medical profession was empowered by a direct vote to elect representatives on the Council.

Should a university in the course of time be established in the Midlands, with Birmingham as its centre, one may be confident that the examinations in medicine which it would conduct would fulfil all the conditions which the Medical Council might demand, and that the educational stamp imposed upon its graduates would rank as high in the intellectual world as do the most perfect products of its manufactories amongst the industries of the British Empire.

DEATH UNDER CHLOROFORM.—The death on September 17th at St. Thomas's Hospital of an ostler named Hezekiah Young, aged 40, when under the influence of chloroform, was the subject of an inquest recently held before Mr. G. P. Wyatt. The following particulars of the case have been furnished us by Mr. H. B. Robinson, the resident medical surgeon:—The man was the subject of pyopneumothorax, on the right side, of one year's standing. He had had two portions of ribs removed before on separate occasions under chloroform without any bad symptoms from the anæsthetic. As the cavity showed no signs of contracting and the discharge was very profuse, it was decided to again explore and, if possible, reduce the size of the cavity by rib-resection. When he had taken sufficient chloroform to render him anæsthetic, and before even his dressings had been removed, his pupils suddenly dilated, there was pallor of cheeks, and both heart and respiration ceased almost instantaneously. All efforts to restore him proved unavailing, and there is no doubt that he died of cardiac failure, his death being accelerated by the diseased condition of his lungs. At the *post-mortem* examination his heart was healthy, but had been drawn somewhat to the right side. A verdict in accordance with the medical evidence was returned—namely, that every precaution was taken, and deceased was considered in a fit state to undergo the operation.

SUCCESSFUL VACCINATION.—Dr. F. W. D. McGachen, public vaccinator to the Fifth District of the Newport Pagnel Union, has received a grant for successful vaccination for the first time.