

The unity of medicine : its corruptions and divisions, by law established in England and Wales, their causes, effects, and remedy / By Frederick Davies.

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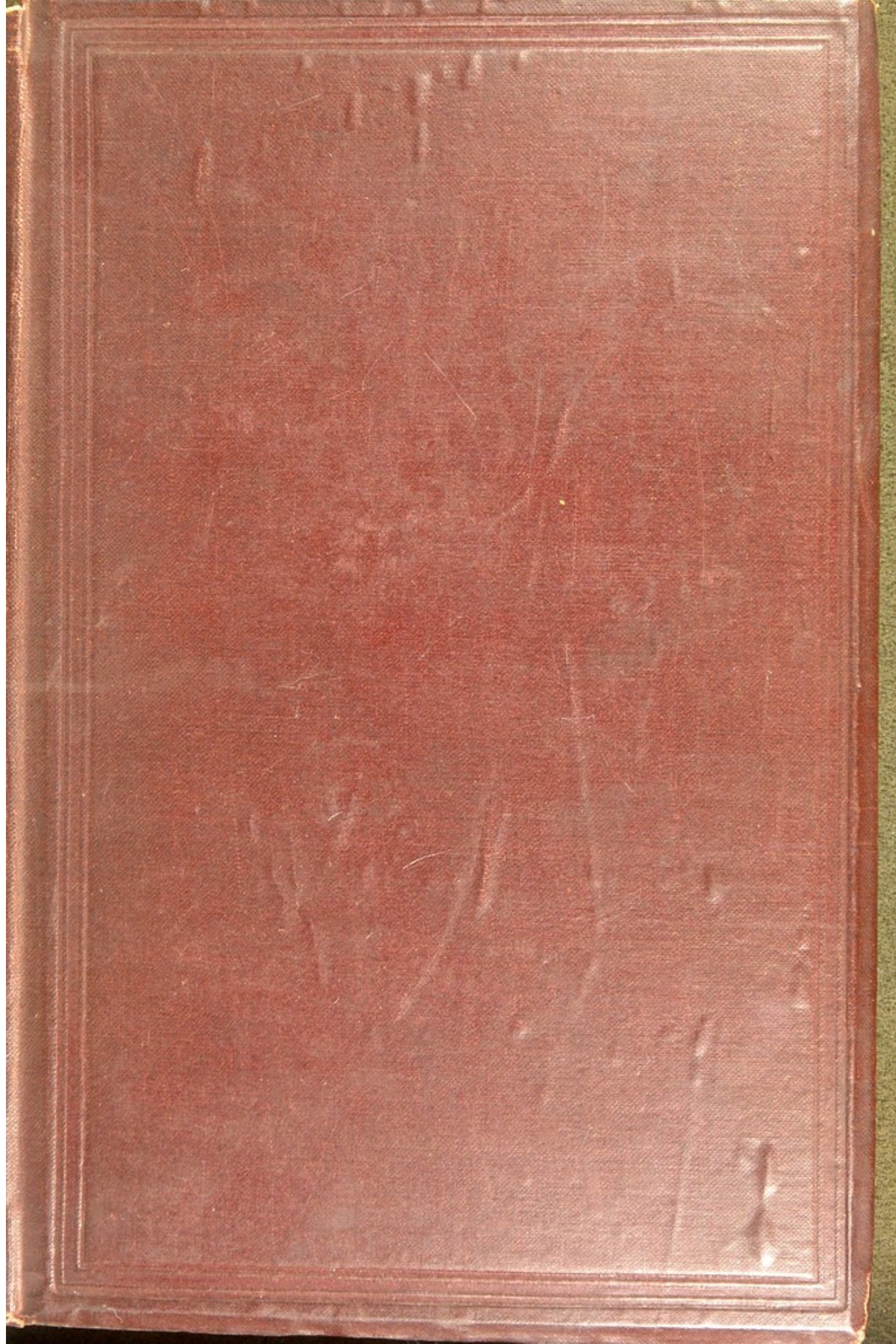
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the shedding of blood, yet anxious not to hand over their practice to the Jews, found in "barber-chirurgians" ready allies. A Barbers' Guild existed in London as early as 1308 at least. Probably, like all other trades, it had its organization long before that date. Mr. South found no trace of its original formation, and adds that "it did not attain to the rank of a Company for many subsequent years," which seems to surprise him. One of the first surgeons we hear of is John le Spicer. He practiced in Cornhill, and rashly undertook to cure Thomas of Shene of "a certain enormous and horrible hurt on the right side of the jaw." But Thomas was not to be cured by surgery; and the unhappy Spicer, being brought up before the mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs in 1354, is tried before three other surgeons, and "the prior of Hogges," as assessors, and found to have been guilty of negligence and want of skill, "whereby the said injury under his care became apparently incurable." Mr. South traced the beginnings of London surgery from this point with great care, and quotes the forms of admission to practice by the civic authorities—not, as he seems to think, before the Court of Aldermen, but before the "full burghers." The City appointed surgeons as inspectors "to make faithful oversight of all others, both men and women, occupied in cures or using the art of surgery." In 1492 call it, the Guild, received a grant of arms; and the Barber-Surgeons Company, after a somewhat stormy youth, was set on a firm base by Henry VIII. In 1530, through the good offices of Sir Thomas More, in 1540 an Act was passed to unite and incorporate the two bodies, and the delivery of the Act, when it had received the Royal assent, forms the subject of the famous picture by Holbein which is now the greatest treasure of the Barbers' Company. Their members had the wit to arrange for his retention when the surgeons finally left them in 1745. The chapter which contains Carwardine's account of the picture, with Mr. South's additional notes, is one of the most interesting in the book. We can only notice here some facts which seem to help us to the exact date at which it was painted. Thomas Master of the Barbers' Company in 1531. This cannot well be the date of the picture, for many reasons which are clearly set forth. But the same Vicary was Master of the united Barber-Surgeons Company in 1542, and on subsequent occasions. It is more than probable, therefore, that the picture was painted between 1542 and 1543, the year of Holbein's death. "It is possible, however," adds the author, "that the painting is merely commemorative, the separate studies being incorrectly pieced together after Holbein's death." This seems a very gratuitous supposition. If the picture is not by Holbein, it is not worth making such a fuss about, only that in this case we must find some other painter capable of producing it. That it can be made up of scraps, like Mr. South's book, is impossible if the following account of the fabric of the picture be correct:—"It is an oak panel, measuring within the frame ten feet two inches in width, by about six feet in height, is finely coloured and elaborately finished." As early as 1617 it was a celebrated "table of painting," and in 1668 Pepys mentions it as being the "great picture by Holbein." A fine cartoon, formed of some of the portraits in the same picture, separately drawn and pasted down upon a canvas lining, is in the modern College of Surgeons, Lincoln's Inn Fields. It was bought in 1786 in a sale of the pictures of M. Deshayes, who was the collector of the Dulwich Gallery, and cost the College fifty guineas, and as much for cleaning and repairing.

The great difficulty in the way of surgical education in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was the want of some legal provision of subjects for anatomical dissection. A Readership of anatomy was established in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and on the final separation of the Barbers and Surgeons, the latter took up their quarters in a new house close to Newgate in the Old Bailey, as much for the convenience of obtaining the bodies of malefactors as for any other purpose. In 1684 the Surgeons had begun to agitate for separation, but the movement did not come to anything until a final effort was made sixty years later, and in 1745 the Surgeons Company was formally constituted by Act of Parliament. The Barbers retained almost everything, including the endowments, that had been most valuable, but the anatomy Company was never very flourishing. True the privileges, foundations went, of course, with the Surgeons. The Surgeons and social status of surgeons were improved and defined, and both lectures and examinations for license were held with regularity in a new hall, of which many views remain. The design was by Kent, and was strictly classical, and was carried out by Jones, an architect of whom we know little except that he was not famous John Hunter connected with it. Ten years later it was again in difficulties. An irregular meeting of the Court seems to have developed into a formal breach of the provisions of the Act of Parliament: an attempt to reconstruct the Company was defeated by Lord Thurlow, and business was at a standstill in 1797 when the Old Bailey house had been sold for only 2,100l. and a new house in Lincoln's Inn Fields had been bought for

5,500l. At last, however, in 1800, after a long series of vicissitudes for which we must refer to Mr. South's book, the members of the old Company were incorporated as the Royal College of Surgeons, and in 1821 even the old names of "master and governors" were abandoned for "the more high-sounding titles of president and vice-presidents when the College received a supplemental charter from George IV." At this point Mr. South and his editor have left the narrative of the rise and progress of the *Craft*. A full appendix and a meagre index, with some excellent plates, complete a very useful, if not a very entertaining, volume. Like the works of Mr. Riley, Mr. Cripps, and others, which we have from time to time reviewed in these columns, it will be more popular with the compiler and the literary plate than with the general reader.

Brooke (Helkiah) Description
of the Body of man. folio
woodcuts. — 1615

Pettigrew (T. J.) History of
Egyptian Mummies, and
an Account of the Worship
and Embalming of the
Animals of the Egyptians
4^{to} plates by G. Cruikshank
- 1834

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THE
UNITY OF MEDICINE:
ITS
CORRUPTIONS AND DIVISIONS.

THE following pages, written in the year 1858, formed one of the rejected Essays for the Carmichael Prizes offered in that year by the President and Council of the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland. If the Author may be permitted to judge of his own production, he ventures to affirm that no more complete exposition of "The State of the Medical Profession in its different departments of physic, surgery, and pharmacy, in Great Britain and Ireland at the time of the writing of these prize essays" has since emanated from the press—neither have any further suggestions been offered for the "improvement of the Profession" than such as are herein contained. One cogent reason, however, has been added, showing the supreme necessity "for the *moral* education of medical and surgical students" as enjoined by Mr. Carmichael, insisted on in this essay, and without which it is impossible that the Medical Profession can ever become "more useful to the public, and a more respectable body than it is at present." He would not have presumed to speak of his own essay but for the precedent given him in the award of the Carmichael Prize recently made, for the first time, by the President and Council of the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, to one who "had the honour of a seat at that board"!

The author has been induced to publish the following essay as it was submitted for competition (without those modifications arising from the lapse of time which might have been added), trusting that the Profession will confirm or correct the statements made, or show a more excellent way whereby its intricacies and incongruities may be explained and corrected, so that, in some measure at least, equity and justice, truth and honesty, may be advanced.

124, GOWER STREET;
May, 1870.

THE
UNITY OF MEDICINE:

ITS CORRUPTIONS AND DIVISIONS

BY LAW ESTABLISHED

IN ENGLAND AND WALES,

THEIR CAUSES, EFFECTS, AND REMEDY.

BY

FREDERICK DAVIES, M.D.,

FELLOW OF THE ROYAL COLLEGE OF SURGEONS;
LATE SURGEON TO THE ST. PANCRAS AND NORTHERN DISPENSARY;
FELLOW OF THE ROYAL MEDICAL AND CHIRURGICAL SOCIETY.

"La médecine est la plus noble des professions, et le plus triste des métiers."

Reveillé-Parise.

WITH A COLOURED CHART.

SECOND EDITION, REVISED AND EXTENDED TO IRELAND
AND SCOTLAND.



LONDON:
JOHN CHURCHILL AND SONS, NEW BURLINGTON STREET.

MDCCCLXX.

“Medicine is a science which hath been, as we have said, more professed than laboured, and yet more laboured than advanced; the labour having been, in my judgment, rather in circle than in progression, for I find much iteration, but small progression.”—BACON, *Advancement of Learning*, vol. ii, p. 162.

“It is in vain to expect any great progress in the sciences by the superinducing or engrafting new matters upon old. An instauration must be made FROM THE VERY FOUNDATIONS, if we do not wish to revolve for ever in a circle, making only some slight and contemptible progress.”—BACON, *Nov. Org.*, book 1, aph. xxxi.

ROYAL COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS	
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DEDICATED TO
THE MEMORY OF THE LATE
GEORGE NORMAN, ESQ.
OF BATH,

A TYPE OF PROVINCIAL HOSPITAL SURGEONS,

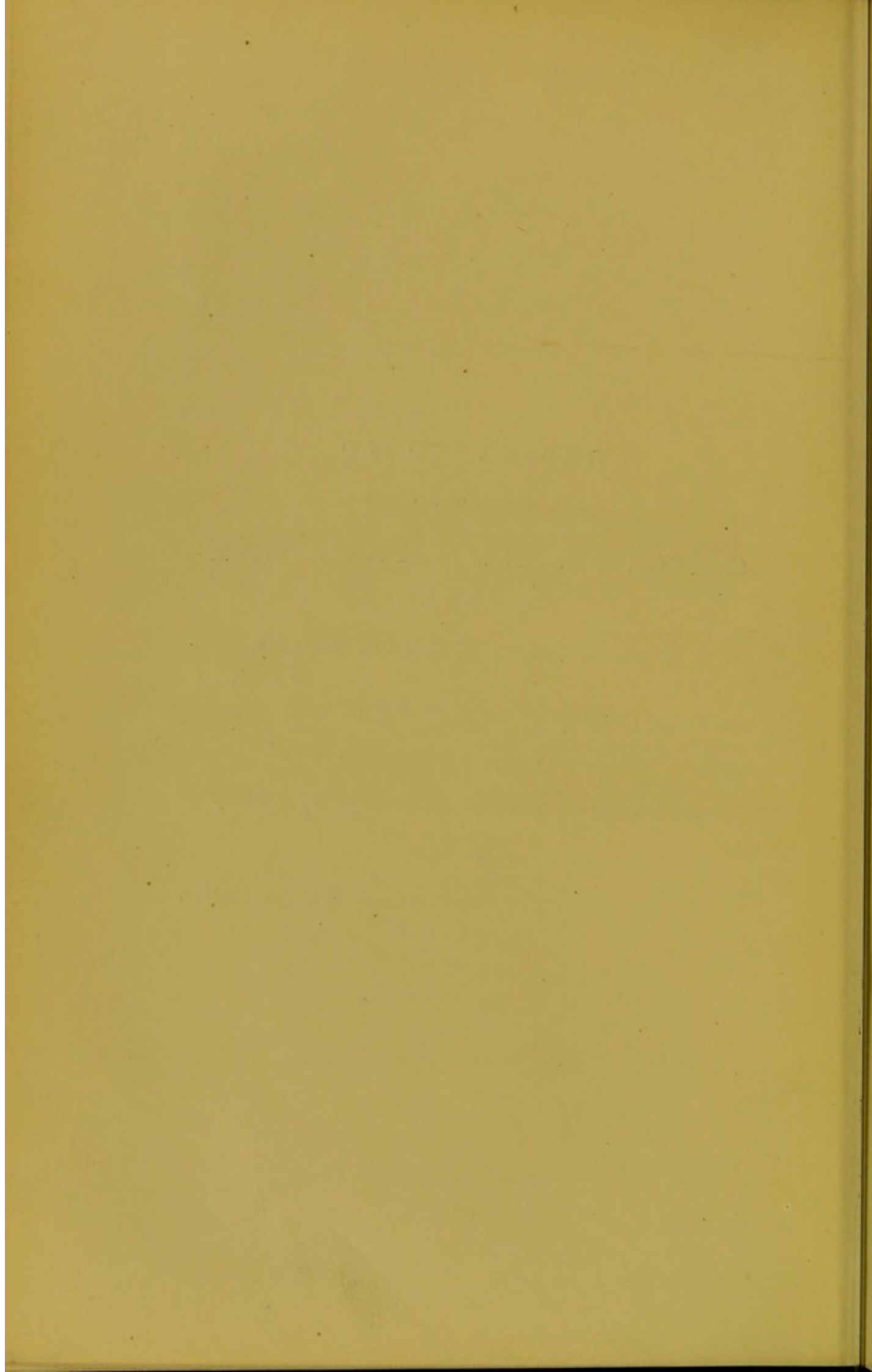
WHOSE PRACTICE OF MEDICINE,

“IN ALL AND EVERY ITS MEMBERS AND PARTS,”

WAS TAUGHT BY EXAMPLE AS WELL AS BY PRECEPT

TO HIS PUPIL,

THE AUTHOR.



PREFACE

TO THE SECOND EDITION.

SHORTLY after the publication of a first edition of the 'Unity of Medicine'* (April, 1858), the author became acquainted with a notice issued (Jan. 15, 1858) by the President and Council of the Royal College of Surgeons of Ireland, in accordance with the will of the late Mr. Carmichael, offering prizes for the best essays "On the State of the Medical Profession, in its different departments of Physic, Surgery, and Pharmacy, in Great Britain and Ireland," &c.

The subject of the treatise, and the object of the author as regards England and Wales, having been precisely in accordance with the will of the testator, he has been induced by this circumstance—as well as by the favorable reception given to the attempt—to make such additions relating to Ireland and Scotland as shall fully carry out the

* Published anonymously.

purposes expressed in the notice, and to offer it as in some measure tending to the object in view.

The safety of the public, and therein the honour of the profession, and the glory of God, has been the standard kept in view in the execution of this work.

Inasmuch as it may tend to these high and holy purposes, he desires its success; wherever it may fall short of these, he as heartily desires its failure.

PREFACE

TO THE FIRST EDITION.

THE following pages have arisen from the doubts and difficulties experienced by the author many years since, on commencing practice in the medical profession. From this period, his mind has been led imperceptibly to inquire more and more regarding the varieties in the mode of practice and remuneration which exist in this kingdom, whence they have arisen, and wherefore they have continued. No concise and clear reply was afforded him in any known publication; the following facts have been therefore collected and arranged in the brief intervals of time taken from an anxious and engrossing profession. If they shall in any way supply the want to others which the writer himself experienced, it will accomplish one object he has had in view.

In pursuing this inquiry, he has been compelled

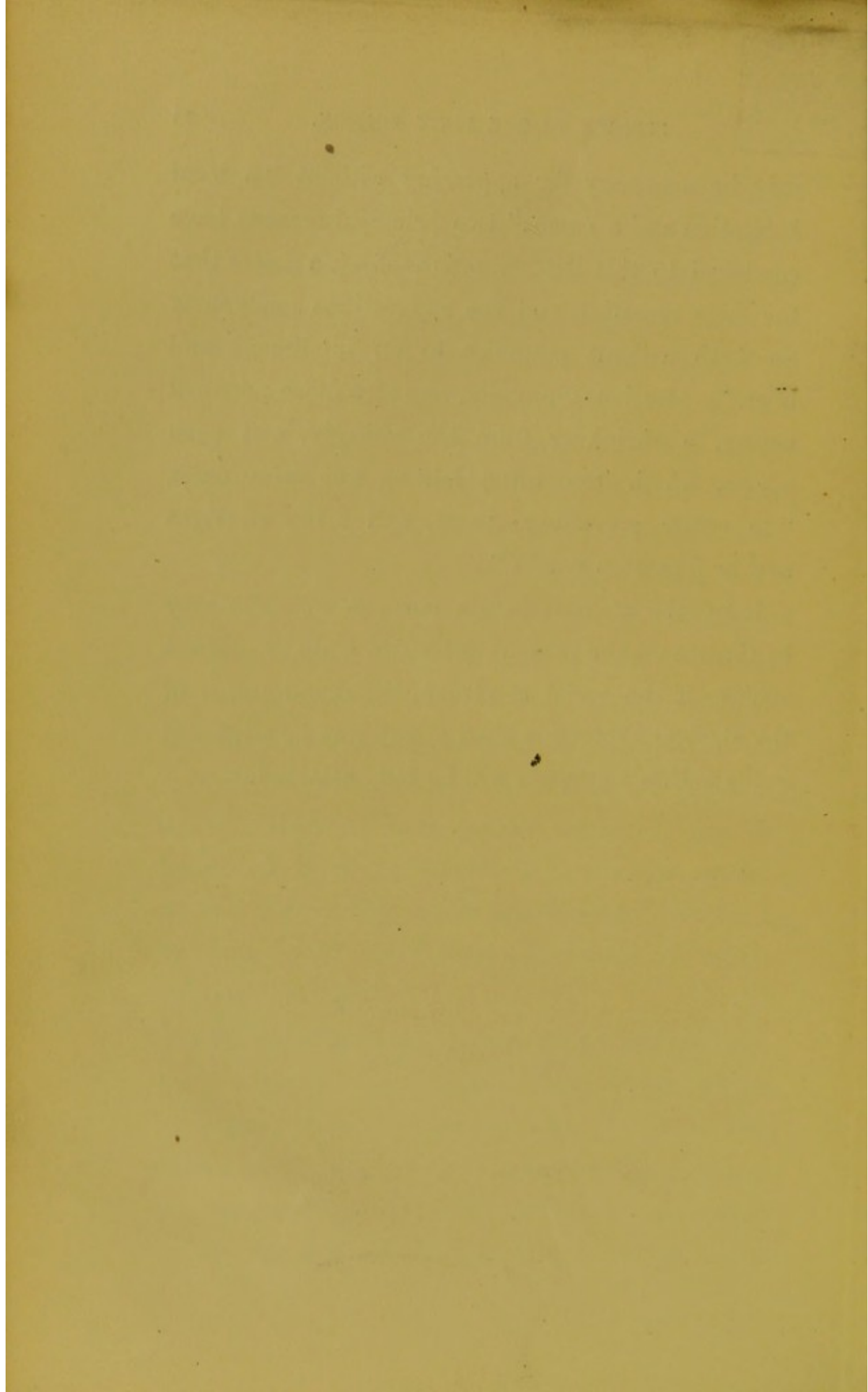
to set forth the origin of the three great divisions into which practitioners of medicine are broken up in this kingdom, not with a view to the disparagement of either section, but with an earnest desire to awaken a spirit of UNITY which shall conduce far more to the advantage both of the profession and the public, than the interminable strife and dissension now existing. The slight sketch of the history of medicine as regards its unity on the one hand, its corruptions and divisions on the other, might have been greatly extended; further evidence of its unity might have been adduced, especially from the various authors who stood out as the champions of surgery during the time of its degradation and restoration, commencing with Constantinus Africanus down to Harvey; more copious extracts might have been made from the statutes and charters referred to, and the various records and chronicles examined; but this would have carried the work far beyond its purposed limits.

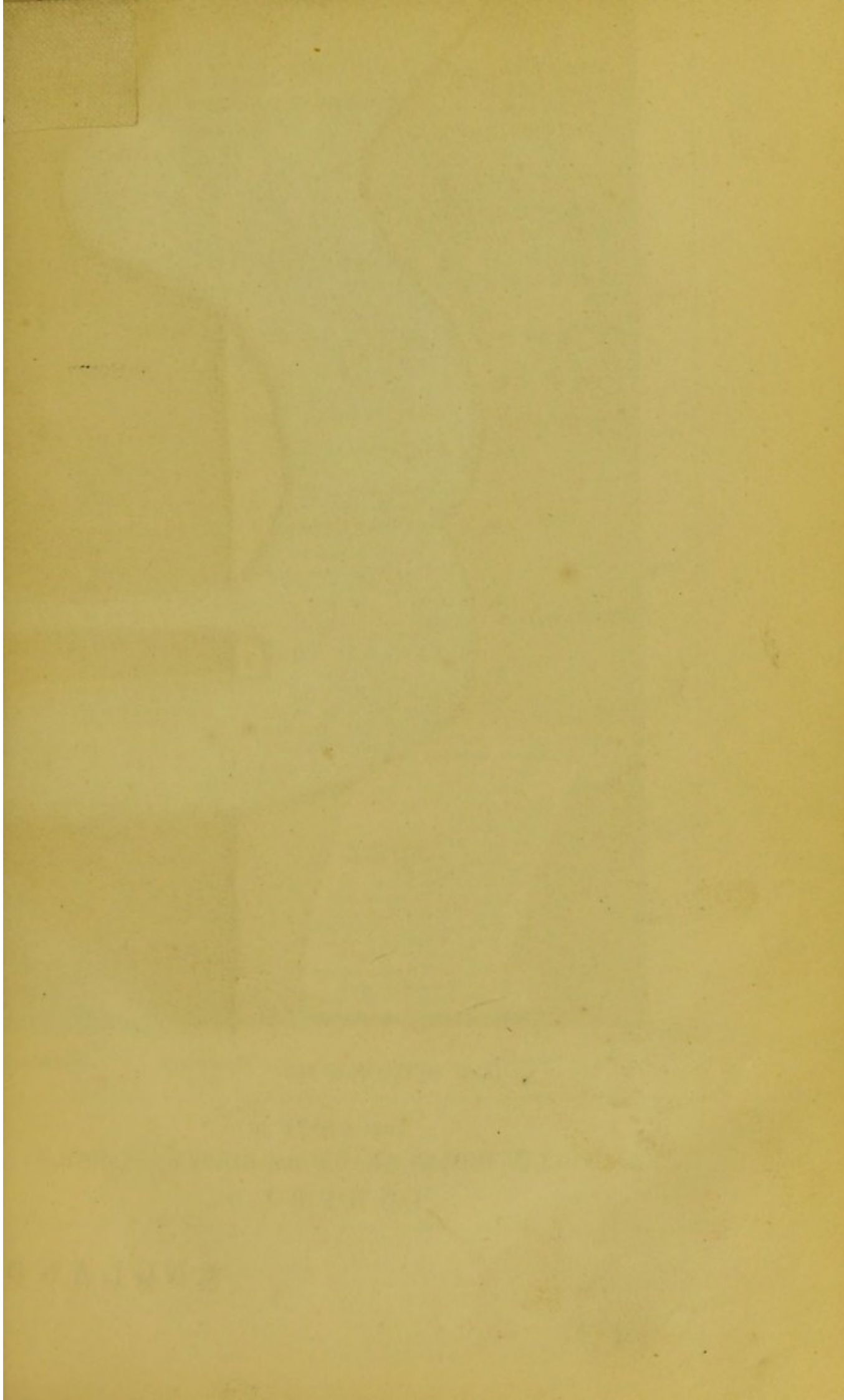
However imperfectly the object is accomplished—and no one is more aware of the defects and imperfections than the author himself—it at least enters on a subject which must ere long engage the attention of the whole profession, and which others may succeed in advancing. Some excuse

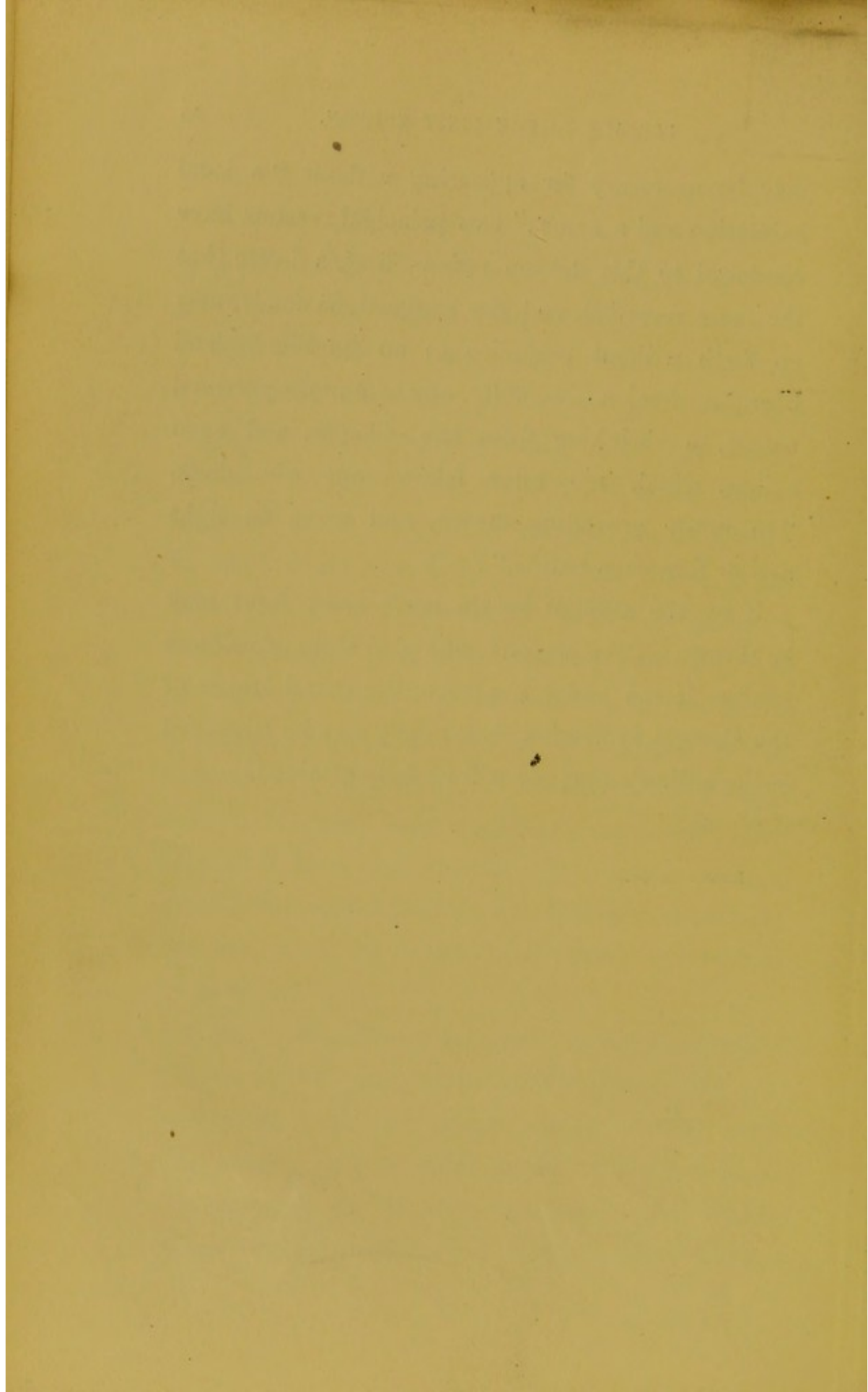
may be necessary for appearing without “a local habitation and a name;” two principal reasons have conduced to this determination—first, a desire that the facts recorded, and the suggestions made, may go forth without prejudice to an intelligent and liberal profession—secondly, one of a more personal nature, a shrinking from the obloquy, and even odium, which too often follows one who dares “to refute prevailing errors, and bring to light new or forgotten truths.”

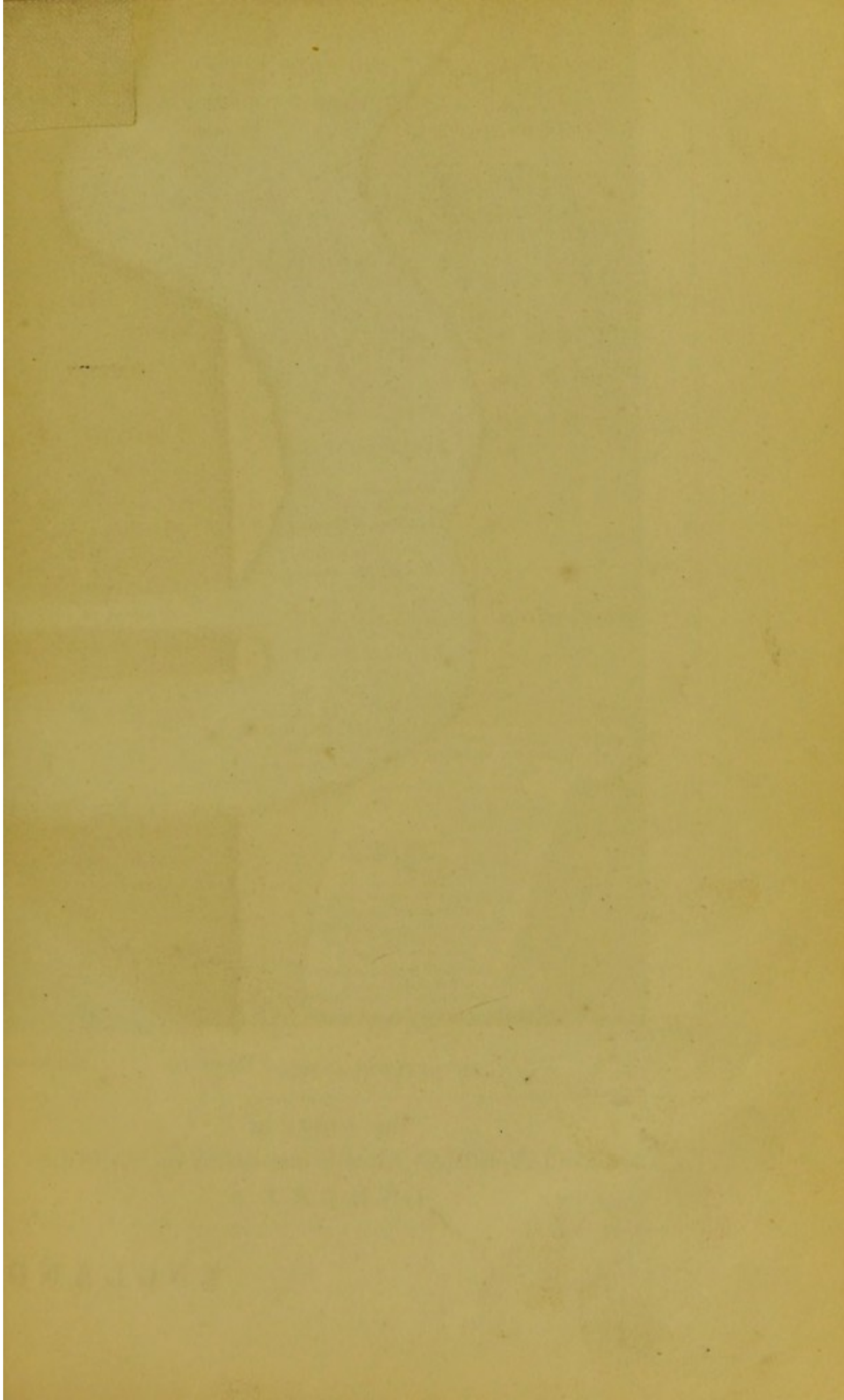
If by the attempt herein made some light may be thrown on the present entangled state of medical affairs—if the social condition, the moral status of the Medical Profession shall in any way be advanced—the author’s purpose will be fully attained.

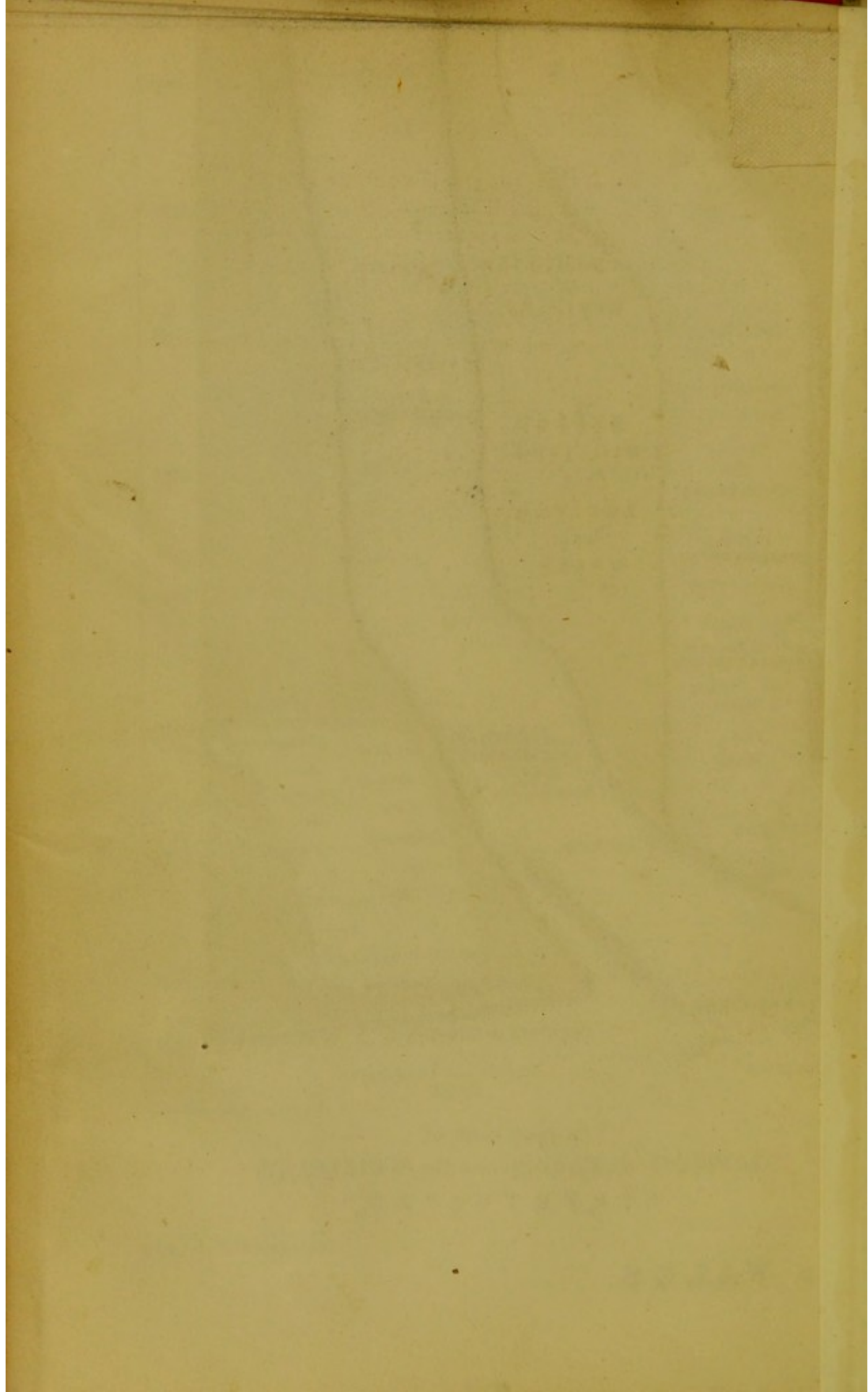
APRIL, 1858.











EXPLANATORY READING
OF THE
CHRONOLOGICAL CHARTS.

(*BLUE*) denotes the origin of true medicine from the earliest times, commencing in the midst of (Pagan) ignorance and superstition, pursuing its course in narrow streams throughout the Jewish, Assyrian, Egyptian and Greek nations, whereby darkness, fable and superstition gradually yield to the records of experience. Reason and experience combine (about 400 B.C.) to the exclusion of superstition and the establishment of medicine by HIPPOCRATES. Therapeutics founded on this basis are divided into Dietetics, Pharmaceutics and Chirurgics in the times of Herophilus and Erasistratus in contradistinction to the superstitious rites and ceremonies of the Asclepiadæ or (Pagan) Priest-physicians. True Medicine preserves its Unity in one undivided stream throughout the Grecian, Roman, Arabic and Revival schools to the time of HARVEY, who represented this Unity in the College of Physicians in England. After his death Dietetics are excluded, in proportion as Pharmaceutics are magnified, by the invasion of Apothecaries—supported by Radcliffe and his party in the College of Physicians; Chirurgics also are expelled by the bye-law “*Antequam quispiam,*” &c.

See The reverses in the fate of surgery as connected with the College of Physicians explained by the scroll on the left.

(*GREY*) denotes the invasion of Medicine by Priests and Monks in the seventh century, or its *first* great corruption. Light and Truth being extinguished, Reason and Experience banished, the Nestorians and Jews escape to the Arabic schools, where they become the first

physicians and chief professors up to the time of Avicenna. Ignorance and superstition re-established through barbaric irruptions and Papal edicts. (See margin for events from Council of Carthage, A.D. 393, to fall of Alexandria, A.D. 640.) Priest-Physicians (Papal) usurp the whole practice of medicine during the four following centuries, their cures effected by relics and miracles—chiefly *within* their respective monasteries, and at last restricted to them by command of Popes Benedict IX and Urban II; this failing, the first compulsory division ensued, which was effected by Romish synods and councils in the 12th and 13th centuries, whereby internal diseases were assigned to inferior clergy—operations and external diseases to Barbers, Smiths, &c.

In ENGLAND control of "Fysyk" is transmitted successively to Universities, Privy Council (1454), Bishops (1511), College of Physicians (1518), which is alternately subjected to various powers and privileges or to restrictions, as the unity of the Grecian, Roman, Arabic and Revival schools prevailed on the one side, or the divisions and degradations of the Priest, the Barber and the Apothecary on the other.

In IRELAND and SCOTLAND "Fysyk" pursues a like course from Priests and Monks to Universities, and subsequently to Royal Colleges of Physicians.

(RED) denotes the invasion of Medicine by Barbers in the 12th and 13th centuries, or its *second* great corruption.

In ENGLAND "Surgerie" is assigned successively to the Barbers' Company (1461), Barber-Surgeons (1540), Corporation of Surgeons, (1745), and Royal College of Surgeons (1800), by which the *division* of the Priest and the Barber is *perpetuated*, although the *alliance* of either with his respective branch is *ignored*.

In IRELAND and SCOTLAND the distinctive character of this alliance is represented.

In CIVILISED STATES GENERALLY the *division*, as well as the *corruption*, is increasingly ignored.

(YELLOW) denotes the origin of the Pharmacopolites' vocation in the time of Galen, and the various denominations of those who previously traded in drugs. This office is preserved distinct throughout ancient, mediæval and modern times IN CIVILISED

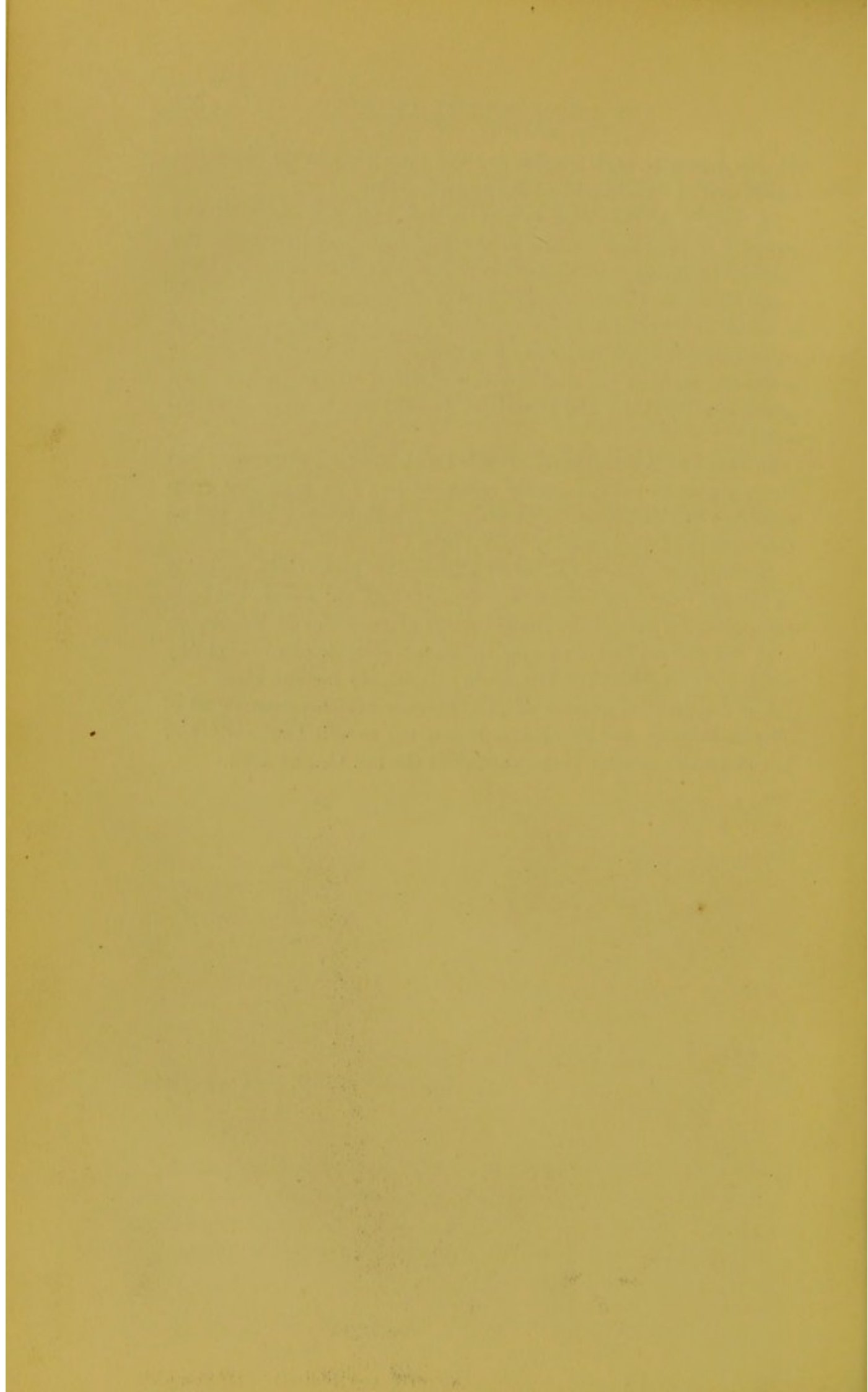
STATES generally, their number for the most part being about one fourth that of Physicians and Surgeons together.

In ENGLAND the office is transmitted from the Speciarii and Epicieris of Italy and France to the Pepperers and Spicerers—the Grocers' Company (1345)—the Grocer-Apothecaries' Company (1607)—and the Society of Pharmacopolites or Apothecaries (1616). Their invasion of Physic (or the Physicians' Office) constitutes the *third* great corruption of medicine, commences in the seventeenth, is continued through the eighteenth, and allied by law in the nineteenth century (1815) and is without parallel in the whole civilised world.

In IRELAND Apothecaries are allied with Barber-Chirurgeons and Periwig-makers (1687, probably much earlier), but, separated from these, are established as Corporation of Apothecaries (1745), and as Corporation of Apothecaries' Hall (1791).

In SCOTLAND they are allied with Barber-Surgeons (1657, probably as early as 1505), separated from Barbers (1722), but remain one body corporate with Surgeons—Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh—to the present day, although the duties of their office are chiefly assigned to Chemists and Druggists without any incorporation.

The comparative number of practitioners in either department of Physic, Surgery, and Pharmacy, is denoted as well by the width of the respective streams as the number at the last Census, 1851.



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CORRUPTIONS AND DIVISIONS OF MEDICINE.

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CORRUPTIONS AND DIVISIONS OF MEDICINE.

THEIR REMEDY.

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(For contents, see Table No. 1, page 243).

*The Origin and History of the Three Great Divisions of the Medical Profession now existing in
England and Wales.*

FIRST GREAT CORRUPTION, AND CONSEQUENT DIVISION.

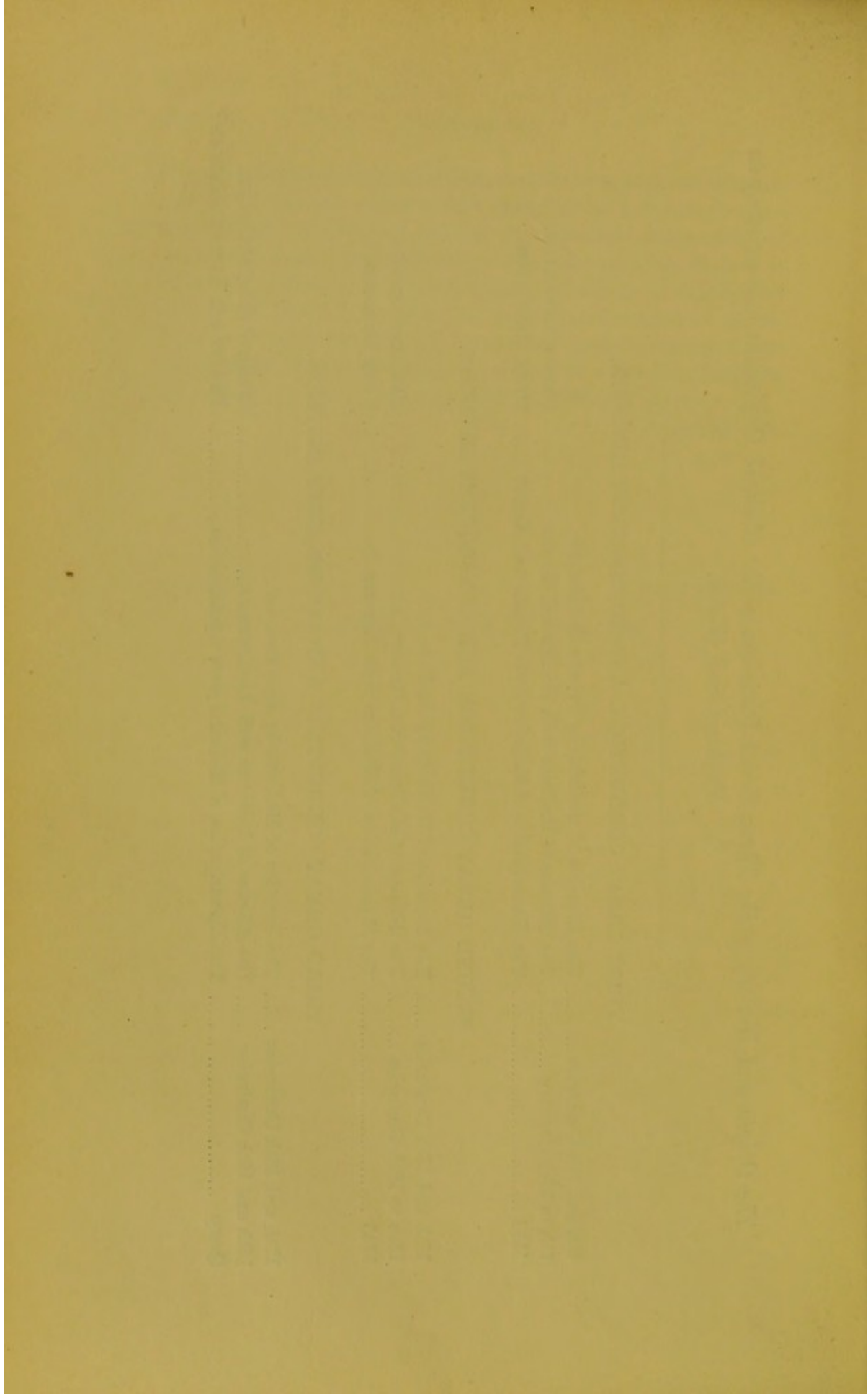
6th and 7th Centuries The *Invasion of Medicine by Priests and Monks* :
7th to 16th Century The *Alliance of Medicine with Priests and Monks* : PRIEST-PHYSICIAN.
1518 The *Emancipation of Medicine from Priests and Monks* PURE PHYSICIAN.

SECOND GREAT CORRUPTION AND CONSEQUENT DIVISION.

12th and 13th Centuries The *Invasion of Medicine by Barbers, &c.* :
13th to 18th Centuries The *Alliance of Medicine with Barbers, &c.* BARBER-SURGEON.
1745 The *Emancipation of Medicine from Barbers, &c.* PURE SURGEON.

THIRD GREAT CORRUPTION AND CONSEQUENT DIVISION.

17th and 18th Centuries The *Invasion of Medicine by Apothecaries* :
18th and 19th Centuries The *Alliance of Medicine with Apothecaries* APOTHECARY-PHYSICIAN.
Query The *Emancipation of Medicine from Apothecaries* PURITY and UNITY COMBINED ?



THE
UNITY OF MEDICINE:
ITS
CORRUPTIONS AND DIVISIONS.

THEIR CAUSES.

“Interest tandem scire qui qualesque viri medicinam coluerint, mutaverint, auxerint.”—J. C. G. ACKERMANN, *Inst. Hist. Med.*

NUMEROUS are the schools for obtaining a sound education in the medical profession in this the nineteenth century; many and eminent the individuals emanating from these various sources; earnest and incessant their efforts to cultivate and advance one or more branches of that tree of knowledge all would fain adorn; yet, as a *community*—as a *profession*—the truth cannot be hidden, we are a disunited querulous body, split into factions warring against each other, and have hence become in many respects a degenerate hybrid race.

In no given space of time have so great advances been made in every department of medicine as

during the last forty years; yet has there been no corresponding union and elevation of medical practitioners, but rather the reverse. Whence then arises this anomaly? what are its causes, its effects, and its remedy? This, although a bold and, some may deem, a rash inquiry, is one I would confidently trust, in some measure at least, to answer; and whilst year after year, bills are advanced from different sections and authorities of the profession, having for their chief and general object the production of a uniformity in medical education and qualification, I would urge the necessity of some other very necessary reform, ere the members of that one profession can assume a just position as regards the public or each other.

Many years of careful observation and reflection have given ample proof that, although this uniformity of education and qualification is good and essential, and though the proposal I would make will doubtless, by the invasion of existing interests, meet an opposition proportioned to the interests invaded, yet is it with a deep and increasing conviction I assert, that a radical change must also be effected in the MODE OF PRACTICE AND REMUNERATION ere the desired aim of unity and elevation can ever be attained. Here is the true barrier to our advancement. Such dangers and difficulties surround the consideration of this question from within and from without—from the profession and the public—

as are too often only productive of despondency and despair ; but could the dormant energies of the profession be awakened, could their conjoined efforts be directed in the right channel, a happier issue might be expected, and a success unequalled follow.

Firmly impressed with the truth of these statements, I would address the great mass of the medical profession, now—but not heretofore—the well-educated, efficient *attendants in ordinary* on all classes of society, whether under the name of physician, surgeon, or general practitioner, with an earnest desire that the comments made may bear such weight only as the force of truth and justice shall claim for them.

I may briefly answer the inquiry before us—as to the present anomalous state of the profession—by affirming that which I would prove in the sequel, viz., that this position has arisen from the corruptions and divisions in that body which should ever have existed as one harmonious whole ; that their effects have been a comparative elevation of one by the degrading alliance of another section of the profession, with all the petty strivings, despicable jealousies, and moral delinquencies thence ensuing ; and that the only efficient remedy is a re-union of the divided parts of medicine, and a separation of all that is abnormally united to it.

In following out these several heads, I would earnestly seek to avoid all cause of offence to any

section of the profession or individual member connected with it; yet would I, at the same time, fully and fearlessly avow the truth as far as I may be able.

As a preliminary to the more immediate and important part of this paper, viz., the connection of existing institutions with the present mode of practice and remuneration throughout Great Britain and Ireland, it will be well to take a summary view of medicine in its entirety, from the earliest ages, in order to establish two propositions, marking carefully *the dates and the causes* of those corruptions and divisions which have been, even to the present day, so injurious to the public, and so degrading to the profession.

These propositions are,—

1st. That the office of the physician is, “*to practise and exercise the science of physic, in*” either or “*all and every his members and parts,*”* *not excluding surgery.*

2nd. That this office—especially in all its fulness and unity—is distinct from, and incompatible with, *the trading of the apothecary or the scientific labours of the pharmaceutical chemist.*

In order clearly to discern when and wherefore our present divisions have arisen, each of these propositions may be briefly considered at three several epochs:—

* See 32 Henry VIII, chap. 40. Appendix, p. 17 a.

1st. Among the ancients; or in times prior to the seventh century of the Christian era.

2nd. In the middle ages; or from the seventh to the sixteenth century.

3rd. In modern times; or in times subsequent to that period in which arose the dense clouds of darkness that more or less obscure to the present day all that is pure, good, or true.

Each of these propositions, although requiring only a general consideration throughout ancient and mediæval times, will severally claim a distinct and special application to either of the three divisions of the United Kingdom in modern ages, depicting more fully the course of the corruptions and divisions of medicine in England and Wales, and subsequently viewing their distinctive character in Ireland and Scotland.

The former proposition, considered during the first period of time, needs but an affirmation: it is acknowledged by all, as regards THE OFFICE OF THE PHYSICIAN AMONG THE ANCIENTS.

History, sacred as well as profane, attests the duties attaching to him who exercised that office. The Old Testament exhibits the ancient physician, especially in the exercise of surgery, amongst the Jewish nation: so also ere medicine had assumed the name of a science, in the streets of Babylon, in and around the temples of Serapis in Egypt, of Æsculapius in Greece—columns and tablets recorded not

only the names and diseases of those who had resorted thither for relief, but also the remedies by which they were restored to health. Thus was conveyed to future ages the experience of the past, and by this rude but valued mode of clinical instruction was accumulated a mass of practical medicine, without any exclusion of external wounds, injuries, or diseases, which, indeed, formed the chief if not the only part of medicine known at that remote period.

From the time of Æsculapius—whose sons, Podalirius and Machaon, earned more honour for surgery than any other branch of medicine at the Trojan war—to that of Hippocrates, such was the practice of medicine; each sufferer, at the temple of his offended deity, sought at the hands of his priest-physician that relief which, though enveloped in much of superstitious rites and ceremonies, combined therewith the use of natural means, and was denied to none. Herein was laid the foundation of the healing art, till, in the seventeenth generation, direct from Æsculapius, arose the master-mind of Hippocrates, who, adding reason to the results of experience, earned for himself the name of the “Father of Medicine,” and for medicine the rank of a science, distinct from, though ever associated with, philosophy.*

* Pythagoras had, by connecting medicine with the schools of philosophy two centuries previously, loosened its attachment to the priestly superstitions, and thereby paved the way for Hippocrates.

The writings of Hippocrates, Celsus, Galen, Orisbasius, Aëtius, Paulus Ægineta, are sufficient authority amongst the ancients to connect the practice of surgery with the physician's office.* Their works are too well known to require any detailed extracts. Those of Paulus, who closes the list of ancient authors on medicine, may alone—as now published by the Sydenham Society, with the learned commentary of Dr. Adams—suffice for the purpose; but to show the rules laid down by Hippocrates for forming a physician, the following quotation may be excused:

“ Life is so short, and the art we exercise so long, that the study of it should be begun in the earliest youth. Have you a pupil you would educate for the practice of medicine, examine leisurely whether his genius be adapted to the art. Has he received from nature an exquisite discernment, a sound judgment, a character in which mildness and firmness are combined, the love of labour, and an inclination to what is amiable and praiseworthy, you will entertain well-founded hopes. Does he suffer with the sufferings of others; does he naturally feel the tenderest commiseration for the woes incident to his fellow-mortals: you will reasonably infer that he will be passionately devoted to an art that will instruct him in what manner to afford them relief.

* For the names of others who associated the practice of surgery with the physician's office, from the time of Hippocrates to that of Harvey, see Chart.

“Accustom him early to the manual operations of Surgery, except those of lithotomy,* which should be left to operators by profession. Lead him in order through the whole circle of the sciences. Let natural philosophy show him the influence of climate on the human body; and when, to extend his knowledge and experience, he shall travel through different countries and cities, counsel him carefully to observe the situation of places, the difference of the air, the waters which are drunk, and the eatables which are the principal food of the inhabitants; in a word, all the causes that may occasion disorder in the animal economy.

“You shall also show him in the mean time, by what preceding signs maladies may be known, by what regimen they may be avoided, and by what remedies cured.

“When he shall be instructed in your doctrines, which shall be clearly explained in stated conferences, and which you shall reduce to short maxims proper to be impressed on the memory, it will be necessary to inform him that experience alone is

* This exception, in the then imperfect state of the science of Anatomy, is sufficient to have established his character as having added reason to experience; knowing how much danger was incurred by such an operation, but having no fixed rules to escape it, he rather left it to those who depended on experience alone as their guide. After the foundation of the school of Alexandria, and the introduction of human dissections by Herophilus and Erasistratus, the operation of lithotomy as well as all others, were gradually included in the physician's office as reason justified their adoption.

less dangerous than theory destitute of experience; that it is time to apply general principles to particular cases, which, incessantly varying, have frequently misled physicians by deceitful resemblances; that it is not in the dust of the school, nor in the works of philosophers, that we can learn the art of interrogating nature, and the still more difficult art of waiting her answer. With nature he is yet unacquainted; he has hitherto only noticed her in full vigour, and arriving at the end at which she aims without meeting with obstacles. You shall conduct him to those abodes of pain, where, already veiled with the shades of death, exposed to the violent attacks of the enemy, falling, and rising only to sink again, she displays to the attentive eye her wants and her resources.

“The disciple, while he witnesses this terrible combat, shall observe you watch and seize the instant which may decide the victory, and save the life of the patient. If for some moments you quit the field of battle, you shall direct him to remain there, to observe everything, and afterwards render to you an account, both of the changes which have taken place during your absence, and of the remedies which he judges to be requisite.

“It is by obliging him to be frequently present at these terrible but instructive scenes, that you shall initiate him, as much as possible, into the most profound secrets of nature and art. But this is not

yet enough : when, for a small salary, you shall have adopted him for your disciple, he shall swear to preserve in his manners and practice an incorruptible purity, and strictly fulfil his oath. Without the virtues requisite to his profession he can never discharge its duties. What are these virtues? I scarcely except any one, since its functions are so honorable that they require almost all the noblest qualities of the mind and heart; and, in fact, what head of a family, were he not assured of his discretion and integrity, would not fear to call him in, lest he should introduce a spy into his house, and a seducer to his wife and daughters? What dependence can be placed on his humanity if he only accost his patients with an offensive gaiety, or a disgusting petulance? On his firmness, if, by a servile adulation, he too much fears their displeasure, and gives way to their caprices? On his prudence, if, continually occupied with his dress, arrayed in magnificent habits, and perfumed with essences, he is seen to stroll from city to city, to pronounce, in honour of his art, harangues filled with quotations from the poets? What reliance can be placed on his understanding, if, besides that general justice which the man of sense and integrity observes towards every one, he does not possess that which the sage exercises towards himself, and which teaches him that, in the midst of the greatest knowledge, there is more of want than of abundance? And,

lastly, what confidence can be reposed in the sincerity of his intentions if he be under the dominion of a foolish pride, and that mean envy which was never the portion of superior genius ; if, sacrificing every other consideration to the thirst of gain, he devote himself only to the service of the rich ; if, authorised by custom to stipulate his reward at the beginning of the malady, he is careful first to conclude his bargain, although the case of the patient becomes every moment more dangerous ?

“ These vices and defects especially characterise those ignorant and presumptuous men with whom Greece is filled, and who disgrace the most noble of the arts by trafficking in the life and death of men ; impostors the more dangerous as they are beyond the reach of the laws, and as they cannot be mortified even by ignominy.

“ Who, then, is the physician who is an honour to his profession ? He who has merited the public esteem by profound knowledge, long experience, consummate integrity, and an irreproachable life ; he who, esteeming all the wretched as equals, as all men are equals in the eyes of the Divine Being, eagerly hastens to their assistance at their call, without distinction of persons ; speaks to them with mildness, listens to them with attention, bears with their impatience, and inspires them with that confidence which is sometimes sufficient to restore them to life ; who, sensibly feeling for their sufferings, carefully

and assiduously studies the cause and progress of their complaint, is never disconcerted by unforeseen accidents, and holds it a duty, in case of necessity, to call in some of his brethren in the healing art to assist him with their advice; he, in fine, who, after having struggled with all his strength against the malady, is happy and modest in success, and may at least congratulate himself in case of failure, that he has been able to alleviate the pains of his patient, and administer to him consolation.

“Such is the philosophical physician whom Hippocrates compares to a god, without perceiving that he has delineated the portrait of himself.”*

From this high and original standard it will be our purpose to trace out the *compulsory* divisions which have since occurred, the authors of these divisions, the time and cause of their occurrence, and their influence, whether for good or evil.

That surgery was then an essential part of the physician's office cannot be doubted. If we examine the works of various ancient authors, but especially those selected, as being the highest acknowledged authorities, we shall find that medicine in all its fulness and unity is the theme of their writings. To each and every part was assigned a calm and careful consideration. No *means* were withheld, no *diseases* were excluded from the ancient physician's

* Barthelemy's (L'Abbé) 'Travels of Anarcharsis,' vol. vi, pp. 241 & seq.

care. That Hippocrates availed himself of all his powers, his whole works attest; whilst that he did not reject the means of cure, or the treatment of diseases, such as are now dissevered from the “pure” physician’s office, is abundantly proved in the following treatises:—‘On Injuries of the Head,’ ‘The Physician’s Establishment,’ ‘On Fractures,’ ‘Articulations,’ ‘Mochlicus,’ ‘Ulcers,’ ‘Fistulæ,’ and ‘Hæmorrhoids.’

The testimony of Celsus, in his eight books, ‘De Re Medica,’ is equally conclusive upon this point. The preface to Book I thus recounts the early and systematic arrangement of all the acknowledged means of cure comprised in the three divisions of his work:

“During this period”—the times of Herophilus and Erasistratus—“physic was divided into three parts; the first cured by diet, the second by medicines, the third by manual operations; the first they termed in Greek *διαιτητικη*, the second, *φαρμακευτικη*, and the third *χειρουργικη*.”

Having, in the first four books, considered Diets as a means of cure, he devotes alike two to Pharmaceutics, and two to Chirurgics, as successive means to the same end. In his preface to the second part, or fifth book, he says,* “Having gone through those disorders of the body which are principally relieved by diet, we must now proceed to

* Grieve’s translation.

that branch of physic which depends more upon medicines.* The ancient authors put great confidence in them; so did Erasistratus, and those who styled themselves empirics. Their efficacy was still more extolled by Herophilus and his followers, insomuch that they attempted to cure no distemper without them. They have wrote a good deal too concerning the virtues of medicines: such are the treatises of Zeno, or Andreas, or Apollonius, who was surnamed Mus. Not without reason Asclepiades, in a great measure, laid aside the use of them; and, because almost all medicines offend the stomach and afford bad juices, he chose to apply all his care to the management of the diet. But though this be most useful in most distempers, yet many disorders are incident to our bodies which cannot be totally removed without medicines. 'Tis fit to observe, in the first place, that all the branches of medicine are so connected together, that they cannot be entirely separated; but each derives the appellation from that which is made use of in it. And, therefore, as that which cures by diet sometimes employs medicines, so the other, which chiefly works by medicines, ought also to take in the diet, which is of great service in all disorders of the body."

* In this division are included wounds, ulcers, gangrenes, bites, and a long list of "external diseases proceeding from internal causes," as carbuncle, cancer, scrofula, furuncle, &c., all since rejected by the modern physician. See Book VI, chaps. xxvi—xxviii.

The relation of Dietetics and Pharmaceutics being thus defined, he proceeds, in his preface to the seventh book, to speak of the third acknowledged means of cure, or Chirurgics, in the following terms :

“ This does not, indeed, discard medicines and a proper regimen, but yet the principal part is accomplished by the hand. And the effect of this is the most evident of all the parts of medicine ; for as fortune contributes a good deal to the cure of distempers, and the same things are often salutary, often fruitless, it may be doubted whether the recovery be owing to physic or the constitution. In those diseases also in which we chiefly make use of medicines, although their success be pretty evident, nevertheless it is plain that health is both sought for by their means in vain, and often restored without them. As may be observed with regard to the eyes, which, after having long suffered from the applications of physicians, sometimes recover of themselves. But in surgery, it is manifest that the success, though it may be somewhat promoted by other means, is chiefly to be ascribed to this. Now this branch, though it be most ancient, yet has been more cultivated by Hippocrates, the father of all medicine, than by his predecessors ; afterwards being separated from the other parts, it began to have its peculiar professors, and received considerable improvements in Egypt, as well as elsewhere, principally from

Philoxenus, who has treated of this part fully and with great accuracy in several volumes.”

After naming other writers on surgery, and the necessary qualifications for a good operator, as regards age, &c., he adds—“Now, it may be asked, what peculiarly belongs to this branch? because surgeons assume to themselves the curing of many wounds and ulcers, which I have treated of elsewhere.* I can very well suppose the same person capable of performing all these; and since they are divided, I esteem him most whose skill is most extensive. For my part, I have left to this branch those cases in which *the physician* makes a wound where he does not find one; and those wounds and ulcers, in which I believe manual operations to be more useful than medicines; lastly, whatever relates to the bones.”

Thus has Celsus given indisputable proof that these several means of cure were equally a part of the physician's office; some selecting one or more of the above branches, as time, talent, or opportunity inclined them; some claiming especially to

* The word “Chirurgus” is used here and in one or two other places to denote the *special part* of the physician's office, to which he is then referring; but in the following passage, and throughout the seventh and eighth books on Chirurgics, as in the other six on Dietetics and Pharmaceutics, the *generic* term “Medicus” is constantly used. When speaking of *Diocles*, who invented an instrument for extracting arrows from the wounds thereby inflicted, he says—“Quem inter priscos *maximosque medicos* fuisse, jam posui.”—Book vii, sec. 5.

make use of *pharmaceutics*, as Erasistratus and Herophilus; some of *dietetics*, as Asclepiades; some of *chirurgics*, as Philoxenus and Gorgias. Yet were all physicians; from none was the honoured name withheld, and on none was a prescribed limit enjoined; the same generic term attached to him who used "*chirurgics*," as well as any other of the acknowledged means of cure founded on reason and experience, in opposition to the superstitious practices from which medicine had then but recently emerged.*

Galen also extends, rather than contracts, the means of cure and amount of disease worthy the physician's care. He strongly condemns even the distinctions made by the great sects into which the profession was divided in ancient times—of empirics, dogmatics, methodics, and others—as leading to interminable hypotheses and disputes, each individual supporting his own theory to the disparagement of others, and the great injury of medicine in general.

Further extracts would be as irksome as unnecessary—Scribonius Largus, Oribasius, Aëtius, Paulus Ægineta, and all other ancient writers, testify to the same effect. It may be questioned how much of originality, or how much of compilation only, was due to each of these later authorities; yet no difference can exist as to the one object and the one title pertaining to all, though the object may have

* The time of Herophilus and Erasistratus.

been attained by a variety of means. Not only writers on medicine prove the name of physician to have attached to him who rightly “exercised the science of physic in all and every its members and parts;” but the records of philosophers, historians, and legislators equally proclaim the fact.*

Thus, we find throughout every successive age, the opinion of Celsus has been confirmed as regards the authorities in ancient medicine. The highest honours have been universally accorded to him whose skill was the most extensive—“qui quamplurimum percipit,”—who, having selected from the widest field the means best suited to the end in view—“sanitatem ægris medicina promittit,”—could wield either alone, each in succession or all conjointly, so as best to attain that end. Yet was not the name of physician denied to him of a more limited range;† it was assigned to all who were well qualified to treat

* See Peyrilhe and Dujardin, *Hist. de la Chirurgie*.

† “Etenim quasi per gradus quosdam medicina laborantibus succurrit nam primum cibus, ratione, aptoque tempore datus, tentat prodesse languentibus. Deinde, si ad hos non responderit curatio, ad medicamentorum decurrit vim. Potentiora enim hæc et efficaciora, quam cibi. Post ubi ne ad hæc quidem cedunt difficultates adversæ valetudinis, tunc coacta ad sectionem, vel ultimo ad ustionem devenit.

* * * * *

“Quosdam enim a perverso proposito nemo potest movere, et sane omnibus permisit liberum arbitrium magnitudo professionis. Multos itaque animadvertimus, unius partis sanandi scientia, medici plenum nomen consecutos.”—SCRIBONIUS LARGUS, *De Compos. Med., Præf.*

disease or injury, by any of the acknowledged means of cure, whether in the *body* or its *members*, whether *internally* or *externally*, an inch *above* or *below* Poupart's ligament, the *inside* or the *outside* of the abdomen, the *lining* or the *covering* of the ribs, the *cranium*, or the *brain* that it contained, the circulating organ in its *fountain* or its *streams*, the *end*, the *middle*, or the *beginning* of the alimentary canal, whose function to excrete the noxious or the worthless, as also to absorb the good, may well afford a useful hint how to improve the strength and purity of bodies corporate as well as human.*

In entering on the second epoch, and considering THE PHYSICIAN'S OFFICE DURING THE MIDDLE AGES, we for the first time discern the commencement of that system which assigned *either, but not both, of the above closely connected parts* to distinct and separate individuals; for the one claiming the highest honours and emolument, to the other attaching the grossest degradation and disgrace, and thereby effecting the first invidious and compulsory division in the physician's office.

It is not our purpose to enter on the multiplied causes of internal corruption and external violence

* "I have often heard my truly noble and most dear nephew, Sir Edmund Bacon, say, out of his exquisite contemplations and philosophical practice, that nature surely, if she be well studied, is the best *moralist* and hath much good counsel hidden in her bosom."
—WOTTON *on Education*.

that contributed to the gradual extinction of learning throughout that portion of the world which had hitherto been its favoured abode. The period of its occurrence, however, if not much of its cause, may be associated with the canon of the council held at Carthage in the year 398, forbidding the study of secular books to Bishops; followed by the celebrated edict of Justinian, A.D. 529, which closed the schools of Athens; and completed by the invasion of Egypt under Amrou, the fall of Alexandria, and destruction of its famous library, in the year 640; so that it has been truly said—"in somewhat more than a century after the expulsion of philosophy from Europe by a Christian legislator, the schools of Africa were closed in their turn by the arms of an unlettered Mahometan."

What then was the office of a physician in the middle ages, or during the succeeding eight or nine centuries, when light and learning gave place to darkness and superstition, when truth and honesty were superseded by falsehood and imposture, when reason and experience succumbed to barbarism and bigotry?

In the midst of conflicts such as these, we can thankfully reflect, that the streams of light and truth, which were gradually driven from their former resting-place, found shelter and even cultivation among the resistless Saracenic hordes, who at this period swept the shores of the Mediterranean on its

southern coast from east to west, and afterwards, locating themselves in Spain, partially surrounded that portion of Europe which had been for so many ages the cradle of science and literature, but now, alas ! relapsed into its pristine state of ignorance and superstition. One spot alone within these limits, where darkness had for a while reigned, early emitted some rays of light. It was at Salernum, in the eighth and ninth centuries, we discern the first symptoms of reaction.

It will, therefore, be well to glance at the physician's office during this period in the three several situations alluded to ; viz.—

1st. In the Arabic or Saracenic schools.

2nd. In the Revival or Arabist schools, commencing with Salernum.

3rd. In those dark and benighted regions where Romish Priests and Monks had usurped the office of physician.*

In the former locality, we perceive that as ignorance and bigotry within had combined with barbaric irruptions from without, to extinguish all previous sources of light and truth, so, at the same time, opposite causes were contributing to foster in these regions those records of the past which might otherwise have perished.

The early establishment of schools of medicine by

* See Chart.

the Nestorians* at Dschondisabour,† the asylum here given to those savans who were driven from the different schools of Europe, and at a later period the free intercourse of nations, that mighty source of advancement to science and literature promoted by the crusades, served, with other causes, to feed the instinctive love of health and life which all nations and all ages have exhibited, and which had induced the Arabs, at the destruction of the Alexandrian library, as well as the monks in the recesses of their cloisters, to preserve some relics of the ancient authors on medicine. With such materials for a foundation, we shall find that medicine, throughout this period, even with all its defects and hindrances, preserved its unity amongst the Arabs.

Their numerous schools and extensive libraries at Bagdad, Cordova, Toledo, and elsewhere, their early Syriac and Arabic translations or rather versions of the ancients, though often imperfect, and incorrect and marred by various prejudices,‡ produced names

* The Nestorians and the Jews were the first to familiarise the Arabs with the Greek authors, by their Syriac translations, and were also the first physicians to the Saracens. They continued to be their chief authorities to the time of Avicenna, who studied medicine under the Nestorian Abou-Sahel-Masichi.—See Sprengel, vol. ii, p. 267 and 306.

† The capital of Chorassan, founded by Sapor, King of Persia.

‡ The prohibition of dissections, and the seclusion of females, were two chief impediments to the cultivation of anatomy and surgery, and continue to be so, even at the present day, throughout the Mahometan States.—See Oppenheim on "Medicine in Turkey," 'Pharm. Journal,' vol. iv, p. 328.

that have continued to the present day as the acknowledged authorities on medicine during these times.

Those of Rhases, Haly-Abbas, Avicenna, Averrhoes, Albucasis, and others, are but so many testimonies, more or less, to the value of chirurgics, their connection with the physician's office, and the high honour attaching to those who used them as a means of cure.

The same valuable work of the Sydenham Society, before referred to, by its learned commentary, not only looks back through the ages preceding Paulus, but onward through the period we are now considering, and associates the above names and their followers with its practice; all of whom estimated the value of a remedy, in proportion to its efficacy in removing disease or suffering, by its judicious application to each especial case. The right use of one or the other constitutes alone the superiority of the means used, or the physician who used it, in spite of the prejudices existing in these Arabic schools.

IN SALERNUM, AND MONTE-CASINO, convents were established by the Benedictine monks, as early as the sixth century, where the care of the sick was enjoined as a work of piety, and their diseases were treated by means of prayers, relics, conjurations, &c., &c.; establishing here, as elsewhere, in these

Romish seminaries, a blind belief in the miraculous powers of priests and monks.

Salernum, however, obtained a better reputation as early as the eighth century, or even before. Some have asserted, that the professors, driven from Alexandria by the Arabs, A.D. 640, found refuge here; as those who, in the preceding century, were expelled from Athens, had fled to Dschondisabour.

There is also an ancient chronicle, quoted by Mazza, affirming that the founders of the school of Salernum derived their learning from the best possible sources, and that they consisted of a Jew, a Greek, a Saracen, and a Latin; who each taught medicine in their respective languages.* Be this as it may, we are without doubt that in the ninth century lectures were given and books written on medicine by Berthier—Abbé of the adjoining Convent of Monte-Casino—and others. These convents being gradually esteemed as sound schools of medicine, students, as well as sufferers of all kinds, resorted thither from distant parts. Towards the eleventh century, by translations from Arabic to Latin—of parts of Galen and other Greek and Arabic authors, science and the use of natural remedies gradually began—as in the temples of Æsculapius of old—to supplant bigotry and superstition. In the first year of the twelfth century, the physicians

* J. C. G. Ackermann, 'Inst. Hist. Med.' "Schola. Med. Salern.," s. 419.

of Salernum were consulted by Robert, son of William the Conqueror, of England; who, on his return from Palestine, disembarked there, in order to be cured of a wound he had received in the Holy Wars, and which had been badly treated* by his own attendants. Thus early our own country, as well as others, acknowledged the high authority in *chirurgics* of the physicians of Salernum. Shortly after this period, their estimation of the use of *dietetics* and *pharmaceutics* was exhibited—of the former, in the celebrated rhyming verses, entitled “Regimen Sanitatis Salerni,” attributed to John of Milan, and other monks of Salernum—of the latter, in the “Antidotaires” of Nicolaus, director of the same school; and thus, the three acknowledged means of cure, proclaimed as the physician’s armour in the times of Herophilus and Erasistratus, were re-established in the school of Salernum in the twelfth century.

Constantin the African added much to the reputation of these schools, even in the eleventh century, by his wonderful cures, his translations, and other writings, and by the many scholars he sent forth from thence. Romualdus and Ægidius, students of Salernum, are names honoured for their progress in the right direction: the former was consulted by William the Conqueror, of England, and by his son

* Sprengel, ‘Hist. de la Méd.’ trad. par A. J. L. Jourdan, tom. ii, p. 357.

William Rufus; the latter teaches us that the physicians of Salerno were obedient to the indications for treatment, whilst their own *interest* was the sole aim of ordinary monks at this period, instead of that pious zeal and benevolence which were their professed motives for having first assumed the physician's office.

The progress of medicine received, in the course of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, further assistance from the Ordinances of Roger, first King of Naples and Sicily, and subsequently from those of the Emperor, Frederick the Second, which may be well studied and copied, at the present day, for their wise, just, and judicious regulations, and as being the acknowledged foundation of all modern laws.

We have seen the high standard in morals, as well as in medicine, previously held up to us by Hippocrates; so at this similar epoch, when *for the second time* medicine was escaping from the trammels of bigotry and superstition, we may in a great measure discern the evils which then threatened, by the barriers opposed to them in the following legal enactments.

Roger, King of Sicily, sheltered his subjects from the impositions of charlatans, by restrictions such as had been previously instituted amongst the Arabs. He decreed that all those who practised medicine in his states should present themselves before the appointed authorities, said to have been the

physicians of Salernum, for permission to do so, and that whoever did not conform to his decree should be subjected to imprisonment, and confiscation of all his property (A.D. 1140). This law was the more necessary, as a multitude of ignorant monks, attracted by the love of gain, sought to enrich themselves by practising medicine throughout his dominions.

Frederick the Second, of Germany, grandson to Roger—to whom the states of Naples and Sicily were for a while subjected—added, in the following century, about A.D. 1230, many ordinances, tending more especially to prove the high reputation of the school of Salernum. He not only confirmed the previous enactments, but laid down a distinct course of preliminary and professional education, of examination, the form of admission, and laws for the subsequent control—as well as protection—of physicians practising in the kingdom of Naples. By these laws, no one was allowed to enter on the study of medicine, unless he had given up three years at least to logic; after which, five consecutive years were to be devoted to medicine “*and at the same time surgery, which forms a part of medicine*”;* and finally, one year to the practice of medicine under an expe-

* This declaration of the connection of surgery with the physician's office is the more important, being *coeval with*, and *opposed to*, the edicts of the Romish church, which separated surgery from the PRIEST-physician, as will be presently shown.

rienced physician. Having conformed to this curriculum, and being provided with certificates as to birth, age, &c., he was permitted to present himself for examination at the Medical College of Salernum.

This examination was conducted publicly in selections from the works of Hippocrates, Galen, and Avicenna; and, if passed satisfactorily, conferred on the candidate the title of Master—"Magister." He might also proceed to a further examination in selections from the works of Aristotle; and, if successful in this, he took the title of "Magister Artium et Physices." Thus, having obtained his diploma, his status was confirmed by Royal authority, and he was proclaimed a legally constituted physician, in which character he was obliged to swear to obey the rules of the society, to apprise the authorities if the apothecary adulterated medicines, and to treat the poor gratuitously. Then a book was put in his hand, a ring on his finger, his head was crowned with laurel, and he was dismissed with a kiss.

There were, besides the above, many wise regulations and statutes further defining the physician's office; and a tariff was fixed, whereby the great temptation to follow the monkish practices of extortion was opposed. Every physician was obliged to visit his patient twice in the day, and once in the night, if necessary; for which no more than a certain prescribed fee could be demanded.*

* Sprengel, tom. ii, p. 364.

The regulations respecting the apothecary were equally stringent, as will be seen in considering the second proposition.

Such was the commencement of legislation in medicine, at the dawn of our emergence from the dark ages, which laws were confirmed as late as 1365, by the Queen Joanna of Naples. The school of Salernum, having thus set the example, was, in the course of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, by the revolutions of states, and by the establishment of other schools, as that of Montpellier, Paris, Bologna, and Padua, gradually eclipsed, so that Petrarch declares it in his time to have lost its former celebrity.* It was in these revival schools, extending from Salernum in the eleventh to Padua in the sixteenth century, that the truths of the Grecian, Roman, and Arabic schools were preserved, and even conveyed to the College of Physicians of England, by Harvey, in the seventeenth century.†

It remains only to consider the last authority concerning medicine, or rather its corruptions, during the dark ages; viz., that of THE PRIESTS AND MONKS, who were almost exclusively the physicians of Europe. It is well known, that during this period the Jews practised medicine, by the aid of copies of the ancient authors, which they are said to have preserved and studied. They no doubt merited the

* "Fuisse Salerni medicinæ fontem fama est: sed nihil est quod non senio exarescat." Ibid., p. 366.

† See Chart.

patronage bestowed on them by some crowned heads, and other men of rank and influence who were bold enough to seek their aid, in spite of the Church's commands. Yet, were they for the most part subjected to persecutions—alas! too common—from these so-called Christians. By intriguing with Popes and Councils, it was enacted in the canon law that no Jew could be a physician, and formal excommunication was obtainable against those who sought their aid. These laws were stringently enforced against offenders, unless they were strong enough by their position to resist such anathemas and prohibitions. It may be gleaned, from various sources, that their principles and practice were of a far higher order than that of their rivals and persecutors; but, in common with all other sources of light and truth, the records of their practice were trampled under foot and destroyed, in order more surely to build up the authority of bigotry and superstition.

From about the seventh to the twelfth century, the priests and monks may be said to have held an undivided sway as physicians throughout Europe; and what is the testimony they afford concerning any division of the physician's office during this time? With them, as with all previous nations and ages, the "ars medendi" was one, and medicine preserved its unity even here as elsewhere.

Volumes might easily be filled with the recorded

miracles performed WITHIN *their monasteries and convents* on those cases of *external* wounds, injuries, and diseases which were so soon to be separated from the physician's care.

“In the eighth century the Romans cut out the tongue of Pope Leo the Third, and put out his eyes, and drove him from his see, and soon afterwards, God helping, he was able to see and speak, and again was Pope as he before was.”* In the eleventh century Pope Victor the Third, celebrated for his skill in music and medicine, wrote four books on the miraculous cures effected by St. Benedict alone, whose operations were thus performed. At the commencement of this century, the Emperor Henry the Second resorted to Monte-Casino to be cured of stone. During his sleep† St. Benedict appeared to him, performed the operation, placed the stone in his hand, and cicatrized the wound.‡ Such was, indeed, a most convenient mode of practice, as long as men's credulity was sufficient to believe themselves or others thus afflicted, and thus relieved; but hitherto their *senses*, as well as their *reason*, had been in servile subjection to authority. *Men believed not the one more than they exercised the other.*§

* ‘Anglo-Saxon Chronicle,’ Bohn's edition, p. 344.

† How similar such a mode of practice to that of the priests of Æsculapius of old, or to the more modern schools of mesmerists, with whom sleep, akin to dementia, is the only road to recovery.

‡ Sprengel, tom, ii, p. 355.

§ The doctrine of transubstantiation, established about this period,

Pettigrew records, in his 'Medical Superstitions,'* how completely priests and monks took possession of every portion of the human frame, external and internal; and how determined they were to refuse even the smallest part to any other's care. As long as men's eyes were blinded to their imposture, they could without danger of detection, confine the whole practice of medicine to themselves. Melton says, "The saints of the Romanists have usurped the place of the zodiacal constellations in their governance of the parts of man's body; and that for every limbe they have a saint. Thus, St. Otilia keepes the head instead of Aries. St. Blasius is appointed to governe the necke instead of Taurus. St. Lawrence keepes the backe and shoulders instead of Gemini, Cancer, and Leo. St. Erasmus rules the belly with the entrayles, in the place of Libra and Scorpius. In the stead of Sagittarius, Capricornus, Aquarius, and Pisces, the holy church of Rome hath elected St. Burgarde, St. Rochus, St. Quirinus, St. John, and many others, which governe the thighes, feet, shinnes, and knees."

"This supposed influence of the Romish saints is more minutely exhibited," according to Hone, "in two very old prints, from engravings on wood, in the collection of the British Museum. Right hand: the

is a relic of that blind submission of the *senses* as well as the reason to an infallible church.

* Page 36 et seq.

top joint of the thumb is dedicated to God, the second joint to the Virgin; the top joint of the fore finger to St. Barnabas, the second joint to St. John, the third to St. Paul; the top joint of the second finger to Simon Cleophas, the second joint to Tathideo, the third to Joseph:" and in like manner every remaining joint of the right hand, and also of the left, is assigned to the care of some such guardian power. He also gives a list of 38 particular and special diseases of all parts, external and internal, both of the body and its members, each appropriated to its respective saint.

Enough has been quoted to prove that the priests did not assign to others, as long as they themselves could safely retain, any parts or any diseases of the human frame. The gross ignorance of these times sufficiently accounts for the wide-spread influence of such practices over the nations of Europe subjected to their sway; but henceforward, with the first dawn of light, those subterfuges were resorted to, which caused the first great *compulsory* division in medicine.

Throughout the five centuries emphatically called the dark—in contradistinction to the three or four succeeding ones, more truly termed mediæval—when reason and experience were *wholly* discarded, and when the use of ordinary means was *completely* eclipsed by the miraculous powers of tombs and relics, of saints and martyrs, by holy water, charms, and amulets, we are not surprised to find that *each*

and every portion of the human frame—however diseased or afflicted—was assigned to the guardianship of different Romish saints. This was, indeed, the first great corruption and degradation of medicine—in its entirety—since its foundation by Hippocrates; but such a state could only continue whilst gross ignorance on the one hand gave full scope to lying imposture on the other. How then do we find an interruption given to this most profitable and exclusive practice of the priests and monks of the dark ages; who not only adopted a similar “modus operandi,” but assumed the same merit in case of success—or excuse in case of failure—as the priests of Æsculapius of old? If successful, the recoveries were ascribed to the miraculous power of the priest; if otherwise, the continuance of the disease, or death, was alike due to the sin of the sufferer, and designed either for his correction or punishment, as the issue of the case might determine.

We might easily conjecture (had not history preserved to us) the means whereby such a system would be gradually dispelled, and *the class of cases* that would first be renounced by such practitioners. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the various streams of light and truth that had penetrated the dark regions of superstition concentrated their power in the laws of Roger, and Frederick the Second, of Germany. To these enactments, encouraging the

culture of all parts of medicine,* we find as it were a cotemporaneous response in the synods and councils of the Romish Church, between the years 1131 and 1298.†

Having failed to confine their practice WITHIN the walls of their respective monasteries, as enjoined by the commands of Pope Benedict the Ninth, and Urban the Second, in the eleventh century,‡ these reiterated decrees were promulgated, which forbade the *prelates, archdeacons, and other superior clergy* to engage in the practice of any part of medicine; but to the *lower clergy*, whose ignorance and vice were at this time especially notorious, was reserved the right to practise medicine, and to engage in mundane sciences generally, *only excepting all surgical operations, and especially the use of the cautery or the knife.*

Thus it is made evident, that up to the twelfth century of the Christian era, the “*Ars Medendi*” was one;§ it was not in the Grecian, Roman, or Arabic Schools; in those of Athens or Alexandria; of Bagdad or Cordova; neither was it among the

* Antè, p. 27.

† Synod of Rheims	.	.	1131
Council of Montpellier	.	.	1162
———— Tours	.	.	1163
———— Paris	.	.	1212
———— Lateran	.	.	1139 and 1215.

Others in severer terms, in 1220, 1247, and 1298. Sprengel, tom. ii, p. 351.

‡ Ibid., p. 351.

§ Usque ad eum (Avicennam) omnes inveniuntur fuisse physici simul et chirurgi.—GUIDO DE CAULIACO, *Chir. Mag.*, cap. sing.

priest-physicians themselves during the dark ages *preceding* this time, that the first great *compulsory* division in medicine took place, by which the profession and the public have been taught that all those parts of the human frame which exhibit their disease or their integrity to the sight or touch, are to be discarded from the care of the *pure* physician. No, it was reserved for the struggle between light and darkness, to sift and separate from that office such cases and such means of cure as Hippocrates had taught: "It is the business of the physician to know" "things similar and things dissimilar; those connected with things most important, most easily known, and in anywise known; which are to be *seen, touched, and heard*; which are to be perceived in *the sight and the touch*, and the hearing, and the nose, and the tongue, and the understanding; which are to be known by all the means we know other things."* That branch of medicine which Celsus had affirmed was "most evident in its effects; those cases in which *the physician* makes a wound where he does not find one; and those wounds and ulcers, in which he believed manual operation to be more useful than medicines; lastly, whatever relates to the bones."† These were the cases that, *in obedience to the Church's command*, were gradually separated, together with all external wounds, injuries and

* Adams' 'Hippocrates,' vol. ii, p. 474.

† Celsus, 'De Re Medica,' Book 7, Preface.

diseases, from the “pure” physician’s office; and by the same authority were consigned to THE BARBER, THE SMITH, AND THE MOUNTEBANK! And thus a *second great corruption*, and a *first compulsory division* of that office, were effected. We cannot be surprised if during this contest, and as long as the Church exercised any control over medicine, that the priest-physician, whose “*ιητροεῖον*” consisted of tombs and relics of saints and martyrs, whose “*armamentarium chirurgicum*” was dead men’s bones, crosses, and incantations, should shun for the exercise of his MIRACULOUS POWERS all the cases above referred to. The gross darkness which had so long covered Europe was, even now, anticipating the full revival of letters; and just in an equal proportion as these narrow streams of light penetrated the darkness, so *were all such cases as by the exercise of the senses could alone test the truth of their MIRACULOUS POWER,** one by one discarded from the merciful care of these would-be “pure” physicians, and their functions wisely reduced to that standard transferred from the hands of the Church in the sixteenth century.†

It may, however, even now be said by some, as it was then affirmed by the priests themselves, that they held their commission from a higher source than Hippocrates, Celsus, Galen, or Avicenna, that

* “Miracles are appeals to our senses.” See ‘Horne on the Scriptures,’ vol. i, p. 239.

† See Chart.

they were the followers of prophets, apostles, and of the "Great Physician" himself, that they were endowed with *like miraculous powers*, and went forth in obedience to *His* command to "heal the sick."* How far they followed such examples, or obeyed such precepts, a short inquiry will render evident.

Throughout the Old Testament we do not find that prophets refused their succour to such as suffered from external diseases. The prophet Isaiah gave his counsel to the good King Hezekiah: "Take a lump of figs, and they took and laid it on the boil, and he recovered."† Naaman, also, captain of the host of the King of Syria, repaired not to Elisha in vain to recover him of his leprosy; he responded, "Go and wash in Jordan seven times. Then went he down and dipped himself seven times in Jordan, and his flesh came again like to the flesh of a little child, and he was clean."‡ The patriarch Job, King Asa, the Philistines as recorded in the first book of Samuel, and many others, were alike the victims of external disease or injury; but they failed not to obtain the sought-for aid, whether in the exercise of natural or supernatural powers. Still less is the New Testament a warrant for the course pursued by these "apostolic successors." We find it not in the

* The arguments drawn from Scripture are in answer to those who, being the authors of this *compulsory* division in medicine, had rejected all human authority, and claimed to be the agents of a Divine commission.

† 2 Kings, xx, 7.

‡ 2 Kings, v, 14.

example of Him who “went about all the cities and villages healing *every* sickness and *every* disease among the people;”* neither is it contained in His commission to his Apostles to heal *all manner of* sickness, and *all manner of* disease.†

What moreover is the testimony therein contained respecting the especial cases presumptuously excluded by the Church’s commands from her priest-physician’s care?

Throughout the Gospels it is again and again repeated that the disciples of the “Great Physician” brought to Him *the halt, the withered, and the leper*, those that were *lame, blind, dumb, maimed*, and He healed them. Peter had mercy on “a certain man *lame* from his mother’s womb, whom they laid daily at the gate of the temple which is called Beautiful; he took him by the right hand, and lifted him up: and immediately *his feet and ankle-bones* received strength, and he, leaping up, stood and walked, and entered with them into the temple, walking and leaping, and praising God.”‡ Paul cried with a loud voice to him who was “*impotent in his feet, being a cripple from his mother’s womb*, who had never walked, ‘Stand upright on thy feet.’ And he leaped and walked.”§ The “beloved physician,” Luke, tells us of the high priest’s servant, whose right ear was cut off, how that Jesus “touched his ear, and healed

* Matthew ix, 35.

† Acts iii, 7 and 8.

‡ Matthew x, 1.

§ Acts xiv, 8.

him.”* So also of “the woman which had a spirit of infirmity eighteen years, and was bowed together, and could in no wise lift up herself,” Jesus “laid his hands on her; and immediately she was made straight.”

Such cases may be abundantly multiplied; but the above are sufficient evidence that the division and degradation of medicine effected by *the Church* at this time, were no more sanctioned by Divine than human authority. We might naturally suppose that cases such as these would *especially* have claimed the care of the boasted followers of Christ and his Apostles, as being the only sure and ready proof of MIRACULOUS POWER. But not so; with the dawn of intellectual light, these were the diseases *that, by an appeal to the senses*, would have proved too plainly the truth or falsehood of their assumed power; and therefore it was that this portion of medicine was renounced, which—together with all other branches—had yielded so plentiful a harvest in those more prosperous times of ignorance and credulity, when, not only the reason, but the *senses* were in servile submission to authority.

In this manner, all operative medicine first, and in the interval between the twelfth and sixteenth centuries, all *external* wounds, injuries and diseases, were separated from the “pure” physician’s office; whilst that portion of medicine—internal diseases—

* Luke xxii, 50.

whose existence or removal was less easily detected, remained during this period the exclusive province of the priest-physician.*

I would fain hope to have faithfully portrayed, not only the history, but, in some measure at least, *the true cause* of the first great schism in medicine. It remains to consider the more immediate subject of this paper; namely, THE PHYSICIAN'S OFFICE—thus divided—THROUGHOUT GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND IN MODERN TIMES; for which purpose it will be necessary to regard severally, that portion of it which attached to the priest and monk, even up to the time of its transfer to the Royal College of Physicians; and the other division which was consigned by the same authority to Barbers, Smiths, and others.

Whilst such evil powers and principles had combined to complete this division, better and more worthy means were at work to establish the revival of literature generally, and with it that of medicine.

The escape of the Greek savans with their long-hidden copies of the ancient authors from Constantinople, and elsewhere in the Eastern empire, prior to, and at the time of its capture by the Turks, A.D.

* In the fourteenth century miraculous cures continued to be as frequent as in the times preceding. Whilst men of science and learning (followers of Roger Bacon and Petrus d'Apono) were consigned to death as magicians and sorcerers, sainted physicians became so numerous, that some absurd laws were enacted whereby alone cures could be pronounced miraculous, and the physician canonised. See Sprengel, tom. ii, p. 428.

1453, contributed with other causes to effect this end. The ready shelter and encouragement given to these fugitives, especially by the great Florentine patrons of learning, the De Medicis, occurring simultaneously with the invention of printing, served to confirm and perpetuate the success of these Revival schools, commencing with Salernum. Florence may, indeed, be called the birthplace of that restoration which had hitherto existed but in embryo.

From hence emanated those great floods of intellectual light and learning that were destined more or less to illumine the whole world with increasing splendour, to the present day; and here it was that Dr. Linacre, the founder of the College of Physicians, repaired to satiate his thirst for knowledge, and draw from the originals themselves those truths which had hitherto chiefly descended through Syriac and Arabic translations.

Dr. Friend says, the "Statutes of the College of Salernum are very old, and very proper; they are, perhaps, the first example of this kind, and may, probably, have set the pattern to all others of the same nature."* True it is, that one or both of the two great evils† first set forth and legislated against in these statutes, found an echo more or less distinct, in all subsequent legislation, up to and

* 'History of Medicine,' vol. ii, p. 229.

† 'The Separation of Surgery *from*, and the Union of Pharmacy *with*, the Physician's Office.' See Antè, p. 28.

including the Charter granted to the College of Physicians, 1518.

Montpellier, Bologna, Paris, Padua, and several other states, as the advancing light reached them, severally protested against the divisions and corruptions here alluded to ; but, for the purpose in view, it will be especially necessary to examine the laws of this country as originally grafted on and confirming those of Salernum.

Prior to the year 1511, "the practice of physick and surgery was in a very vague and uncertain state, insomuch that when princes laboured under any distemper, their privy council* made choice of some to attend, out of the many pretenders to the science of physick. But King Henry the Eighth and his Parliament, in the third year of his reign, *restrained the practice of both*, by the following Act : ' To the King our Sovereign Lord, and to all the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present Parliament assembled : Forasmuch as the science and cunning of physick *and surgery* (to the perfect knowledge whereof be requisite both great learning and ripe experience) is daily, within this realm, exercised by a great multitude of ignorant persons, of whom the greater part have no manner of insight in the same, nor in any other kind of learning ; Some also can no letters on the book so far

* Rot. 32, Hen. VI. "De ministrando medicinas," &c. See Appendix, 8.

forth that common artificers, as smiths, weavers, and women, boldly and accustomedly take upon them great cures, and things of great difficulty, in the which they partly use sorcery and witchcraft, partly apply such medicines unto the disease, as be very noious, and nothing meet therefore, to the high displeasure of God, great infamy of the faculty, and the grievous hurt, damage and destruction of many of the king's liege people, most especially of *them that cannot discern the uncunning from the cunning*: Be it therefore to the surety and comfort of all manner of people, by the authority of this present parliament enacted, that no person within the city of London, nor within seven miles of the same, take upon him to exercise or occupy as a physician *or surgeon*, except he be first examined, approved, and admitted by the bishop of London, or by the dean of St. Paul's for the time being, calling to him or them four doctors of physick, *and for surgery*, other expert persons in that faculty; and for the first examination such as they shall think convenient, and afterwards alway four of them that have been so approved, upon the pain of forfeiture, for every month that they do occupy as physicians *or surgeons* not admitted or examined after the tenour of this act, of five pound, &c., &c.

“ ‘ 2. And over this, that no person out of the said city and precinct of seven miles of the same, except he have been (as is aforesaid approved in the same),

take upon him to exercise and occupy as a physician or surgeon in any diocese within this realm, but if he be first examined and approved by the bishop of the same diocese, or he being out of the diocese by his vicar-general: either of them calling to them such expert persons in the said faculties as their discretion shall think convenient, and giving their letters testimonials under their seal to him that they shall so approve, upon like pain to them that occupy contrary to this Act (as is above said), to be levied and employed after the form before expressed.

“ ‘ 3. Provided always, that this Act, nor anything therein contained, be prejudicial to the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, or either of them, or to any privileges granted to them.

“ ‘ Memorandum: That *surgeons* be comprised in this Act like as physicians, for like mischief of ignorant persons presuming to exercise surgery.’ ”*

By the above enactment the standard was first raised against the law “ that no one shall use the *mysterie of fysyk*, unless he hath studied it in some universitie ” (1420†), and also against the degradation of *surgery* engrafted on this country by its assignment to the Barbers’ Company,‡ 1461.

We may discern in this Act of Parliament for the control of medicine generally a confession of the

* 3 Henry VIII, c. 11. Appendix, 14.

† 9 Henry V. Appendix, 6.

‡ Ch. 1 Edw. IV. Appendix, 9.

wrong effected by the division, and even a feeble attempt at reparation made by its authors themselves, in drawing to the same tribunal for examination, and thus including *in one body* practitioners in all branches. Yet the prejudices engendered against *Chirurgics* by the before-mentioned causes were not so easily to be effaced, and the same practice as regards surgery was subsequently continued, and even provided for *by adverse legal enactments*, when the control of medicine in all its branches had passed from the care of the Church to that of the Royal College of Physicians.

The next step intended for the restoration and cultivation of medicine, was the foundation of this college in the year 1518.

The learning of Dr. Linacre, exhibited and fostered under his great patron Lorenzo de Medicis, soon acquired for him on his return to England the high reputation he enjoyed in the revival of literature generally, but especially by the establishment of medicine in this country. His influence, together with that of others, exerted through Cardinal Wolsey, obtained from their royal master the Charter, whereby medicine was rescued from the tender mercies of ecclesiastical protection, and confided to a corporate body of physicians, with every facility, as well as obligation, not only to adopt and enforce the previously recited Act (3 Hen. VIII, c. 11), but to exercise increased powers and privileges.

Thus it was enjoined on the college, as well by example as by precept, not only to suppress quackery, but to unite in one indissoluble body all of the faculty of medicine within seven miles of London. “*Quibus tum sui honoris, tum publicæ utilitatis nomine, curæ (ut speramus) erit, malitiosorum quorum meminimus inscientiam temeritatemque, tam exemplo gravitateque suis deterrere, quàm per leges nostras nuper editas ac per constitutiones per idem collegium condendas, punire; quæ quo facilius rite peragi possint, memoratis doctoribus Joan. Chambre, Thomæ Linacre, Ferdinando de Victoria, medicis nostris, Nicholao Halsewell, Johanni Francisco, et Rob. Yaxley, medicis, concessimus, quod ipsi, omnesque homines ejusdem facultatis de et in civitate prædicta, sint in re et nomine unum corpus** et communitas perpetua sive collegium perpetuum.”

The powers and privileges thus conferred on the College by charter were confirmed and further extended by several Acts of Parliament, especially those of 14 and 15 Hen. VIII, c. 5, and 32 Hen. VIII, c. 40,† which entrusted to it the future government of the profession of medicine in all its branches, as well throughout England as in London and its precincts. The clauses relating to surgery in the Act of 1511 were recognised by the

* In this body were included divers persons examined and admitted as practitioners in the art of Surgery between 1511 and 1518. See ‘Maitland’s London.’

† Appendix, 16, 17.

College in their charter, and further affiliated to them in the subsequent Acts of Parliament, especially that of 32 Hen. VIII, c. 40, which expresses its relation to medicine, and to the physician's office in the following manner :

“ And forasmuch as the science *of physic doth comprehend, include, and contain the knowledge of surgery* as a special member and part of the same ; therefore be it enacted, that any of the same company or fellowship of physicians, being able, chosen, and admitted by the said president and fellowship of physicians, may, from time to time, as well within the city of London as elsewhere within this realm, practise and exercise the said science of physic in all and every *his (sic)* members and parts, any act, statute, or provision made to the contrary notwithstanding.”

Thus is admitted by the charter, and its confirmatory Acts of Parliament, that which all foregoing authorities—excepting the Romish church—had made evident : viz., that chirurgics were an important part of the physician's office.

It has been, and, like other branches of medicine, ever will be, made an especial study, and chiefly exercised by some individuals, whose talent, taste, or opportunities have given them peculiar advantages or inclination for pursuing, extending, and perfecting it.

These, however, are exceptions. It is the har-

monious use of *all acknowledged means of cure* that should constitute the worth of the *ordinary family physician*, rather than the exaltation or rejection of any individual part of his office. In this manner *surgery* was combined and used with all other means by the most renowned physicians of antiquity. During the period of its transition from the Priest to the Barber—that is, between the twelfth and sixteenth centuries—we have seen the division testified against,* more or less, in the various schools of the more enlightened portions of Europe, commencing with those of Salernum in the twelfth up to and including that of the Royal College of Physicians of England in the sixteenth century.

If such is the history of Chirurgics as connected with the other branches of medicine since the time of Hippocrates, and such the cause of its separation and degradation during the interval referred to; we may now ask, in what manner, and for what reasons, has this division continued throughout modern times, so that not only the most eminent in that branch of medicine is denied the time-honoured name of physician, but, if possessed of a surgical diploma, he must abjure its use, (and until recently be disfranchised from the College of Surgeons) ere he

* The names of Roger, Roland, Brunus, Theodoricus, Guido de Cauliaco, Vesalius, and many others, suffer not the truth to perish, that “*diæta, potio, et chirurgia*” together constituted the physician’s armour. See Appendix, 25*a* to 25*l*.

can aspire to this spurious test of a "pure" physician.*

It is not surprising that men of the highest talent, education, and position should have shrunk from the disgusting and degrading fraternity who were, in the sixteenth century, for the most part practitioners in this branch of the physician's office; yet, if there had been moral courage equal to the talents of those who obtained the charter of the College of Physicians—if the translations of Galen effected by Linacre had been their guide—if the bright examples of antiquity above recorded rather than their mediæval predecessors, the priest-physicians, had been followed—if with the suppression of monasteries there had been an entire abolition of the corruptions and divisions of medicine originated in and so long fostered by them, then those powers and privileges would have been exercised over and extended to *all and every branch of medicine*, then should we have heard for three centuries within the college walls the voices of Hippocrates, Celsus, Galen, Paulus, and Avicenna, not in name only, but in all their fulness and purity. There would have been the depositary of *all* the weapons wherewith the battles of health and life

* The bye-law still exists, although its stringency is somewhat relaxed: "Antequàm quispiam in numerum permissorum admittatur, si fortè chirurgorum aut pharmacopolarum sodalitiò olim donatus fuerit, sodalitiì istius privilegiis omnibus renuncièt, nec non emancipationis suæ literas firmâ auctoritate comprobatas registrario proferat."

could have been fought against disease and death, so that every member of that *one body* might have selected any or all of the acknowledged means of cure, as talent or opportunity had enabled him to wield them. Better results might have indeed ensued if such had been the course; then would quackery have been supplanted, and unity re-established; we should never then have possessed those laws that disgrace our statute books, and degrade that "unum corpus" which the college was commissioned to support and protect—those laws that affixed their seal to the division and corruption previously pursued with no other sanction than the edicts of the Romish Church. But, alas! these precedents were echoed and confirmed, and that body even further subdivided by the laws of this land in the nineteenth century.

It is easy to divine what might have been our present condition under other circumstances; but it is our sorry task to inquire what are the facts—wherefore, and in what manner, has this division been continued?

During the first half century after the establishment of the College of Physicians, we are not only left with few examples in its members, but without a single attempt in any way to carry out its powers and privileges as far as surgery was concerned; on the contrary, it was during this period that the division which had been so strongly protested

against was restored and perpetuated by two several Acts of Parliament.* The practice of surgery, having been separated from that of the other branches of medicine, as before described, was confided in this country, by Royal Charter, 1 Edward IV, to the "Company of Barbers;" but, besides this company, there existed prior to the establishment of the College of Physicians another body of men practising surgery, called the "Surgeons of London."

The first Act confirmatory of such unworthy precedents *subsequent to and subversive of the College Charter*, was the 32 Henry VIII, c. 42, which incorporated and made one "Company of Barber Surgeons,"† of these "two several and distinct companies of surgeons occupying and exercising the said science and faculty of surgery, the one company being called the *Barbers of London*, and the other company called the *Surgeons of London*, which company of barbers be incorporated," &c. . . .

. . . . "and the other company, called the surgeons, be not incorporate, nor have any manner of incorporation," &c.

This re-erection of the barrier between medicine and surgery—this re-establishment of the priest's and barber's division—was further effected by the

* 32 Hen. VIII, c. 42; 34 & 35 Hen. VIII, c. 8.

† Hans Holbein's celebrated painting represents Dr. Allsop, Dr. Butts, and Dr. Chambre transferring surgery to this Company.

34 and 35 Henry VIII, c. 8, which ordained that "it shall be lawful to *every person*,* being the King's subject, having knowledge and experience of the nature of herbs, roots, and waters, or of the operation of the same by speculation or practice, within any part of the realm of England, or within any other the King's dominions, to practise, use, and minister in and to any outward sore, uncome wound, apostemations, outward swelling or disease, any herb or herbs, ointments, baths, pultess and emplaisters, according to their cunning, experience, and knowledge in any of the diseases, sores, and maladies before said, and all other like to the same, or drinks for the stone, strangury, or agues, without suit, vexation, trouble, penalty, or loss of their goods, the foresaid statute in the foresaid third year of the King's most gracious reign, or any other act, ordinance, or statute to the contrary heretofore made in any wise notwithstanding."

Such are the two retrograde enactments that especially retarded this part of the physician's office during the two following centuries, whereby "surgery" was reunited with "barbery" as late as 1745, in which year, being emancipated, it descended to the "Corporation of Surgeons," and in 1800 to the "Royal College of Surgeons."

Gratitude, we may have expected, would never have allowed the College of Physicians to resign

* "As well men as women."—*Preamble of the Act.*

to barbers or women at least such cases as had cost their founder, Dr. Linacre,* so much of suffering, and even life itself; but it was otherwise. Two principal reasons, or rather deep-rooted prejudices, seem to have combined to cause this downward course, immediately after the appointment of the College of Physicians for so opposite a purpose; the one, that natural abhorrence of any connection with an office exercised by those who had for so long a period usurped this part of their functions; the other, that inclination to *popery*, and therefore to *popish customs*, which prevailed in the college throughout this period. This latter prejudice was probably fostered as well by the education of Dr. Linacre with the son of Lorenzo de Medicis,† afterwards Pope Leo X, as by the union, in himself, Dr. Chambre, and others, of the priest's with the physician's office; so reluctantly were the emoluments of this conjoined office dissevered, and so much did it combine with other causes to re-establish the barrier between medicine and surgery.

That the college consisted chiefly of papists during this period is shown in the following extracts from 'Seymour's Survey of London:'

“The college consisted, for the most part, about this time, 1575, and before, of such as were favourers

* Dr. Linacre died in great agony from the stone, October 20, 1524.

† See Roscoe's 'Life of Lorenzo de Medicis.'

of popery, and were guilty of divers disorders. This account whereof was set up; viz.—

“ ‘That the presidents, censors, electors, and other officers, were not sworn to the Queen’s majesty, at their admission, as in other corporations they were; whereby it came to pass that papists continually had occupied the chief rooms.

“ ‘That men expelled their universities for religion, by this means had from time to time been received into the college, and thereby advanced their credit.

“ ‘That either they did wholly repel, or not without much importunity admit, any whom they thought to be well affected towards the true religion, now received.

“ ‘That such as had gone beyond the seas to take the degree of doctor, because they would avoid the oath of supremacy (ministered according to the statutes of our universities), had shortly, upon their return, been admitted without any oath ministered unto them.

“ ‘That such as had been imprisoned for religion or other great matters, had kept themselves in office at their own pleasures, contrary to the college statutes and their oaths, and detained in their hands the college goods, disdainig to make any account of the same.

“ ‘That some of the electors who had fled for religion out of the realm, had been kept in their offices, and stoutly defended, as chief members of

the college (being at Louvain) until they died, that other honest and true subjects might be kept out of the same rooms.

“ ‘That they made private conventicles *of a few*, to bring to pass their purposes and elections, which ought, by the Collège Statutes, to be done on quarter days only, and *the whole company* being thereunto called.

“ ‘That the college statutes were generally imperfect, and partly popish.

“ ‘These things being declared and complained of to the council, by some well affected, *in the year 1575*, reformation of them was earnestly desired.’

“ ‘From this account, we may see that there have been in former times, private conventicles of a few, to serve their own purposes, to the prejudice of the rest; contrary to and destructive of the peace, harmony, and brotherly affection of the members of this one and ancient body; and that there have been at the same time, some well affected to the laws of the land, as well as to the statutes of the college, who have complained of grievances, and desired redress of the same.’* ”

Immediately after, and we may reasonably infer, in some measure at least, arising from these representations, certain of the prejudices regarding surgery, which had been exhibited in the two Acts of

* ‘An Impartial Inquiry into the Legal Constitution of the College of Physicians in London,’ p. 100.

Parliament referred to, were loudly protested against. In the year 1582, Dr. Caldwell and Lord Lumley first fulfilled the injunctions of the college charter, respecting this neglected branch of medicine, by founding and endowing a *surgery* lecture in the College of Physicians: Goodall* says, "Dr. Caldwell was a person so highly valued for his learning, gravity and excellent morals, that he was examined, approved, and admitted into the College, and made censor thereof in one and the same day; and within less than six weeks was chosen one of the elects of the said college.

"He was made a member of that society in the beginning of Queen Elizabeth's reign, was president thereof A.D. 1570. His affections were such to the college, that he, with the Lord Lumley, in the twenty-fourth year of Queen Elizabeth's reign, procured her majesty's leave, under the broad seal, to found a *Surgery Lecture* in the college, and to endow it with £40 per annum, which is laid as a rent-charge upon the lands of the Lord Lumley and Dr. Caldwell, and their heirs for ever. The words of the letters patent run thus:—'Solvend: eidem Presidenti et Collegio seu Communitati, et Successoribus suis annuatim, ad usum Lectoris Artis seu scientie Chirurgie infra (*sic*) domum sive Collegium Medicorum London: in perpetuum alend: et manutenend: juxta Ordinationes

* 'Historical Account of Proceedings against Empiricks, &c.,' by Dr. Goodall: "Epistle Dedicatory."

et Statuta dicti Johannis Domini Lumley et Richardi Caldwell in medicina Doctoris fact:’ &c. This generous and noble gift of Dr. Caldwell’s and the Lord Lumley’s, was so highly resented by the College that immediately letters were drawn up and presented to both of them by the president Dr. Gifford; wherein they did not only acknowledge their great obligations due for this so honourable and generous a donation, most thankfully by them accepted; but as a testimony thereof, did immediately decree, that £100 should be forthwith taken out of their public stock, to build the college rooms more ample and spacious for the better celebration of this most solemn lecture.

“Cambden gives the following short account of this our great and worthy Benefactour and Colleague, An. Dom. 1585:—‘Hoc anno fato functus R. Caldwellus è Collegio Ænei Nasi Oxon: Dr. qui ut de Repub: benè mereretur (adscito in partem honoris Barono Lumleio) lectionem Chirurgicam honesto salario in Medicorum Collegio Londini à Thom: Linacro fundato, instituit; Juxtáque ad S. Benedict: inhumatur, monumento *laqueis plintheis et charchysiis, scamno Hippocratis, glossocomiis et aliis Chirurgicis ex Oribasio et Galeno machinamentis exornato.*’ ”*

* For a full account of the foundation of these lectures and their founder, see ‘Holinshed’s Chronicles,’ vol. iii, p. 1349 and 1369. Appendix, 21.

To the example of this "great and worthy benefactor," was added that of the most illustrious Fellows of the College. Richard Forster, M.D. Oxon., was, for several years, *Surgical Lecturer*, and in the year 1601-3, president of the college; soon after him, the immortal HARVEY succeeded to this office. He despised not the title of "Professor of Anatomy and Surgery" to the College of Physicians, but accepted and retained that office till within a few years of his death (1657), and honoured the appointment by there reading his incomparable lectures, "De Motu Cordis et Sanguinis in Animalibus," the germs of which discovery he ever acknowledged to have received from the school of his great master at Padua.* It was Frabricius ab Aquapendente, the famous restorer of surgery, who drew his especial attention to the existence of valves in the veins, and thus set the mind of his pupil on those inquiries which ended in his imperishable fame. No less in his daily practice than in his Professor's chair, did

* Harvey was five years a pupil of Fabricius at Padua, 1597—1602, and here took his degree of Doctor of Medicine and Surgery. The University of Padua, from the time of its foundation, in the twelfth century, up to the time of Harvey, produced a succession of more illustrious names than any other of the revival schools. This was the channel through which Harvey received ancient medicine, and of him it is recorded—

"Laudatis priscorum ingeniis par;
Quos honoravit maxime imitando,
Docuitque posteros exemplo."

See 'Harvey's Works, with Life by Willis,' p. xxxviii; also Appendix, 25*h*, 25*i*, 25*k*.

Harvey encourage surgery, and thus obey the college charter, as well as carry out the founder's object of reinstalling this neglected branch of medicine. Cases shortly occurred to him which evinced the first fruits of his discovery, and the fulness and unity of medicine. He says, "Looking back upon the office of the arteries or the circulation of the blood, I have occasionally, and against all expectation, completely cured enormous sarcoceles, by the simple means of tying or dividing the little artery that supplied them." He relates one particular case of a tumour thus treated successfully, and adds, "But this cure, as well as various others, accomplished in opposition to vulgar opinion and by unusual procedures, I shall relate at greater length in my medical observations, if God grant me longer life."*

The loss of these invaluable papers, said to have been caused—though of this there is much doubt†—by the plundering of his house at the beginning of the rebellion, doubtless deprived the profession of many such cases in proof of his "opposition to vulgar opinion" in this neglected branch of medicine. Further, that he exercised the science and practice of medicine "in all and every its members" is

* 'Harvey's Works,' Sydenham edition, p. 254.

† See Notice of an unpublished MS. of Wm. Harvey, by G. E. Paget, M.D., and the conclusions he has arrived at respecting certain papers, bequeathed to the College of Physicians, which he believes may yet be in existence.

evident, not only in his own writings, but by the testimony of Aubrey and others, it is shown that he “cut off and seared” the breast of my Lady Howard—that he speaks of his experience in obstetrics—that he passes his fingers into the uterus, and brings away a mole of the size of a goose’s egg—that he dilates the uterine orifice with an iron instrument, and that he uses a speculum.*

Here we have one great representative of medicine in all its branches—the worthy disciple of that school to which he referred as the source of all his attainments; one who, with his master Fabricius,† followed the bright examples of antiquity rather than the mediæval usurpers of medicine; one who, *by example* as well as precept, would drive far away these ignorant and rash intruders on the physician’s office.‡ To effect this object also his donations and his bequests are not wanting. On his resigning the Professorship of Surgery into the hands of that “learned and incomparable anatomist Sir Charles Scarbrough,” he erects, at his own cost, a library and museum, furnishing the one with books, the other as well with a variety of surgical instruments§ as with numerous objects of curiosity. He also “determined to make the College

* ‘Life by Willis,’ note, p. xxvii.

† See Appendix 25*h*.

‡ “Inscientiam temeritatemque *tam exemplo* gravitateque suis deterrere.”—*Charter*, 10 Henry VIII. Appendix, 15.

§ ‘Willis’s Life,’ p. xxxv.

of Physicians not only heirs to his paternal estate, but to bestow it on them in free gift during his life." This he accomplished by a formal document in the month of July, 1656, assigning a portion of it "for the delivery of a solemn oration annually in commemoration of those who had approved themselves benefactors to the college; and, *by extension*, who had added aught to the sum of medical science in the course of the bygone year;"* lastly, in his will, he bequeaths his "silver instruments of surgerie" to Dr. Scarbrough. In the records of St. Bartholomew's Hospital we may perceive much that tended to the improvement of surgery which may be associated with the name of Harvey. His firm and despotic rules for the management of the chirurgions† were not without effect. It was at the time of his connection with this hospital that the "bone-setter" was scared from that institution, 1628; so, shortly after, the "curer of scald heads," 1697; and, in the following century, the "stone-cutter," 1730‡. These being afterwards combined in the office of surgeon, Mr. Edward Nourse, 1734, became first lecturer on anatomy;§ and with his prosector, Percivall Pott, the joint founder of our modern School of Anatomy and Surgery in St. Bartholomew's Hospital. The

* 'Willis's Life,' p. xxxvii.

† 'Records of Harvey,' by James Paget.

‡ Appointments made by the Romish Church, or by virtue of the Act 34 & 35 Henry VIII, c. 8. Appendix, 19.

§ Paget's 'Records.'

walls even of the building speak in the forcible language of the great moralist Hogarth, who erects for our example the "Good Samaritan" exercising the Divine attribute of mercy in "binding up the wounds" of him who was half dead, whilst the priest and the Levite passed by on the other side; and the Great Physician at the pool of Bethesda"* healing the blind, the halt, "the withered, and whosoever first stepped in, of whatsoever disease he had." Here also is a rule extant—though now obsolete!—forbidding any man to hold the office of surgeon after he has attained his sixty-fifth year; and it was from hence that Abernethy dared to proclaim the duty of surgeons as consisting in the "Constitutional (origin and) treatment of local diseases," rather than the cutting and burning—plasters and ointments—that had been for so many ages their only allowed weapons in the "ars medendi."

What are all these but the shadows of the immortal Harvey, the distant echoes of the voice of Celsus,† transmitted through a worthier channel than the priest-physician to his venerated master at Padua? who thus commended to his pupils the works of that ancient physician :

* These two paintings are in the staircase to the great hall at St. Bartholomew's Hospital.

† "Chirurgus debet adolescens aut certe adolescentiæ propior."—Celsus, lib. vii, Præfatio.

"Ab his, quæ extrinsecus incidunt, ad ea veniendum est, quæ interius, corrupta aliqua corporum parte, nascuntur."—Lib. v, cap. 28.

“Mirabilis Celsus in omnibus, ‘quem nocturnâ versare, manu, versare diurnâ’ consulo.”

With such a foundation as this endowment of Dr. Caldwell and Lord Lumley; with the sanction of the college “for the better celebration of this most solemn lecture,” and its encouragement and advancement by Drs. Forster, Harvey, and others, we might reasonably have hoped and expected that Chirurgics would never again have been expelled from its original and legitimate resting-place; such was not the case. Harvey’s successors to the chair of surgery, Sir Charles Scarbrough, Dr. Hamey, Dr. Glisson, and others immediately following, bear the title of *Anatomy* reader only; and the *perversion of that grant*, “ad usum Lectoris artis seu scientie *Chirurgie* infra domum sive Coll. Med. Lond. *in perpetuum* alend: et manutenendum,” &c., has ever continued, so that at the present day any especial object of the donors is lost sight of in the name of the “Lumleian Lecturer.”

We must confess that a certain evil principle of the dark ages—a “*crescens decrescentibus aliis*”—has ever since this period more or less attached to the College of Physicians. A disposition to perpetuate a subordinate class in the medical profession, having its origin in such unworthy motives, has too much and too generally prevailed throughout modern times. It was shortly after the death of Harvey, towards the latter part of the seventeenth century,

that another rival body of unlicensed and unqualified practitioners in medicine arose in full force in the persons of the APOTHECARIES.

So much did the importance of this invasion, together with the then occurring disputes of fellows and licentiates, physicians and surgeons, engross the time and attention of the college, that henceforth the cultivation of surgery was forbidden to physicians,* and open war with the apothecaries commenced.

The names of individuals who throughout Europe were struggling for the restoration of surgery from the low estate to which it had been reduced, daily added more and more of lustre to its pursuit, so that in the year 1745 it was, in this country, emancipated from its degrading alliance with barbers, became a separate and independent body; and though divided from the name and office of what has been called "pure" physician, yet has it gained more honour and advancement for the science of medicine generally in one century, than any other branch of that divided body.

In like manner as in England so also in Ireland and Scotland, these two corruptions and consequent divisions in medicine—this "infelix atque fatalis

* The bye-law, said to have been introduced by Dr. Friend about the commencement of the eighteenth century—"antequam quispiam" (Appendix, 26)—effectually prevented the practice of surgery by any of the college members, and finally expelled it from that body.

divortio ”*—may be traced through each successive period, all springing from the same “pure” fountain—the canons of the Romish councils in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.

With the establishment of Universities by Papal Bulls or decrees in each division of the United Kingdom, the alliance of each branch of medicine with priests and barbers remained for a while unshaken, until with the accumulated light of the Revival schools, a Royal College of Physicians dares to reject the one corruption, as at a later period a Royal College of Surgeons rejected the other, in each division of the kingdom.

The history of either College is but a long-continued struggle for its emancipation from the respective corruption, that had for so many ages degraded and impeded the branch of medicine with which they were severally united.

The progress of Surgery since its emancipation is so immediately before the profession, and its results so evident and indisputable, that time need not be wasted in proving the important advantages which all allow have thence arisen to medicine.

The principal object kept in view in the foregoing sketch has been to set forth the time and the cause of its separation from the physician’s office—the period of its unworthy alliance, as well as that of its emancipation—as forming data for future argument. Thus

* Goelicke, ‘Hist. Med. Univers.’

have we considered the first part of our subject—the first great division of the physician's office, or the fate of surgery during these three several epochs.* Honoured and used, with all other acknowledged means of cure, for the removal of disease or injury, or the relief of suffering, by the *ancient physician*; usurped by the *priest and monk* of the dark ages, and renounced only *by them* when light and truth came to the investigation of their miraculous powers—not in the recesses of the cloisters, but before the world, and by the exercise of the senses,—then consigned to the barber, the smith, and the mountebank, in spite of the Grecian, Roman, or Arabic schools, in spite of the statutes of Salernum and other European states, whereto light had in any way penetrated from the twelfth to the sixteenth century; allied by the laws of this country to barbers from 1461 to 1745, but since that period resuming its place as second to none of the branches of the “healing art;” yet, in this the nineteenth century, is he who pursues this most ancient branch of medicine denied his true and legitimate title to the honoured name of *physician*.

In passing on to consider the second proposition, not only the records of past ages, but the testimony of every civilised nation of the earth, even to the present day, excepting only our own native land, may be adduced in confirmation of the fact; viz.—

That the PHYSICIAN'S OFFICE—especially in all its

* See Chart.

fulness and unity—is *distinct from, and incompatible with, the trading of the apothecary or the scientific labours of the pharmaceutical chemist.*

This proposition will require a less lengthened consideration *among the ancients*, than in the two successive periods which it is our purpose to examine.

The name of apothecary, in connection with the functions assigned to him in modern times, had then no existence; neither had the pharmacy and chemistry of the Arabic schools called forth an exclusive occupation for the cultivation of those scientific pursuits which have since become so valuable an assistance to medicine.

The *αποθηκη* of the Greeks was a mere store-house or repository, having no exclusive reference to drugs, but may be well understood as giving origin to and identical with the modern and intelligible terms of “boteca” and “boutique.” Immediately after the establishment of medicine as a science by Hippocrates, the treatment of disease was principally effected by diet, and by the various hygienic adjuvants subsequently comprised under the name of “dietetics;” but besides the use of these, each physician furnished his *ιητροεῖον* with the comparatively few “simples” then used in medicine, as well as the surgical instruments and other appliances needful to complete his triple equipments against wounds, injuries, and diseases, under all their varied aspects.

The basis of all scientific researches in pharma-

ceutics may be assigned to the writings of Aristotle and Theophrastus on zoology and botany, in the fourth century before the Christian era. From these ample sources were gradually selected such portions of either kingdom, as experience proved worthy to be included among the "materia medica" subsequently comprised in the works of Pliny and Dioscorides.

Early in the second century after Christ, the latter writer enriched the world with his five volumes on this subject, containing the description of nearly a thousand articles, a work which continued a textbook even up to modern times, affording a wide field for the scientific physician to choose from. Shortly after, as might be expected, there appears in the works of ancient authors the description of a class of citizens who thenceforth became, under various appellations, the preparers and sellers of this "materia medica." Such were the Pharmacopoles and Ropopoles of Galen; such a class of persons described by Oribasius as extending generally throughout the Roman empire, but especially in the east, who prepared the medicine prescribed by the physician. So also, combined, as was generally the case, with another calling, the Pimentarius, of whom Olympiodorus says,—“The physician orders, and the Pimentarius prepares and serves that which he requires.”* To these may be added many other

* See Peyrilhe et Dujardin, 'Hist. de la Chir.,' tom. ii, p. 63.

names scattered throughout ancient writers, such as the migmatopolai and pantopolai, the pharmacopœus and pharmacotriba,* the duties of each clearly expressed by their respective etymology.

These were the analogues amongst the ancients to the apothecary of later date, and such is the true origin of that occupation, now only performed in its purity in this country by the "pharmaceutical chemist," *since and in consequence of* its abandonment by the modern apothecary. It is not, at the same time, attempted to be concealed, that there were, in the times of Hippocrates, "ignorant and presumptuous men, who infested all Greece;" or that Erasistratus spoke of those who made antidotes, or royal compositions, such as were known by the name of the celebrated King of Pontus, Mithridates; and the *Theriaca* of Andromachus, physician to the Emperor Nero, containing fifty or sixty ingredients, so compounded as to counteract, by a portion taken every morning, the effect of the dreaded poison, which might in any way be administered through the coming day to those tyrants who had too well familiarised themselves with its effects on others.

Pliny strongly condemned a departure from the "simples" of more ancient date, or even the *compounding* of medicines in any shape; he assigned to

* Φαρμακον, remedium. }
 μιγμα-τος, mistura. } πωλεω, vendo. ποιω, facio. τριβω, tero.
 πας, πασα, παν, omnis. }

those who leant to this practice a love of ostentation, by their multiplication of medicines, or a desire to favour the prejudices of princes.

So also it must be admitted there were the “*αγογραι*” of the Greeks, the “*circumforanei*” of the Latins, the travelling mountebank doctors of their respective countries, and the “*medici sellularii*” who sat in their shops, awaiting customers for their various antidotes, as numerous as the diseases to which they were nominally applied. They were but the representatives of a class existing throughout all countries, and in all ages—those who minister to the weakness of the multitude, and at the same time richly support themselves, and thereby the impositions they practise; men who were truly described by Guido in the fourteenth century, as possessing the necessary qualifications of such practitioners—“*Egregie mentiri, audacter interficere, et pecunias extorquere.*” Of such, no honest practitioner would claim to be the descendant, or wish to be the co-operator.

In support of our second proposition throughout the following period of time—the *middle ages*, it will be well, as in the former consideration respecting surgery, to glance at each of the three localities specified; viz., the schools where Priests and Monks had usurped indisputable sway; the Arabic; and, lastly, the Revival schools, beginning with Salernum.

In the former abodes of ignorance and superstition, convents and monasteries were the principal foci in which the relics of saints and martyrs accumulated from age to age. Here they were prepared, multiplied, compounded, and dispensed, according to the approved formulæ of the times, and their specific miraculous power,* or that of the priest-physician who used them. The trading in this "materia medica," or its scientific preparation, may be adduced as an authority adverse to the proposition, but not one generally admitted at the present day as worthy of imitation.

Amongst the Arabs we trace a continuation of the more legitimate streams of medicine, and also the training of an especial class of persons for the "pharmacopolite's" functions, together with a strict surveillance of both. "Pharmaceutics" are more indebted to the Arabs than any other branch of medicine, through their improvements in chemistry and pharmacy; it is by the aid of these, as well as by the various preparations of sugar, spices, gums, and aromatics, that the number and variety of the materia medica were widely extended. To the system hitherto pursued, of searching the whole realm of nature for remedies, was now added the torturing, as it were, of each component part, so as to extract its most powerful and essential element.

* Hallam's 'Middle Ages,' vol. ii, p. 362; and Froude's 'History of England,' vol. ii, p. 91.

By modifying and compounding these with spices, aromatics, and syrups, it was sought less to offend the palate, than by the nauseous compounds of earlier date, whence they gained the designation of "cuisiniers Arabesques."

Chemistry had been known only in the Alexandrian school as the art of transmuting the baser metals. As early, however, as the eighth century, Geber, in his work on alchemy, passes in some measure to the more modern office of chemistry. In this work he speaks of mercurial preparations, such as corrosive sublimate and red precipitate; of nitric and nitro-muriatic acids; of nitrate of silver, and many other true chemical combinations. They invented also the names of alcohol, julep, syrup, looch, and many others, which have continued to the present day; and it appears that they also first introduced the usage of forms for the preparation of medicines sanctioned by Government.

Sabor-Ebn-Sahel, director of the school of Dschon-disabour, published the first dispensatory, in the latter part of the ninth century, which was soon followed by others, but especially by that of Abou'l-Hassan-Hebatollah-Ebno' Talmid, Bishop and physician to the Caliph of Bagdad, which latter had a high reputation, and became the text-book for apothecaries up to the twelfth century.*

The Apothecaries were placed under the imme-

* Sprengel, tom. ii, p. 264.

diate control of government, who exercised a strict scrutiny in order that medicines should not be adulterated or sold at too high a price. The General Afschin himself visited the "pharmacies" of his army, to assure himself that they contained all the medicines directed in the dispensatories. The duties of the apothecary were by these numerous additions much increased, and at the same time his office was clearly defined and distinct from that of the physician. Hitherto the testimony adduced, has been from acknowledged authorities on medicine and pharmacy in the respective times and countries alluded to, as the usages then and there existing.

At Salernum, however, in the twelfth century, we shall find that stringent enactments were introduced, *as well to preserve this distinction, as to reunite chirurgics with the physician's office.* The laws there promulgated in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, respecting the apothecary, have found an echo, not only in the schools of Bologna, Paris, Montpellier, and all other of the Revival schools, but, *in all states and throughout all ages* even to the present day, excepting only our own country in this the nineteenth century!

The situation of Salernum, being on the great route through which the Crusaders made their passage to and from the Holy Land, contributed to its early enlightenment from the Arabic schools. The diligent study of the Greek writers in their

Syriac and Arabic translations, or rather versions, served to establish it as the fountain-head of all modern improvements in medicine.

The proclamation in the times of Herophilus and Erasistratus, that all legitimate medicine was comprised under the three heads into which it was then divided—viz., the cure of wounds, injuries, and diseases, by dietetics, pharmaceutics, and chirurgics—was in contra-distinction to the superstitious rites and ceremonies of the Asclepiades, from which the science had but recently been rescued. This fundamental test of all true medicine, was again set forth at Salernum, in opposition to the similar practices of the convents and monasteries of the dark ages.* The “Regimen Sanitatis Salerni” may be considered the basis of modern *Dietetics*, as were the laws of Frederick II of *Chirurgics*. So also, the “Antidotaires” of Nicolaus of Salernum with those of the Arabic schools, were the origin of our modern pharmacopœias and the consequent foundation of modern *Pharmaceutics*. The use of any or all of these means, it was “the business of the physician to *know*” in the cure of injury and disease, or in the preservation of health; but the *preparation of*—and the *trading in*—either food, drugs, or instruments, were alike foreign to his office. The laws of Frederick the Second as to the relation of physician and apothecary, in this the thirteenth century, were

* “Triplex hæc medendi ratio.”—*Vesalius*. See Appendix 25g.

to the following effect.* The physician was to have no share of gains with the apothecary, nor himself to keep a shop. The apothecary—"confectionarius"—was obliged to obtain a certificate from the faculty of medicine as to his fitness for the office, and to take an oath to prepare medicines only according to the "antidotaire" of the school of Salernum, approved by government. The amount of profit on the sale of these medicines was fixed; and the apothecary could only establish himself by express permission in certain necessary localities. In large cities, two persons of reputation were appointed strictly to watch over, and enforce an observance of these laws, in whose presence the apothecary was compelled to prepare his electuaries, syrups, antidotes, &c. In case of an infringement of the law, the apothecary's goods were confiscated, and if it was discovered that these sworn officers—who at Salernum were generally chosen from amongst the "magistri"—had taken part in the fraud, they were punished with death.

It is not necessary to follow these wise and stringent enactments to Montpellier, Bologna, Paris, Padua, and other well-governed states. Salernum is admitted to be the model on which their laws were founded, and are the same referred to in the charter given to the College of Physicians, 1518. "Itaque partim bene institutarum civitatum in Italia,

* Sprengel, tom. ii, p. 364.

et aliis multis nationibus, exemplum imitati," &c.* As regards the partial observance of the practice enjoined by the above laws in our own country, we have ample proof of its existence from a time long anterior to the college charter, even from the commencement of the fourteenth century. The spices and aromatics of the east were early imported to the shores of Italy, and the south of France, where it became the province of the so-called "Speciarii" or "Epiciers" of their respective countries to perform the office of apothecaries. The earliest record we have on the subject, not only assures us of the distinction contended for, but of the source from whence it was derived. Dr. Farr† says, "A letter and bill for medicines, furnished for the use of the king, have been discovered in a roll of the wardrobe for the 34th Edward I, and throw considerable light upon English pharmacy at that period (1306-7). The writer requests payment; and his letter ends, *Inasmuch as Richard of Montpellier, grocer to the king (esperer le roy), is appointed in London to purvey (daler pour diverses pourveances faire) for the king's sickness, as is fully enjoined by the king's physicians (est pleinement enjoint par les fisiciens le Roy).*" The account contains about thirty items: ointments, plasters, electuaries, syrups, &c.,

* Appendix, 16a.

† "History of the Medical Profession," by W. Farr. 'British Med. Almanack,' 1839, p. 145.

amounting to the enormous sum of £114 16s. 4d. Thus, the admission to our own shores of the practices of these early schools is made evident. Dr. Friend also mentions a certain J. Falcland de Luca (1357) who sold medicines in England, and also one Peter of Montpellier, who was apothecary to Edward III in 1360. That this distinction is preserved up to and after the establishment of the College of Physicians is especially shown by the confirmatory Act of Parliament, 32 Henry VIII, c. 40, in which the four censors of the college are given "full authority and power, as often as they shall think meet and convenient, to enter into the house or houses of all and every apothecary now or at any time hereafter using the mystery or craft of apothecary within the said city only, to search, view, and see such apothecary wares, stuffs," &c. : and, in the usual prolix language, authority is given them to burn any defective drugs ; and in case of opposition on the part of the apothecary, or failure in the censor, a power of inflicting penalties on either party is conferred on the college. This document, though in less stringent terms, is an echo of the statutes of Salernum ; and the censors are but the representatives of the "jurès" there appointed.

In following this office throughout *modern times* in England and Wales, we arrive at the period when, in spite of existing laws that had hitherto—and have in all other civilised nations, even to the present day

—proved effectual, this distinction was departed from, and thereby a *third great invasion and corruption*, and consequent further division of the physician's office, was effected in this kingdom alone.

The office of apothecary imported from the states of Italy and France, as before described, was performed by the "Company of Grocers," who, incorporated as early as 1345 (20 Edward III), continued to be the chief preparers* and compounders of medicines up to their union with the apothecaries in 1607, forming at that time the "Company of Grocer-Apothecaries."

A few years after this, King James I declared, in

* A summary of the early history of the Grocers' Company is recorded in their books on the occasion of William III being enrolled amongst their members, in which it is said, "This Society may boast of its antiquity, deriving its original from merchants in Rome, trading in spices to the Eastern ports, who from Rome transplanted themselves to this city with the conquest of this island, and first gave wings to navigation here, from whence this island hath been able to give law by sea to all the world." Prior to the year 1345 they were known by the name of "Pepperers," pepper being the principal article in which the fraternity originally dealt. The members of this Company, however, subsequently filled the first civic offices, and were mostly of Italian descent. They were "persons of good condition, "Pepperers of Sopar's lane, and Spicerers of the ward of Cheap," or people of that mystery, wherever they resided." Between the years 1231 and 1351, so great was their importance, that no less than seven individuals attained to the rank of Lord Mayor from the "Fraternity of Pepperers," and in a quarrel between the fishmongers and skimmers during the mayoralty of Sir Andrew Aubrey ("the last of the Pepperers"), this mayor was assaulted and struck, for which two persons were beheaded by his orders in Cheapside. See Herbert's 'History,' &c. Appendix, 4.

a Charter granted to them, 1616,—“The propriety of separating the Apothecaries’ from the Grocers’ Company,” and henceforth it was enacted “that the *apothecaries* should be separate from, and constitute a company distinct from that of the grocers, and to promote the full dignity of the faculty of the *Pharmacopolites*.”* William Besse, and 113 others, were incorporated under the name of the “Master, Wardens, and Society of the art and mystery of Pharmacopolites of the city of London,” to the intent that “no person free of the Grocers’ or any other mystery in London, except those of the Apothecaries’ Company, shall keep any apothecary shop, or make, compound, administer, sell, send out, advertise, or offer for sale, any medicines, distilled waters, compound chemical oils, decoctions, syrups, conserves, eclegmas, electuaries, medical condiments, pills, powders, lozenges, oils, unguents, or plasters, or otherwise.”†

The manuals on *Materia Medica* and Pharmacy hitherto used by grocers and grocer-apothecaries, had been those of “Serapion and Mesue de Simplicibus, the Nicolaus Magnus, and Nicolaus Parvus, the *Lumen Apothecariorum*, the first *Pharmacopœia* published by authority, at Nuremburg, 1542, and several Italian compilations.”‡

* The term used by Galen to designate the same office; see *antè*, p. 69.

† Charter, 13 Jac. I. Appendix, 23.

‡ Farr’s ‘*Medical Profession*,’ p. 161.

All these were superseded, and the proportion and form of the various compounds, as well as the preparation of simples used in medicine, were fixed by the first London Pharmacopœia, published in the year 1618, which was thenceforth to be the invariable guide of the recently incorporated "Company of Apothecaries."

At this period, 1619, the distinctive duties and exclusive privileges of both physicians and apothecaries were clearly defined,* and provision made against "the mischiefs which had arisen from the sale of improper medicines," and the surveillance of either office was confided to the censors of the College of Physicians.

Moreover, at this important epoch, the connection of surgery with the physician's office had been proclaimed by charter, by acts of parliament, by the endowment of Dr. Caldwell, Lord Lumley, and others, by the cordial assent of the College, and confirmed by the example of Harvey.†

From such vantage-ground we might have expected nothing could have prevented an increasing unity, fulness, and purity in the medical profession, whereby the object of the College charter might have been gradually effected, and mediæval corruptions and divisions superseded.

One desideratum, however, was indispensably ne-

* See Charter 10 Henry VIII, Appendix, 5; and Charter 13 Jac. I. Appendix, 23.

† See *antè*, p. 60 *et seq.*

cessary for the carrying out these good intentions ; viz., that the supply should be equal to the demand ; that the *number* of well-qualified physicians and apothecaries should be coextensive with the requirements of the public and that of each other. On this, and this alone, depended the success or failure of the above enactments. “The great object of legislation,” says the late Dr. Barlow, of Bath, “in this or any other department of the profession, is to ensure to the public the due qualification of those who profess the practice of the art, and to protect the latter in the free exercise of the profession : the effect of enjoining qualifications *too high or too costly*, must ever be the same as that of all monopolies—namely, that of diminishing the competition which ought to exist in all *lawful* trade, and increasing to an indefinite extent the *contraband* : thus the restrictions of the college have spread the evils of quackery, and created such as they were intended to correct and prevent.”* Another of the most acute and accurate observers, of the present day, has thus depicted the position of the public and the college at this eventful period :—“What would be thought of Acts of Parliament for suppressing the practice of eating potatoes in Ireland—declaiming in the language of Mr. Cobbett against this article of food—pronouncing wheaten bread and roast beef infinitely better—and lodging in the hands of the

* ‘Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal,’ vol. xvi, p. 499.

wheat growers, and the cattle breeders, not only the power of casting the cultivator of potatoes into prison, and of examining his qualifications if he desired to grow wheat, but *of limiting their own numbers?* What would be the effect of an Act which gave the proprietors of a railway company, each of whom had *one carriage of his own*, the power of suppressing every mode of travelling, of putting down horses, asses, dogs, carts, gigs, coaches, canals, everything but the railway; and at the same time gave them the power of admitting other carriages to run on the train? The Acts conferring monopolies in medicine had precisely these characters, and produced the anticipated results," &c.

"How much is it to be regretted that the government did not endeavour to suppress quacks by the substitution of educated physicians? . . . and that the College of Physicians was not constructed upon liberal principles, including among its fellows all the medical practitioners in the kingdom? *Then quackery may have been suppressed.*"*

But it is of no avail to reflect on what might have been done; the question is what has been done by the College of Physicians, with all its privileges and powers? what have been its effects? and does it deserve such comparisons as have been quoted?

The following table will show at a glance how far the numbers provided were adequate for the need of

* Farr's 'Med. Prof.,' pp. 175-6.

the public, as we have elsewhere shown how scantily even these were furnished with the means of cure, or the knowledge of disease, in its entirety. In the year—

1575	the College consisted of	Fellows	20
1618	„	„	34
1639	„	„	34
1650	„	„	46
1677	Fellows and Licentiates*		90
1720	„	„	89
1746	„	„	82
1788	„	„	166
1809	„	„	257
1815	„	„	254
1824	„	„	360
1836	„	„	461
1850	„	„	572

That such numbers, so partially fitted for the various duties of their office, were ineffectual to accomplish the purpose for which the charter was granted, “*inscientiam temeritatemque deterrere,*” is too evident; they might indeed prosecute unlicensed practitioners, which they failed not to do, “*per leges nuper editas;*” but what could such a course avail, their places not being supplied with those more worthy, and more efficient for the public need? Hence it was that the third great usurpation of the

* A *lower grade*, called *Permissi*—*Licentiates*—admitted at this period; such were Sydenham and Sir T. Browne!!

Physician's office, or some of a similar character, must of necessity have ensued. They who were the depositories of powers and privileges such as had never been conferred on any corporate body in this kingdom, annihilated those powers, and abused those privileges, by illegal and suicidal by-laws, which contracted their body in numbers and functions, so as to render it powerless for its intended purpose.

The periods of time especially deserving attention in the two following centuries are those of the rise, struggle, and success of this third invasion, or the intervals between 1618—1696—1704—1815. To each of these a separate, though short, consideration may be given. It was during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, that a method was adopted by *physicians and apothecaries*, of substituting the latter for the former, in the less lucrative and important parts of their office, too much like, both in its origin and in its effects, to the system which had previously obtained between the *priest and barber* in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.

The one was the cause of the *first*, as was the other of the *second* great division of the Physician's office.

The history of the division effected in the former period, so graphically described by Dr. Barlow,* may, with a few alterations in the *dramatis personæ*,

* 'Edin. Med. and Surg. Journal,' vol. xiv, p. 3.

too truly depict that of the latter, and may be thus paraphrased. In the—

Twelfth and Thirteenth
Centuries.

“The disadvantages immediately resulting from the restrictions imposed on the Monks they obviated as much as possible, by suitable expedients.”

“Thus when prohibited by a Papal Bull from leaving their cloisters for the purpose of attending the sick, they gave advice at home to those who consulted them, forming their judgments oftentimes on the reports made by the friends and relations of the sick, and by inspection of the various excrements submitted to their examination.

“When manual assistance was required, they sent their servants to officiate, who were also *their barbers*, and hence arose a class of practitioners afterwards sufficiently celebrated throughout Europe, the barber-surgeons.

Seventeenth and Eighteenth
Centuries.

The disadvantages immediately resulting from the restrictions imposed on the number and functions of the Fellows and Licentiates of the College of Physicians in England, they obviated as much as possible, by suitable expedients.

Thus when prohibited by the *excessive number of their patients*, from leaving their homes for the purpose of attending the sick, they gave advice at home, to those who consulted them, forming their judgments oftentimes on the reports made by the friends and *apothecaries** of the sick, and by inspection of the various excrements submitted to their examination.

When *menial* assistance was required, they sent their subordinates to officiate, who were also *their apothecaries*, and hence arose a class of practitioners, afterwards sufficiently celebrated throughout England and Wales, the modern apothecaries, or *apothecary-physicians*.

* See ‘Gold-headed Cane,’ p. 154.

“In the forenoon, apothecaries used to come to him, at Tom’s, near Covent Garden, with written or verbal reports of cases, for which he prescribed without seeing the patient, and took half-guinea fees.”

“The history of this period is peculiarly interesting, and it is highly instructive to trace the various struggles which successively take place, more especially in France, between the ecclesiastical and lay practitioners in physic, between the physicians and regular surgeons of the Parisian College, and between these latter and the barber-surgeons, with whom, however, they were finally obliged to unite.”

“It must suffice, however, in this place to remark, that throughout the whole period a uniform tendency is manifested on the part of the public to disregard all collegiate rights and restrictions, and to employ those whom they found most suited to their purposes; namely, the general practitioners, or those who combined the several departments most completely in their own persons.”

“Remote as were the periods and distant the scenes now alluded to, they have, nevertheless, had an influence on the state of medical science and medical practice in these countries, which is sensibly felt even at the present day.

“They hence acquire an interest which, as mere matters of curiosity, they would not be entitled to.

“It is easy to trace this in-

The history of this period is peculiarly interesting, and it is highly instructive to trace the various struggles which successively take place in England and Wales, between the licensed and unlicensed practitioners in physic, between the College of Physicians and Society of Apothecaries, and subsequently between these latter and the retail chemists and druggists.

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It is easy to trace this in-

fluence and demonstrate its effects.

“How far they have been beneficial or otherwise, we can have little difficulty in determining.

“The way in which a division of the profession *first* took place in modern Europe, has just been stated.

“Monkish cupidity had engrossed the whole of medical practice, papal policy compelled the relinquishment of those departments which more peculiarly interfered with the clerical functions, or were considered to derogate from the clerical character.”

“Thus, surgery became degraded until the good sense of the French court, concurring with the demands of society, rescued it from obscurity, and restored it to some degree of rank and consequence, by establishing a college for its use, and giving it a separate and independent constitution.”

Little need be added to the foregoing sketch. By such an arrangement during the first interval of time, or that between 1618 and 1696, the apothecary was introduced to the sick chamber, and thereby to an imperfect knowledge of disease; and the effect of remedies he administered and reported on, in obedience to the physician's directions.

fluence and demonstrate its effects.

How far they have been beneficial or otherwise, we can have little difficulty in determining.

The way in which a *second* division of the profession took place in England and Wales, has just been stated.

College cupidity had grasped at the whole of so-called “medical” practice, individual policy compelled the relinquishment of those departments which more peculiarly interfered with the physician's fees, or were considered to derogate from the physician's character.

Thus, “medicine” became again degraded, until the good sense of the English legislature, concurring with the demands of society, rescued it from obscurity, and restored to it *some degree of rank and consequence*, by establishing *a hall* for its use, and giving it a separate and independent constitution.

In this way, he became by degrees not only the preparer and compounder of medicines, which had originally been his sole occupation, but a subordinate practitioner or assistant in performing the Physician's office. So much did this practice necessarily increase through the dearth of educated physicians, that towards the end of the seventeenth century the apothecary acquired more and more of confidence in his own powers, and an increasing encouragement from the public, not only to visit each his respective patients and *apply* remedies, but to *prescribe as well as administer* them on his own account. In this way he soon became the physician's rival instead of his assistant, and that jealousy arose—that internecine warfare commenced—which has ever since been the opprobrium of modern medicine in England and Wales.

In the year 1696 the college consisted of about ninety members; of this number fifty-three combined for the purpose of suppressing this innovation of the apothecaries on their office, according to that "*lex talionis*" which was neither wise or just. These fifty-three members formed themselves into a joint-stock company, determined to oppose their rivals, and supersede the apothecary in his own legitimate rights, by preparing, compounding, and selling medicines, not only to the poor, but many of them to their own patients, at a fixed and moderate rate.*

* This plan had been individually adopted, and openly advocated,

For the effectual attainment of this object, “Dispensaries” were established in three convenient situations for the public; one being at the College,* one at Cornhill, and one at St. Martin’s Lane; and thus a company of physician-apothecaries were banded in opposition to a company of apothecary-physicians, each of whom, by encroaching on the duties and privileges of the other, broke down the hitherto acknowledged distinction in their respective offices. Innumerable were the angry and disgraceful pamphlets sent forth by either party throughout this contest; but in vain were the means adopted by the college—although supported by the superior education of its members, and backed by the satire of a Garth—to obtain for them the desired victory.

The celebrated case of *C. S. Rose v. College of Physicians* gave to the apothecaries their first advantage. In the year 1703, “C. S. Rose, being an *apothecary by trade*, was sent to by John Seale, then sick of a certain distemper; and he, having seen and being informed of the said distemper, did, without prescription or advice of a doctor, and *without any fee for advice*, compound and send to the said John Seale several parcels of physic as proper for his said distemper, *only taking the price of his drugs.*”

“The question was, whether this is a practising of physic such as is prohibited by the statute?” . .

by several physicians, viz., Christopher Merrett, Gideon Harvey, and Jonathan Goddard.

* Then in Warwick Lane.

After this had been "three several times argued in the Court of Queen's Bench," the judges were unanimously of opinion, "that the facts found did amount to the practising physic within the meaning of the Act, and gave judgment accordingly.

"Hereupon a writ of error in parliament was brought to reverse this judgment; and on behalf of the plaintiff in error it was argued, that the consequences of it would not only ruin him, but all other apothecaries; as in case of the affirmance of this judgment, they could not exercise their profession without the license of a physician; that the constant usage and practice which had always been with the apothecary was conceived to be the best expounder of this charter, and that therefore *the selling a few lozenges or a small electuary* to any person asking a remedy for a cold, or in other ordinary or common cases where the medicines had a known and certain effect, could not be deemed unlawful or practising as a physician, *when no fee was taken or demanded for the same*; that the physicians, by straining an act made so long ago, endeavoured to monopolise all manner of physic solely to themselves, and if they should succeed in this attempt, it would be attended with many mischievous consequences; for, in the first place, it would be laying a heavy tax on the nobility and gentry, who in the slightest cases, and even for their common servants, could not have any kind of medicine without consulting and *giving a fee to a*

member of the college. It would also be a great oppression upon poor families, who, not being able to bear the charge of a fee, would be deprived of all kinds of assistance in their necessities; and it would prove extremely prejudicial to all sick persons, who, in case of sudden accidents or new symptoms happening in the night time, *generally send for the apothecary*, but who should not dare to apply the least remedy without running the hazard of being ruined. On the other side it was contended, that by several orders of the college its members were enjoined to give their advice to the poor gratis, and that not only to such as could come to them for it, but every physician in his neighbourhood was obliged to visit the sick poor at their own lodgings; and therefore the objection, that if the apothecaries could not administer physic but by the prescript of a physician the poorer sort of the people would be lost for want of proper remedies, had not the least foundation. And when these orders were observed not to have their full intended effect, on account of the *high prices which the apothecaries generally demanded* for the remedies prescribed, whereby the poor were deterred from consulting the physician for fear of the charge of the physic, the college, *by a joint stock*, erected several dispensaries in town, where, after the physicians had given their advice gratis, the patients might have the physic prescribed, for a third, and generally less, of what the apothec-

caries used to exact for it : by which expedient many hundred persons of mean condition received their cures at a very small expense, and without one farthing profit arising to the physicians : that in case of sudden and immediate necessity, not only apothecaries, but any other person, might do his best to relieve his neighbour, without incurring the penalty of the law ; but there was no reason why the apothecaries, under that pretence, should be permitted to undertake at leisure all dangerous diseases, and especially where, as in this city at least, a skilful physician may be as soon had as an apothecary.

“That in common or trifling indispositions the patients themselves were generally their own physicians, and would of course send for any medicine of which there had been common experience for their cure, and which the apothecary might lawfully make up and sell ; but for the apothecary to be permitted to judge of diseases in their beginning, whether slight or not, and to order medicines for the same, would be both dangerous and more chargeable : dangerous, because the most malignant distempers usually begin with apparently inconsiderable symptoms, and are many days before they appear in their proper colours, and as apothecaries are not bred to have suitable skill, the management thereof ought not to be left to their judgment ; *and more chargeable, because, be the disease ever so slight, the apothecary will be sure to prescribe largely enough ;*

and should he chance to mistake, then that distemper, which by the discreet advice of a physician might by one proper medicine have been eradicated at the beginning, runs out into great length to the extreme hazard and great expense of the patient."

"But, after hearing counsel on this writ of error, it was ordered and adjudged, that *the judgment given in the Queen's Bench for the president and college or commonalty of the faculty of physic in London, against the said William Rose, should be reversed.*"*

By the above decision, the thin end of the wedge was introduced, which, in the following century, completely destroyed the distinctive character of either office. By this case was established, in England and Wales, the right of the apothecary *to visit and prescribe—in trivial cases—as well as to compound and sell* the medicine he had prescribed, provided only that *he received no fee*,† but measured his own worth, and his patient's means, in the price and the quantity of medicine he could persuade him to take. 1696—1704.

What then was the immediate consequence? The minority of the college members who had not given their assent‡ to the joint-stock "Dispensaries"

* Willcock's 'Laws relating to the Medical Profession, S. C. Rose v. Coll. of Physicians,' part ii, p. xciv.

† See *antè*, p. 91.

‡ Dr. Radcliffe and his party. "He (Dr. Radcliffe) had not been in town a year, when he got more than twenty guineas per diem, as his apothecary, Mr. Dandridge, who himself died worth £50,000, by his means, has often averred." See 'Biog. Britt.,' pp. 3452-3.

henceforth became the favoured coadjutors of the victorious apothecaries, who, by these opposition shops, were to have been superseded in their own exclusive and legitimate rights.* Thus the physician was first called on to make a proportionate *return to the apothecary for fees received* in consultation in difficult or important cases, *by subscribing to the quantity, variety, and expensive form of medicine* which the apothecary had previously directed for the unfortunate patient.†

Such a system was tacitly submitted to more and more, until in a few years the College "Dispensaries" were closed, and few physicians were exempted from partially assenting to that system of poly-pharmacy, which, commencing in the manner described, had necessarily increased with the increasing importance of the apothecary, who had *no other legitimate means of remuneration*. Whilst the great mass of the public thus passed into the hands of the uneducated apothecary *as their ordinary medical attendant*, they were privileged to obtain the physician's assistance only in consultation. A comparative few, however, of the more wealthy classes were enabled to keep aloof from such a system, and, as far as internal diseases were concerned, entrusted themselves to the educated physician‡ *as their ordinary adviser*.

* See *antè*, p. 80.

† *Antè*, p. 93.

‡ Dr. Garth and his party. See 'Johnson's Lives.'

Hence it happened that contemporaneously with the departure of the apothecary from his original and normal occupation, the retail chemist and druggist first became necessary to fulfil the office deserted by him, of simple compounder and dispenser of physicians' prescriptions; and thus, in proportion as the apothecary diverged from his primary and sole duties—especially after the college “Dispensaries” were closed—has the modern chemist and druggist* succeeded to them.

The personal and abusive pamphlets issuing from the press at this time, were powerless, as were the now obsolete laws, to prevent the onward course of these corruptions. As nature abhors a vacuum, so will society, under such circumstances, ensure a supply equal to its demand, whether from a legitimate, or illegitimate source; it is the failure in the former, that conduces to the success of the latter; and most signally was it the case in this instance. The daily increasing importance of apothecaries in their new vocation, aided by their union with the “Corporation of Surgeons,” to which body they were generally attached, called forth, towards the end of the last and beginning of this century, men of talent and education, who, in an equal measure, gained the confidence and patronage of all classes of the public.

* The true offspring of the Dispensaries, “a body of men unknown to the world till about the end of the last century.”—‘Good’s Hist. of Med.,’ p. 151 (1796).

So much was this the case, that it was the proud and honourable distinction of an apothecary, not long since dead, to have held at one period the office of *ordinary medical attendant* to all his Majesty's ministers, and every judge on the bench. The system of *mutual support*, arising from this mode of practice and remuneration, was alike profitable to the physician and apothecary, as long as it was fully subscribed to by both parties, and blindly submitted to by the public; but such men as John Mason Good, George Mann Burrows, Anthony Todd Thomson,* and other enlightened and influential apothecaries, could no longer brook the anomalous position in which they were placed, and the gross system they were of necessity called on to sanction,† and therefore it was that early in the present century an association was formed called the "Associated Apothecaries," of which Mr. G. M. Burrows was president, for the purpose of resisting the encroachments of druggists on their exclusive right of vending pharmaceutical preparations, and compounding physicians' prescriptions; of establishing schools for the education of pupils in medicine, surgery, and pharmacy; and of vesting in

* All subsequently admitted to the College of Physicians.

† "As the general practitioner had no legal right to charge for his attendance on the sick, he was compelled to resort to an expedient for remunerating himself exceedingly revolting to the feelings of a liberal mind."—'Report from the Committee on Medical Education,' 1834, part iii, question 244, Dr. G. M. Burrows.

a new medical body the right of granting licenses to such persons as they should find, by examination, were competent to practise.

It was their primary intention to apply to Parliament for the attainment of these objects through the medium or, at least, with the concurrence of the "Colleges of Physicians" and "Surgeons," and the "Society of Apothecaries." Each corporate body declined at the first to interfere; but, a bill having been framed by the association, an opposition proceeding from all quarters, as well druggists as physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries, caused many alterations, erasures, and interpolations to be effected, to the satisfaction of neither party: yet, with the hope of obtaining an amended Act in the ensuing session, and the fear that by further procrastination they might be defeated altogether, a bill arranged by the "Society of Apothecaries," in conjunction with the "College of Physicians," was assented to by the "Associated Apothecaries," and hurried through parliament in the year 1815, as "An Act for better regulating the practice of Apothecaries throughout England and Wales."

By this Act, the distinction in the office of physician and apothecary, which had been gradually lost sight of, in the manner described, since 1618, was completely obliterated, and the anomaly created of a corporate body of physicians at Charing Cross affirming that the practice of medicine should have

no connection with the practice of pharmacy, whilst the "Society of Apothecaries" at Blackfriars examined and granted licenses to one and the same individual to fill the office of both; and this with the assent of the College of Physicians! Such was the completion of the *third* great invasion of the physician's office which we have attempted to portray.

Before, however, proceeding to set forth some of the injurious *effects* of those several corruptions, it will be well to inquire, What is the testimony of other civilised nations, at the present day, regarding the distinction affirmed in our second proposition? Has the corruption, and thereby the division alluded to, been general throughout these nations—as were those of the Priest and Barber—or is it peculiar to our own native land?

The laws of Prussia and other German states are, perhaps, more comprehensive and more stringent than any, regarding the liberal education, but limited duties, of the apothecary. The members of this profession are here not only well educated, but restricted to their proper functions of preparing, compounding, and dispensing medicines according to the prescriptions of the authorised practitioners.

In each city or district a limited number is licensed in proportion to the population; and the strictest surveillance is exercised over them for the above purposes.

In Hamburgh, for instance, the apothecary is

educated, examined, and granted a diploma as *assistant*, preliminary to another and final examination as *full apothecary*. For this latter, it is required that he should have passed four years as apprentice, three years as assistant, and attended one year's lectures at a university. After being thus carefully qualified for his office, he is at liberty to purchase a business, should a vacancy take place through death, or retirement, in any licensed establishment; or he may petition to open a new shop in a fresh locality, when from increase of population, or distance in the country, it may appear to be required; but the Board of Health is very slow in granting new licenses. There is prepared also every year a price list of drugs, and the apothecary is liable to a fine if he charges more or less than the prescribed amount. His shop is periodically visited—once a year at least—all faulty drugs are destroyed; and if this is often found to be necessary at the same shop, the license is withdrawn.

Similar regulations not only exist throughout Prussia, Austria, and the minor German States, but in Russia, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland, Poland, Mexico, and even Moldavia and Wallachia.*

Professor Holst, in framing a new medical bill for Norway, in 1844, thus speaks:—"In Norway, as in other continental states, the apothecary is a well-

* See 'Pharmaceutical Journal' for a valuable series of papers on this subject, from which these facts are principally taken.

educated individual, who must obtain a regular license, after undergoing a strict course of instruction in chemistry, pharmacy, and the collateral sciences. *Here, as in all countries excepting in England, the trade of the apothecary is strictly separated from the profession of physic.*"

In Mexico, apothecaries are not only subjected to a careful education, rigid examination, a periodical visitation of their shops, an obligation to reject all prescriptions not signed by a legal practitioner, to abstain from all medical or surgical practice, and never to quit their shops without leaving an approved and duly qualified substitute; but so jealously is the effect of this combination guarded against, that no apothecary is permitted to open a shop, or take one in a place where *his father or father-in-law, son or son-in-law*, is established in medical or surgical practice.*

In other states, where no legal restrictions are placed as regards the numbers, the education and examination, as well as the limited duties of apothecary and physician respectively, are no less carefully provided for and defined; so that a supply is called forth, ample for, but only commensurate with, their legitimate functions in relation to the public and to each other; such is the case in France, Belgium, Spain, Portugal, United States, &c., &c.

Belgium offers a striking instance of the evil effect of relaxing these salutary regulations even to a slight

* 'Pharmaceutical Journal,' vol. iv, p. 517.

extent. The same distinct line had been here observed and enforced by law since 1641 ; but, in the year 1818, exceptions were made, in order that physicians might provide medicines for their patients in secret cases, and in small villages* where was no pharmacien. This practice has so much increased from interested motives, where there was no necessity for it, that petitions have again and again been made to repeal these laws, and pharmacy is said to be in a retrograde condition.

The United States of America hold a far higher position, as regards this distinction, than ourselves ; and though something of the hybrid character pertains to a few of her physicians—doubtless inherited from their parent stock—yet the business of an apothecary, or chemist and druggist as he is generally styled, is limited to the preparation and sale of medicines, for which he is fully qualified. He corresponds to the “ pharmacien ” of France, as he neither visits the sick nor prescribes at the counter, and therefore it is their number of apothecaries is only proportionate to their limited duties.

Having traced the *third* great corruption of medicine in this kingdom to the invasion of the apothecary in England and Wales, and contrasted it with the testimony of Foreign States, it remains only to

* This exception is also made in some other states, but the increase of the practice is prevented by a strict surveillance and a limited price of drugs.

point out the distinctive character of this corruption, which has in some measure appertained to the sister divisions of the kingdom, though originating from a very different cause and pursuing a very opposite course both in Ireland and Scotland. As we have seen this illegitimate progeny to have arisen, and year by year to have increased through the dearth of educated physicians in England and Wales during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, until that alliance which all ages and states had testified against was rendered legitimate by the Act of 1815; so may we find *an opposite course* pursued both in Ireland and Scotland, during the same period, even in spite of the example advanced by their influential sister division of the kingdom.

In England and Wales we have had priests and physicians—barbers and surgeons—*allied by Law* in performance of the duties of the physician's office, and we have the representatives, even of these *divisions*, at the present day; but in none of our enactments, previous to that of 1815, has the apothecary been associated either with the physician or surgeon in one body corporate.

On the other hand, in Ireland we find that in the year 1687 a combination of surgeons and apothecaries, which had gradually crept in, was confirmed by Charter 3 Jac. II,* which states that “we

* It is probable they were allied with barbers from an early date, but this is the first *legal* alliance extant. See Appendix, 2.

nevertheless, being willing, in order to the promoting of trade and traffick in our new City of Dublin, to renew the guild or corporation of barbers, of which the barbers, chirurgeons, apothecaries, and periwig-makers of the city of Dublin were members, to the intent that the arts and mysteryes of barber-chirurgeons, apothecaries, and periwig-makers may be the better exercised, &c., do constitute one guild or fraternity of the arts, &c., by the name of the Guild or Fraternity of St. Mary Magdalene, to consist of one master, two wardens, and of the brothers of the arts aforesaid, by the name of the Master, Wardens, and Brothers of the arts of Barber-Chirurgeons, Apothecaryes, and Periwig-makers of the Guild or Fraternity of St. Mary Magdalene.”*

Thus, it is evident that in Ireland apothecaries and surgeons were united by law in one body corporate; so, also, in Scotland even some years previously the same alliance was legally established. “By Act of Council, 1657, the surgeons and apothecaries were, at their mutual desire, united into one community, which was ratified by Parliament. From the time the arts of surgery and pharmacy were united, the corporation laid aside entirely their business as barbers. This occasioned an Act of Council on the 26th of July, 1682, recommending to this corporation to supply the town with a sufficient number of

* See ‘Moore on the History of Pharmacy in Ireland,’ p. 18.

persons qualified to shave and cut hair; and who should continue dependent on the surgeons. But in the year 1722 the surgeons and barbers were separated from each other in all respects, except that the barbers are still obliged to enter their apprentices in the register kept by the surgeons.”*

“By a Charter of his present Majesty dated 14th March, 1778, this corporation was erected of new under the name of the ‘Royal College of Surgeons of the City of Edinburgh.’”

We have previously asserted that this combination of duties which by law appertains to the present day to Ireland and Scotland, originated from a very different cause, and pursued a very opposite course, to that of the Apothecary-physician as legalised in England and Wales, 1815. To the latter alliance we can find no precedent, and can see no reason, except the dearth of educated physicians, and their consequent arrangements with apothecaries during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; but to that of the former there is an evident one in the mediæval enactments of foreign states. In the books of the “Rector” of the University of Paris is a statute bearing date 1301, of which the second clause runs thus according to Crevier :†—“Le second ordonne aux Chirurgiens,

* See ‘Arnott’s History of Edinburgh,’ p. 524. Edin., 1779. Also Appendix, 3.

† ‘Histoire de l’Université de Paris,’ tom. ii, p. 52.

Apothicaire, et Herboristes de se renfermer dans les limites de leurs fonctions, et en consequence, de se contenter, le Chirurgien de l'opération manuelle, l'Apothicaire de la composition des medicamens, et l'Herboriste de l'administration des simples, suivant l'ordonnance du Médecin."

This decree fully explains the servile position of surgery, and those who practised it at that period. When gross ignorance characterised alike the Surgeon, the Apothecary, and the Herborist, they may have been fitly associated one with the other, to do only the bidding of their less ignorant master, but as time passed on and the modern Surgeon resumed his primitive rank and the right to exercise his head as well as his hand, so we find that the Royal Colleges of Ireland and Scotland have increasingly ignored an alliance which would never have been admitted to their shores, excepting in these times of darkness, when modern surgery and pharmaceutical chemistry had no existence.

In Ireland apothecaries first claimed their right to exclusive powers and privileges as "Corporation of Apothecaries or Guild of St. Luke" as early as 1745 by Charter 18 George II, which separation was confirmed 31 George III, constituting them the "Corporation of Apothecaries' Hall," and, although the College of Surgeons still reserves the power to authorise its members to dispense *their own medicines*, few avail themselves of it, and the right to

keep an open shop for preparing, compounding, and selling medicines according to the prescriptions of others, is restricted to Members of the Apothecaries' Company, and that after a good and sufficient education and examination.*

In Scotland also surgery has passed through its successive periods, from the gross ignorance and gradual illumination of the past, to the perfection of the present day. Since the time when surgeons were united with barbers in one body (1505), the preliminary education then required being that they could both "wryte and reid" their course has been the same as throughout all territories where *canon* law has held its sway more or less, since the councils of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries—one incessant struggle to be liberated from the degrading alliances to which it was then assigned.† The union of barber-surgeons with apothecaries in 1657,‡ was another heavy hindrance to the progress of surgery in this portion of the kingdom, but by the exclusion of "Barbery" in 1722, and that more effectually in 1778, as well as by the gradual renunciation of

* See Appendix, 2 and 3.

† "That na Masteris of the said Craft shall take ane Prenteis or feit man in Tyme cuming, to use the Surgerie Craft, without he can baith wryte and reid."

‡ This alliance also probably existed previously, as in Ireland, but was not legally recognised before this date, excepting that the original Charter, 1505, granted that "na person, man or woman, within this burgh, make or sell any aquavite, except the saidis maisteris," &c. See Charter.

pharmacy and its assignment to chemists and druggists, they too have pursued an onward course, refusing either of such alliances with that branch of medicine of which they were the especial champions, rather than follow the example of England, who, we have seen, throughout this same period was inviting and cherishing a more extensive corruption of a similar character, which (that of the apothecary with the physician) reached its culminating point in the Act of 1815. The one an exotic, dying out with the ignorance on which it was engrafted—the other of endogenous growth, springing from, and continued for, selfish and interested motives.

Thus we may understand both Ireland and Scotland justly disclaiming a part in this third great corruption of medicine.

“The profession of apothecary in Ireland is a restricted one ; it is open only to men whose knowledge has been tested by examination, after they have passed a sufficient time in practically learning their art. Their proper business is to prepare and compound drugs in accordance with an authoritative standard, and they enjoy a monopoly of the retail trade in the compounding of drugs for medical use. They are responsible for the due discharge of this duty ; and being for the most part respectable men, they perform it conscientiously and satisfactorily. Hence it is a rare thing to hear of misadventures with drugs or of spurious medicine in Ireland. In

England, on the other hand, the name of apothecary only exists. The word has lost its original, proper, and we rejoice to be able to add, its Irish signification. Any man who pleases may undertake to do apothecaries' work; he may open a shop, call himself chemist and druggist, and poison her majesty's subjects, or frustrate the skill of the physician, as chance may direct."*

In Scotland a different state of things has prevailed. "There they have druggists, surgeons, and physicians, but no apothecaries. The surgeons sometimes supply their own medicines, charging a low price for them, but more frequently they only prescribe. The duties of the 'general practitioner' are performed by surgeons; often by physicians, who in that case charge only a small fee; and very commonly by gentlemen possessing at the same time a surgeon's diploma and a physician's degree. Most of the leading physicians in Scotland are 'family physicians' in a great number of families—that is to say, they are the only medical attendants; at the same time being the most eminent men of their body, they are applied to as 'consulting practitioners' in cases of greater difficulty or danger. The physician in Scotland retains the place which he has always held, whereas in England he has been almost superseded as a 'family physician' by the advancement of the apothecary, and he is too often regarded as a

* 'Dublin University Magazine,' vol. xlvi, p. 89.

consulting practitioner only. It will be at once seen that the temptation to give unnecessary quantities of medicine has been much less in Scotland than in England, and that this fact will explain the corresponding difference in the habits of the profession and of the public in the two countries.”*

How vast then is the difference, if all or any of the nations of the earth be compared with this boasted metropolis of the world!

At the present day, there is nothing to prevent any man—or woman either†—in England and Wales, however ignorant or dishonest, from opening a shop and proclaiming himself, or herself, equal to undertake the important and responsible duties of a pure apothecary, which in all other states demand such careful education, searching examination, and strict surveillance.

Before the voluntary establishment of the Pharmaceutical Society in 1840, the best men who were pursuing this vocation in England and Wales, had *no opportunity even* to pass through a prescribed course of education and examination; whilst in all other countries, the apothecary as well as the physician has a high standard of attainments set before him which he is bound to reach, and whereby it happens that instead of rivals, each becomes the

* ‘Chambers’s Edinburgh Journal,’ May 5th, 1849.

† In the census of 1851, there are 268 “Female Druggists,” besides 236 others described as “dealing in drugs.”

earnest, efficient, zealous co-operator of the other, in his separate and defined department.

Prior to this last invasion of the physician's office in England and Wales, and its legalization in 1815, the duties of physician and apothecary, although imperfectly fulfilled, were as distinct here as elsewhere.* They were relatively as the artist and the artist's colourman, the army and the army accoutrement maker.

Each of the divisions of therapeutics had its separate and valuable adjuvant, the apothecary bearing the same relation to pharmaceutics as the cook to dietetics, and the surgical instrument maker to chirurgics; each the preparer of those several weapons, wherewith the "pure" and well-equipped physician of ancient times went forth to battle, avoiding no foe, and refusing no means wherewith to combat him.

The foregoing facts will, I trust, render evident that the three great corruptions of the physician's office, and their consequent divisions now perpetuated in England and Wales, have arisen under similar circumstances, and are due to the same causes, viz., the failure of those who were the depositories of power for the time being *to send forth an adequate supply of well-equipped physicians*; whereby it followed that the office was invaded by some ignorant and uneducated usurper.

* See *antè*, p. 81.

If light and truth had not been extinguished—if the ancient schools of medicine had not been annihilated in the seventh century,—the priest and the monk had never usurped the office of physician; if the exercise of chirurgics had not been denounced by the church in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and, in spite of the Arabic and Revival schools, consigned to the barber,—he had never succeeded to that office; so, alas! if the College of Physicians had fulfilled her mission,* if the number and functions of her fellows had not been restricted within such narrow limits, the barber-surgeon had never been *re-established* in this kingdom, 1540; the apothecary-physician, with his exclusive exercise of pharmaceutics, would never have been installed in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, or legalised in the nineteenth; neither should we, at the present day, have seen a fourth impending corruption and division, in the exclusive exercise of dietetics, by homœopaths, hydropaths, and others; thus completing the circle of corruptions of the physician's office:—

1st. In the invasion of medicine by Priests and Monks, and their *exclusive exercise of Miraculous powers*.

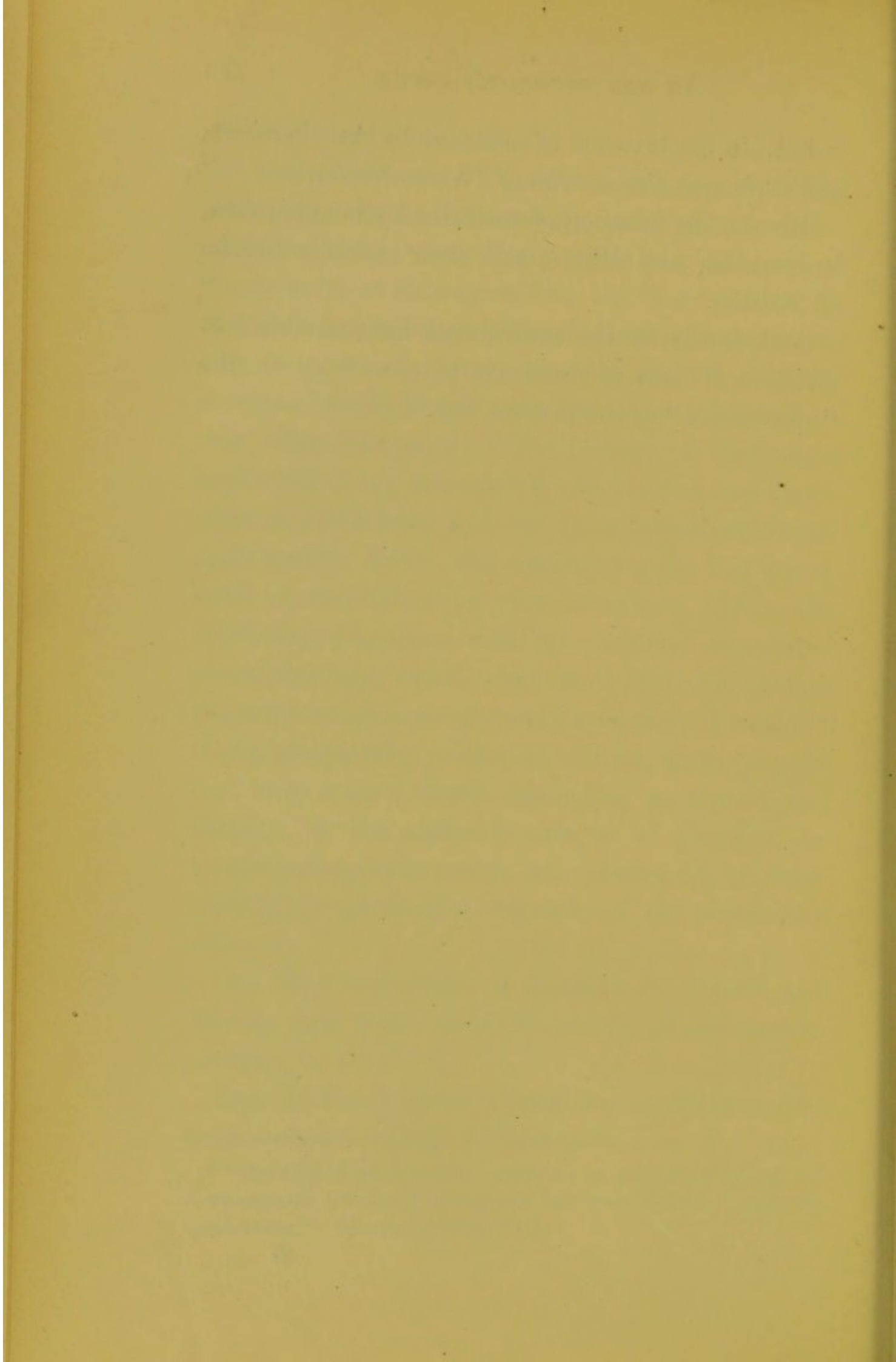
2nd. In the invasion of medicine by Barbers, and their *exclusive exercise of Chirurgics*.

* “Pro salubri gubernatione, supervisu, et correctione collegii seu communitatis prædictæ, et omnium hominum eandem facultatem exercentium.”—*Charter*, 10 Hen. VIII.

3rd. In the invasion of medicine by Apothecaries, and their *exclusive exercise of Pharmaceutics*.

4th. In the invasion of medicine by homœopaths, hydropaths, and others, and their *exclusive exercise of Dietetics*.

And, finally, in the several and interminable *subdivisions* of each of these usurpers, as seen in the "specialities" of the present day.



CORRUPTIONS AND DIVISIONS OF MEDICINE.

THEIR EFFECTS.

“ Rixis et contentionibus partim inter sectas, partim inter medicos uni sectæ addictos, in primis dogmaticos, causa multiplex ansa dabat, verum hæc non ad certiolem et utiliorem reddendam medicinam, sed potius ad distinctionum, divisionum, hypothesium, copiam augendam, et ad rigorem quendam, quem singulæ sectæ servabant, quique vix permittebat, ut quæ utilia aliæ habebant sectæ, collecta ad unam redirent.”—*Galen's Works*, Kühn Edition, *Preface by J. C. G. Ackermann.*

IN ancient times, physicians were chiefly divided into the three great sects of Dogmatics, Empirics, and Methodics. Besides these, were several minor divisions, based on the hypotheses they severally held respecting the nature of disease, or the principles on which its treatment should be conducted. But, as regards the extent of disease, or the means of cure, which each might include in the exercise of his office, no limit was placed, save that which his judgment or his inclination dictated. If the contentions arising from such divisions were condemned by

Galen, *as rendering medicine less certain and less useful*, how much more may this be affirmed of the corruptions and divisions of mediæval and modern times, the effects of which we are now to consider?

One palpable evil arising from the three corruptions and consequent divisions of these times, has been too evident in the foregoing inquiry, namely, the comparative elevation of one, by the degrading alliance of another section of the profession, and the corresponding exaggeration or depreciation of such diseases, or such means of cure, as were exclusively adopted or rejected by each successive invader of the physician's ranks. In this manner the superstitious practices of the Priest-physician—the operations and external appliances of the Barber-surgeon—the polypharmacy of the Apothecary-physician—have each had their day; one but following the other, through the still-existing want of unity, purity, and fulness in the physician's office.

To attempt a description of all the petty strivings, despicable jealousies, and moral delinquencies, arising from these compulsory divisions in times past, would be as hopeless as useless; it shall therefore be my aim to set forth some of the more extensive, though less acknowledged, enormities that are still existing, and especially such as are connected with the corruption and division established in England and Wales alone, and in this the nineteenth century! The evil effects engendered by each of

these corruptions may be traced, not only generally amongst the public and the profession, but especially in the Hospitals and Medical Schools, as well as in the various Licensing bodies, which, originating in them, have been tributary to them, and are, even at this day, the continued sources of corruption or division. These powerful contaminating influences are too prominent in all the channels through which of necessity the medical student enters on his professional life, acquires his medical knowledge, and is at last sent forth into the world, fraught *it may be* with much of light and truth and learning, but fettered *it must be* by the prejudices and selfish interest which attaches without exception more or less to the corporate body destined henceforth to be nominally his "alma mater." One great fact is evident in all the various Licensing bodies, the Universities and Medical Corporations of Great Britain and Ireland—that not one of these is at the present day entitled to grant to its members *by a single license* "to practise and exercise the science of physic in all and every its members and parts."*

Each of these contending factions has its own exclusive power and privilege, over which the prejudices and interested motives of past ages have cast a halo of importance proportioned to the limit assigned to it.

* This power, originally possessed by the College of Physicians, and preserved to the time of Harvey, was subsequently annihilated in the bye-law "Antequam quispiam." See Appendix, 26.

Thus it follows that he who only embraces and rigidly confines himself to the restricted limits of the individual body he represents, ranks highest in the estimation of that body, and assumes a purity forsooth *not* from the corruption *only* to which each and all of these bodies were for so many ages subjected, but in accordance with that Papal definition of purity,* which our Colleges of pure Physicians and pure Surgeons personate—he assumes to be “pure” from the branch of medicine exclusively assigned to the other.

This being the standard of perfection and purity set forth by our Royal Colleges, the evil effects extend of necessity throughout our Medical Schools and Hospitals. The exclusive object kept in view by the medical student who commences with such a definite prospect of his future destination in life, certainly leads to a narrow and contracted view of medicine rather than to an aim at general proficiency; yet, in spite of this, it not infrequently happens that the same man obtains the first prize both for medi-

* “Il est dit que les candidats, qui auront précédemment exercés la Chirurgie, ne seront point admis qu'ils ne se soient engagés par un acte passé pardevant notaires à n'en plus faire les opérations ‘Car’ ajoute le statut ‘il convient *de conserver pure et entière la dignité de l'Ordre des médecins.*’ Assurément les opérations chirurgicales n'ont rien de contraire à la dignité de la médecine. Un médecin qui a l'universalité des connaissances médicales joindroit l'habileté et l'exercice des opérations de la chirurgie, seroit dans le cas des anciens médecins et il compléteroit la profession.” — Crevier's *Histoire de l'Université de Paris*, tom. vii, p. 85.

cine and surgery, and what then is the career set before him under such circumstances? Much if not everything depends on his pecuniary means. Are they such as to allow the attempt, he probably becomes a candidate for honour rather than emolument, and determines to assume the "*higher*" status in his profession—that of "pure" physician or "pure" surgeon; and for this purpose he must subscribe to the division and distinction effected in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. If the former, that of "pure physician," be his choice, he must henceforth close his eyes to all external wounds, injuries, and diseases; he must advance to the enemy with his hands tied, although he has proved himself eminently qualified for the treatment of all such diseases, and the use of all those means of cure, which it would have been, previous to this division, his privilege to adopt as a part of the physician's office; if the latter, that of "pure surgeon," be the channel through which he aspires to the highest honours and appointments in his profession, then he must nominally ignore all cases excepting those his eye can see, his hand can touch, or his instruments can reach; and thus of necessity he perpetuates to the present day the first great compulsory and invidious division in the physician's office, as enjoined by the narrow limits of the Royal Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons.

Having, however, taken this more ambitious

course, should he lack the means necessary for his independent support, ere he realises his hopes of hospital or other appointments hereby expressed; or should he, after many years of drudgery, anxiety, and contention, fail to obtain these appointments through lack of interest, or a variety of other unforeseen causes, what is the consequence? He then, if not before, either leaves the profession in despair (as many of the best and wisest men are too often doing),* or, after this lengthened pursuit of unworthy examples, he sinks into what has been called the "*lower grade*," and henceforth becomes a candidate for emolument rather than honour.

Should this last be his determination, either from the commencement of his career, or after an ineffectual effort to attain the "*higher*" status, what, then, is the course open to him? He is permitted, not only to undertake the practice of medicine in "all and every its members and parts;" but, in addition to this, another man's labours are *imposed on him*, whereby all hope of *fully* cultivating, improving, and exhibiting the talent and attainments he had previously evinced is for ever extinguished, and he becomes a "*general practitioner*." Thus, unwillingly compelled by his "*mode of practice and remuneration*" to personate the third rather than

* Two striking instances have been recently brought before the public in one family, that of the late Lord Langdale, and his nephew the present Bishop of Ripon, both originally students in medicine.

the two previous usurpers of the physician's office, it must be acknowledged that the more he assimilates himself to the apothecary of the last century, and thereby lends his authority to the trading in drugs, so much the more *quickly and easily does he realise the hope of emolument, and the more perfectly does he represent the third great usurper of medicine in this kingdom.*

As in our Licensing bodies and our Schools, so also in our Hospitals, the interested objects of sections and individuals are too often consulted, rather than the general good—the high and ennobling purposes of ministering to the poor especially, and to the public, and the profession generally, the full extent of those benefits they are so eminently calculated to impart. If we take, for instance, some of our oldest and best Hospitals, their boast is, the number of patients *seen* (but scarcely seen) by their medical officers in each revolving year.

By the excessive number of the patients, however disproportioned to their medical staff,* the merit of each is supposed to be established, instead of by a well-recorded history of the diseases treated, and the results obtained. What, then, is the consequence? That the sick and wearied, it may be the starving, *poor* are kept waiting half or all the day;

* “Ex his autem intelligi potest ab uno medico multos non posse curari; eumque, si artifex est, idoneum esse, qui non multum ab ægro recedit.”—Celsus, lib. iii, cap. iv.

the Physician or Surgeon, exhausted and unfitted for his private practice (if he has any), is physically unequal to the task he has undertaken, and therefore deposes his pupils to the work. Thus it is, no efficient record of this fearful amount of disease is kept, and the poor, the public, and the profession, are each denied the fair and just amount of good to which they are all legitimately entitled; whilst, if this staff was increased five, or even tenfold in some instances, the advantages to all parties would be in more than an equal ratio.

Again, how often are dissensions occurring with these interested parties, in this attempt at impossibilities, and what then happens? We have committees, and governors, it is not too much to say, perverting the funds entrusted to their care in establishing new institutions, opposition hospitals, or dispensaries, not on account of their need in the localities chosen—not to serve the interests of the poor, the public, or the profession—but for the support of their respective protégées in these feuds and divisions.

In this manner we may see the narrow and selfish interests of our corporate bodies, received each alike from their *primary* representatives, the Priest, the Barber, and the Apothecary, are reflected in our Schools, our Hospitals, and subsequently in the individual members of their respective communities.

Such are the prospects—such the results of these

divisions—set before the medical student by the Licensing bodies, the Schools, and the Hospitals, for his choice in his passage through life. But, in order rightly to understand the connection of existing institutions with *their own duties* as enjoined in their *original charters*, and with the present divided state of the medical profession in England and Wales, we may reasonably inquire how far the ruling power in each division has failed to obtain the especial objects for which that power was appointed. Blackstone says that “The general duties of all bodies politic, considered in their corporate capacity, may, like those of natural persons, be reduced to this single one—that of acting up to the end or design, whatever it be, for which they were created by their founder.”

That the College of Physicians has failed in two chief purposes for which that college was created, namely, *to suppress quackery, and to make of one body all who exercised the faculty of medicine*,* admits of no doubt. So also, though the College of Surgeons, as well as the College of Physicians, have separated themselves from the *corruption* with which each branch of medicine, peculiar to these establishments, had been for so many ages united, yet has no approach been made towards effacing the *division*, which arose at the same time, and pro-

* See Charter, 10 Hen. VIII. Appendix, 16.

ceeded from the same authorities.* This schism remains perhaps as complete, in some respects, between the orthodox representatives of either branch, as in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries; whilst it must be confessed that in the great mass of the profession there still persists much of that assumption on the one hand, and subordination on the other, which was then for the first time engendered. For, although a certain *voluntary* division of the physician's office in large towns may be, and is, productive of great advantage, yet the same, if pursued *by compulsion*, must be an immense evil. The encouragement given to such divisions by the law of this land, has without doubt also led to the many minor subdivisions, the wilful exaggeration of trivial diseases, and individual means of cure, as exhibited in the increasing "specialities" and quackeries of the present times; these being—especially if combined with a sacrifice of principle—the most profitable mode of practice.† Many other evil effects of the first great division may be adduced, but it is with the last *division and corruption*, as legalised by the Act of 1815, that I would especially desire to contend.

The failure of all previous enactments, especially of the Physicians' Charter 10 Henry VIII, and the Apothecaries Charter 13 Jac. I, was the cause of

* The *Priest-Physician* and the *Barber-Surgeon*.

† For their mediæval analogues, see *antè*, p. 32.

further legislation at that time. For the purpose of ascertaining how far the law then made has succeeded, we may again inquire what were the objects of the promoters of that act; and to what extent have these objects been attained?

The objects originally designed were, as described by John Mason Good, 1796, "to obtain redress against the following evils:

"1. The encroachment which chemists and druggists have, of late years, made on the profession of the apothecary, by vending pharmaceutic preparations, and compounding the prescriptions of physicians.*

"2. The want of a competent jurisdiction in the profession itself, to regulate its practice, and to restrain ignorant and unqualified persons from practising at all."

These and other grievances were widely canvassed by the various contending interests during the following twenty years, and were at length proposed to be remedied by the strange and anomalous Act of 1815, in which not only the hitherto *exclusive* powers and privileges of the College of Physicians were completely usurped, but those of the Society of "Pharmacopolites" of 1616 were as completely abrogated; inasmuch as by that act the Society of Apothecaries was authorised—after due education and examination—to grant licenses in the "*science*

* Exclusively assigned to him by charter, 1616. See Appendix, 22.

and practice of medicine," as well as that of pharmacy;* whilst chemists and druggists were permitted, without either education or examination, to "buy, prepare, compound, dispense, and vend drugs, medicines, medicinal compounds, wholesale and retail,"† and, in short, to perform all the responsible and important duties for which this society was originally and *solely* instituted.

That the effect of this Act has been far from preventing the "encroachment of chemists and druggists" is very evident:‡ that "ignorant and unqualified persons are not restrained from practising" may be as easily perceived in the unprecedented success of patent medicine vendors, and multitudes of other devices in the same direction.§

If so far the object has again failed, we may next ask, has it supplied the great desideratum refused by the College of Physicians during the three preceding centuries? Has it provided a "competent jurisdiction in the profession of medicine," whereby a number of well-educated practitioners in "all and every its members and parts" equal to the demands

* 55 Geo. III, c. 194, secs. 14 and 15. Appendix, 29a.

† Ibid., sec. 28. Appendix, 29b.

‡ The number of chemists and druggists throughout England and Wales in the year 1831 was about 5336; whereas by the Census of 1851 we find the number increased to 14,307, besides 13,470 general practitioners or apothecary-physicians.

§ Professor Holloway is said to pay £30,000 annually for advertising *his especial* means of cure by pills and ointment. See 'Quarterly Rev.,' June, 1855.

of the public has been supplied? That this has been chiefly effected by the above society, in conjunction with the College of Surgeons, may as confidently be answered in the affirmative; thus proving that by the Act of 1815 the functions of the College of Physicians have been superseded, or vicariously performed, whilst those of the original society of apothecaries have been grossly neglected, and in their turn superseded by the voluntary establishment of the Pharmaceutical Society.

The evidence of all branches of the profession, given before the "Select Committee on Medical Education" in 1834, testifies that even at that time the Apothecaries' Society came behind no examining body in England and Wales for all practical purposes.*

Since then their progress in every direction is extensive and unquestionable, so that in less than forty years we have 13,470 licentiates in the science and practice of medicine—the efficient attendants in ordinary on all classes of society. If this result be compared with the progress of the College of Physicians during the three preceding centuries, which first limited its number to 20, and never exceeded 260, the contrast is striking.†

Had a different course been pursued by that

* See Sir D. Barry's evidence, 2583—Sir H. Halford, and many others.

† See *antè*, p. 84.

college even in 1618*—had the supply of physicians been in any measure equal to the necessities of the public—the medical profession of this kingdom might have held a far different position than at the present day; and might have effaced the remains of former corruptions and divisions, instead of not only perpetuating these, but creating, establishing, and at length legalising a third corruption and consequent division, *unparalleled in the history of the whole civilised world*. We might now have borne comparison as a “*unum corpus in re et nomine*”† with any other nations of the earth for purity, perfection, and distinction in either office. “Dietetics” and “Pharmaceutics” might have again joined hand in hand with “Chirurgics,” and thus a college of pure physicians have grown with the growth and advancement of our nation, on the same basis as in the times of Herophilus and Erasistratus of old, combining all that reason and experience could combine, in opposition to all that superstition and dishonesty might advance; instead of adopting the purity of the Priest and the Barber—with that of the Apothecary superadded.

“Union is strength”‡ of the peculiar character we most require. In each section of the profession, even in spite of the hindrances existing—every

* See *antè*, p. 81.

† Charter, 10 Hen. VIII.

‡ “*Vis unita fortior*” was the motto of Harvey. See ‘Willis’s Life,’ p. xxxiii.

individual who honestly pursues his course, whether as physician, surgeon, or “general practitioner,” has such influence and power as, if united, would overcome all present difficulties; but, we are a “house divided against itself;” we are the “bundle of sticks” divided and scattered; whereby all are not only weak and helpless for the general good, but worse—each is a weapon against the other.

The annexed table* of the relative number of physicians and apothecaries in the great nations of the earth, will speak for itself; but a short analysis may render more evident one evil effect of this third great innovation. In those states where the number of apothecaries is limited by law, as in Germany, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and others, they are considered too numerous, and not generally allowed,

* In order that the statements therein made, regarding the ratio of prescribing and dispensing practitioners, may not appear exaggerated, I have taken the medical statistics for England and Wales, from the Census returns for 1851, although an analysis of the medical profession made from the ‘Directory’ for 1856, by Mr. G. W. Stansfield, gives the proportion of “pure” or prescribing physicians as only 397 out of 10,220 practitioners, who are there classified according to the different qualifications they possess, being derived from thirty-four different sources in the United Kingdom, and fifty-five in Foreign States!!

The “pure” or prescribing surgeons included in the 13,470 “surgeons and apothecaries” of the last census, are omitted altogether in the following comparisons; these being far more than *counter*-balanced by a much larger proportion of the same number (Dr. Taylor says 8000 or 9000), who keep open shops and dispense the prescriptions of other practitioners; so also, the term “*druggist*” in England and Wales, is viewed as synonymous with the “*apothecary*” of foreign states.

State.	Year.	Area in English square miles.	Population.	Physicians.		Apothecaries.		Population to one physician.	Population to one apothecary.	Ratio of apothecaries to physicians.
				Physicians. Surgeons.	Apothecary-Physicians or and	Physicians. Surgeons.	Apothecaries. Druggists.			
RUSSIA (European)	1850	2,000,000	62,088,000	8,089	...	714	7,675	86,957	1 to 11.3	
AUSTRIA	1851	257,368	36,514,397	12,546	...	2,951	2,910	12,373	1 to 4.2	
PRUSSIA	1853	107,900	16,858,087	5,650	...	1,497	2,983	11,261	1 to 3.7	
FRANCE	1851	203,736	35,783,170	18,081	...	5,372	1,979	6,661	1 to 3.3	
IRELAND	1851	31,741	6,515,794	2,439	...	984	2,671	6,621	1 to 2.4	
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA	1850	3,306,865	23,191,876	40,755	...	6,139	569	3,777	1 to 6.6	
SCOTLAND	1851	31,324	2,888,742	511	1,576	1,227*	1,384†	2,354	2.4 to 1	
BRITISH ISLANDS	1851	394	143,126	46	116	93*	883†	1,538	2 to 1	
ENGLAND AND WALES	1851	58,320	17,927,609	1,771	13,470	14,307*	1,176†	1,253	8 to 1	

* The only individuals in the Table without any required education, examination, or qualification.

† Physicians, Surgeons, and Apothecary-Physicians are all considered as filling the office of Physician.

NOTE.—The statistics of the Medical Profession for the United Kingdom, France, and the United States of America are taken from the Census returns for either country; those for Russia from the 'Brit. and For. Medico-Chir. Rev.,' vol. viii, p. 561; those for Austria and Prussia from the 'Med. Times and Gaz.,' 1855 and 1856.

if they exceed the ratio of 1 to about 10,000 of the population; but in Russia one apothecary is deemed sufficient for 86,957 inhabitants! In other states, where no limit is placed, excepting such as the public demand imposes for the performance of the true and legitimate functions of their several professions, the number varies from 1 to 3777 in the United States, to 1 to 6660 in France; whilst in England and Wales we find that—*besides the* 13,470 *general practitioners*—there is at the least 1 apothecary (druggist) to every 1253 inhabitants.

This table may be fairly viewed in a variety of ways, by which the contrast with other states becomes still more apparent. For instance, if the 13,470 apothecary-physicians who are all ready to dispense the prescriptions of “pure” physicians when in attendance with themselves, be added to the 14,307 “pure” apothecaries—we have 27,777 persons performing this office, or 1 to 645. Again, if it be true—as without doubt it is—that nine tenths of the population are nominally in the hands of the general practitioner, as their *ordinary medical attendant*, the same number must be excluded from the need of a “pure” apothecary, being supplied with all necessary drugs, as well as with advice, by the same individual. How then stands the proportion of apothecaries to the remaining one tenth of the population? There exists no less a number than 14,307

apothecaries to supply medicines for 1,792,760 inhabitants, or 1 to every 125 of the population.

Once more ; excluding as before the general practitioners, who perform the double office—if we compare the proportion of professedly “pure” apothecaries or dispensers, 14,307, with “pure” physicians or prescribers, 1771, in England and Wales, we perceive that instead of 1 apothecary to 11 physicians, as in Russia ; or 1 to 3, as in the German States, we have no less than 8 apothecaries to 1 physician, or, in other words, our ratio of apothecaries to physicians, in comparison with that of foreign states, in round numbers, stands thus :

We have 90 in the place of 1 in Russia.			
„	52	„	1, United States.
„	33	„	1, Austria.
„	29	„	1, Prussia.
„	26	„	1, France.

Finally, it may with truth be stated, that the physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries, who are educated, examined, and commissioned by law *collectively* to practise medicine and pharmacy in England and Wales, are ample in numbers for all classes of the public, if rightly apportioned, and if each individual be restricted to his separate and distinct duties, according to the example of all other nations ; *and that therefore the whole 14,307 druggists*

are supernumeraries!!! For instance, if from the 15,241 licensed practitioners in medicine and pharmacy* three fourths of that number were assigned to the practice of medicine, and the remaining one fourth to that of pharmacy—we should thus appear in the table, and even then retain *a much larger number* for the several offices of physician and apothecary than any other state excepting America :

Population.	Physicians.	Apothecaries	Population to 1 physician.	Population to 1 apothecary.	Apothecaries to physicians.
17,927,609	11,430	3,810	1,568	4,705	1 to 3

Now, what is the inevitable result of this consideration, viewed in the most favorable light, as regards one mode of illicit practice throughout this portion of the kingdom ?

The testimony of other countries, as well as our own,† has affirmed that the prescriptions of three physicians, even if in full practice, are no more than sufficient to support one apothecary—therefore if we deduct this equivalent, that is, 590 druggists as necessary for the 1771 prescribing physicians, there remain 13,717‡ druggists without any means of support, excepting those afforded them by *their own prescriptions*.

This extensive and illegitimate practice of medi-

* 1771 Physicians + 13,470 Surgeons and Apothecaries = 15,241.

† See 'Stow's Survey of London' (Strype's), book v, p. 233.

‡ 14,307 — 590 = 13,717.

cine must then be acknowledged as one great evil effect of a departure from the distinction contended for, and rigidly observed in all other nations. If the so-called "counter practice" of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries had not been established; and perpetuated, even at the present day, by a large number of licensed practitioners in medicine, as well as by druggists generally, this mode of practice would never have been permitted in England and Wales any more than in other countries.*

Now, although it is not supposed that *free* England could tolerate the restrictions in number such as are imposed in Russia, Austria, Prussia, and other states; yet it is equally certain that if each individual, whether physician or apothecary—in the true meaning of the word—had been confined to his own distinct office, and each one fitted for that office by the highest and the fullest qualifications, both

* A celebrated writer of the last century (see 'Smith's Wealth of Nations,' p. 51) asserts that the apothecary of his day—then uneducated and unexamined—was "the physician to the poor at all times, and to the rich whenever the disease is without danger." In many parts of England this is as true of the druggist at the present time, as it was of—his analogue—the apothecary, when the above was written. See Rumsey in his 'Essays on State Medicine,' p. 103, where he states, amongst other proofs of this fact, that in a correspondence with the medical officers of health lately appointed in a few towns of England and Wales, one replies respecting the certificates of the cause of death in the following terms:—"Not as it ought to be. The registrars take certificates from all kinds of illegal practitioners. Some time ago I took off from one file nineteen certificates given by a druggist!" See also letter from Mr. Leigh, of Manchester, in 'Reg.-Gen. Report' for 1852, Appendix, p. 21.

would have been here, as elsewhere, proportioned in some measure to the need of the public and each other.

Individual instances of these evil effects are daily occurring in practice to all who are the representatives of one or the other of these great corruptions and divisions. They may be seen in the following not solitary or imaginary cases. A Fellow of the College of Physicians bewails his inability to ascertain the cause of an irritable bladder in a patient who, having for a long time suffered, leaves a distant province to seek his advice. A few minutes might determine whether stricture, enlarged prostate, or calculus were the cause; but to search for these is forbidden, either for the satisfaction of himself or his patient, and each must, therefore, remain in ignorance, or entail on the sufferer double fees. The latter course is *tardily* adopted, but the "pure surgeon" who decides these questions must, too truly, represent the barber of old, by assuming in the presence of the "pure physician" and his patient no knowledge of internal or constitutional treatment; otherwise a contention too often arises as to the limit of each in the treatment of the case. Again, A. B., æt. thirty-nine, suffers for more than twelve months from irritable diarrhœa, and a variety of other distressing dysenteric symptoms, during which time alteratives, sedatives, tonics, and astringents were prescribed "more solito," but

without effect. One careful digital examination, a means foreign to the office of a "pure physician," discovers fissure of the anus, with engorgement and retroflexion of the uterus. Division of the one, and reduction of the other, speedily corrects that which internal medicines had so long failed to do; and the patient quickly recovers. These are the viscera, where, if such diseases arise, the limit is undefined and undefinable; so that neglect of some or other of the means of cure follows, and these border wars ensue.

C. D., a wealthy dowager, has a large carbuncle on the neck; a Fellow of the College of Physicians cannot sacrifice so good a patient, therefore he calls in a "pure surgeon" for *external* incisions and applications, but himself remains first in command for *internal* treatment.

E. F., an eminent barrister, has suffered for some weeks from local inflammation and mischief, the consequence of a fishbone impacted in the rectum. One most celebrated in the treatment of such cases, carefully examines, discerns the cause, and applies the necessary remedies; but his patient is evidently sinking; a "pure physician," two days before his death, is called in, ascertains the cause of his symptoms to be pneumonia, undetected before his visit. Surely such cases as the foregoing would have met more ready aid from the bright examples of

antiquity, than in the divided and contracted office of modern times.

It would be irksome to recount these everyday cases: only one more shall be added to corroborate the preceding statement. A "pure surgeon," who, after many years of patient toil and suffering, now fills an *honorable* hospital appointment, was tempted at one period of his career to consider—owing to pecuniary difficulties—a promising partnership or purchase in the "lower grade;" but with what disgust did he turn from the negotiation, when informed that a considerable source of emolument—arising from this lucrative business, combined with the physician's office—was hair oil, sold in small bottles to the lowest prostitutes!

These individual cases are adduced simply as proofs of the mode in which that office is perpetuated in this metropolis of the world in the nineteenth century. Such cases are not few and far between; they are not the exceptions to the general rule; but are every day arising from the divisions enjoined, and the corruption established by law, in this portion of the civilised world alone. Thus it is, every man entering the medical profession is *compelled*, more or less, to emulate the specious "purity" of the priest, the barber, or the apothecary, of which the three corporate bodies in this metropolis are, by their several divisions, but the legalised representatives. Hence it is, a want of unity and harmony exists, not

only in the use of means, but in the mode of practice and remuneration. Hence that alternate elevation or depression of the one or the other by the various contending interests, which leads to the numerous and often disgusting "specialities," the too perfect re-enactment of the Cordonnier of Phædrus.

Whilst a corrupt and superstitious church assumed the reins of government in the medical profession, whilst the senses—as well as the reason—were in servile submission to its authority, the long list of tombs and relics of saints and martyrs eclipsed all other means of cure, and that church claimed an exclusive right to each and every part of the human frame, whereon to exercise its *miraculous power*.

In the struggle with returning light and truth all external injuries and diseases afforded too ready a test for *such powers*, and were therefore confided to the barber, smith, and other menials, who thenceforward, and in this department, assumed the physician's office. As long as the ignorant barber-surgeon retained his sway, the knife and the actual cautery were his prescribed weapons; so that he who removed by fire or scalpel the most of his unfortunate patient, or became free and fearless in the use of either, was proclaimed the most skilful surgeon, and the term "conservative surgery" is but of yesterday's date.

As long as ointments, plasters, and external appli-

cations were the means assigned to him, the use of these was magnified, so that no cure could be effected without them. As improvements were slowly introduced in these individual branches, the transition to a better state of things was in some instances no less amusing than instructive. One of the most remarkable on record, is the marvellous effect of the "sympathetic powder" of Sir Kenelm Digby, knight, of Montpellier, 1658, which is thus related by the late Dr. Paris:—"Whenever any wound had been inflicted, this powder was applied to the weapon that had inflicted it, which was, moreover, covered with ointment, and dressed two or three times a day. The wound itself, in the mean time, was directed to be brought together, and carefully bound up with clean linen rags; but, ABOVE ALL, TO BE LET ALONE for seven days, at the end of which period the bandages were removed, when the wound was generally found perfectly united. The triumph of the cure was decreed to the mysterious agency of the sympathetic powder which had been so assiduously applied to the weapon; whereas it is hardly necessary to observe, that the promptness of the cure depended upon the total exclusion of air from the wound, and upon the sanative operations of nature not having received any disturbance from the officious interference of art. The result, beyond all doubt, furnished the first hint which led surgeons to the improved

practice of healing wounds by what is technically called *the first intention*.*

So also alchymy and astrology have yielded their useful hints to chemistry and astronomy; so often have the greatest truths sprung from the most corrupt and subtle devices.

The chief quackeries of the present day are but parallel instances of a transition state from the errors and impostures of past times—the exaltation of one to the disparagement of another means of cure; and, it may be hoped, will, in like manner, lead to the acknowledgment of long-neglected means, the harmonious cultivation and use of all, and the general improvement of medicine.

Celsus, after recounting the confidence of Herophilus in *medicines*, tells us that "Asclepiades in a great measure laid aside their use, because they offend the stomach and afford bad juices; he chose to apply all his care to the management of *the diet*. But, though this be *most useful in most distempers*, yet many disorders are incident to our bodies, which cannot be totally removed without *medicines*."†

Homœopathists of the nineteenth century are but acting on the same principle that Asclepiades adopted—in opposition to his predecessor Herophilus—some two thousand years ago, and which

* Paris's 'Pharmacologia,' Historical Introduction, p. 17.

† Grieve's 'Celsus,' book 5, preface.

Celsus affirmed was "non sine causâ." So, at the present day, have Homœopathists and others clearly discerned, not only the neglect of "Dietetics,"* but the intolerance of the public to the abuse of "Pharmaceutics," engendered in this country, by the invasion of the apothecary in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. *They* have chosen to ignore the maxim of those who, "nullum morbi genus, sine his curarent;"† but, without the honesty of Asclepiades, *they* wilfully assign the "methodus medendi" to the "*globules*," as did Sir Kenelm Digby to the "sympathetic powder," rather than to "Dietetics" and the UNINTERRUPTED EFFORTS OF NATURE.

So also Hydropathists, on the same ground, and for the same reasons, have retraced *their* steps to the temples of Æsculapius, or the convents and monasteries of the dark ages, ascribing to *their* mysterious system, the health-giving, invigorating effects of the localities they have chosen, as well as the dietetic measures comprised in the first four books of Celsus—the "Airs, Waters, and Places" of Hippocrates, and all such means as, if not totally neglected in the last century, were *completely eclipsed* by the abuse of pharmaceutics. What are the so-called hydropathic establishments of Malvern and

* In its comprehensive signification occupying the first four books of Celsus.

† Ibid., book 5.

elsewhere, but the re-erection of the temples of Epidaurus, the convents of Monte-Casino? In what consists the practice of “Kinesipathists” and others, but an imitation of the Greeks and Romans with their frictions and their exercises—their baths and their gymnasia? How greatly conducive to health each and all of these hygienic and dietetic means are,* in their several and respective places, when honestly pursued, every unprejudiced mind will allow; but, through their neglect by *the physician*, and their assumption by *the charlatan*, they are too often viewed only as the exclusive province of quacks and impostors; by whom the atom of truth, carefully overlaid with a mountain of falsehood, inevitably tends to disgrace the man who would boldly search out and contend for these acknowledged means of cure.

If such be the state of the medical profession, can we wonder if, or need we ask why, insults and indignities—rather than the honour and emolument of olden times—are now heaped on its representatives in the army and navy? It is but the reflection on them of the social position to which that profession has been consigned by these several corruptions and divisions—especially that branch of it, whose name they bear, the “surgeon” and “apothecary.”

* Why have we no professors of this neglected branch of therapeutics? The subject of HYGIENE is scarcely heard in our schools, as if it were the physician's office to create—rather than prevent—the diseases wherewith he contends.

cary.”* Is it not degrading to our country, as well as to our profession, that in the late war (side by side with our gallant allies) the honoured name of *physician* was not known in connection with either branch of the service; as if men, who were pouring out their life's blood in defence of their country, were not worthy a *physician's care*, or he who filled that office a *physician's name*.

The same pen that transcribed in well-known accents, the praise accorded to Machaon at the Trojan war, told us also of the converse accruing to that office at the time he wrote.†

Pope, in his translation of the Iliad, thus echoes the praises of the ancient physician :

“The spouse of Helen, dealing darts around,
Had pierc'd Machaon with a distant wound :
In his right shoulder the broad shaft appear'd,
And *trembling Greece* for her *physician* fear'd.
To Nestor then Idomeneus begun :
'Glory of Greece, old Neleus' valiant son !
Ascend thy chariot, haste with speed away,
And *great Machaon* to the ships convey.
A wise physician, skill'd our wounds to heal,
Is more than armies to the public weal.'”

Not only was “trembling Greece” anxious for the safety of her “blameless physician,” her “shep-

* “Surgeons,” “assistant-surgeons,” and “apothecaries,” are the only medical officers in either service.

† So modern 'Pothecaries, taught the art,
By Doctor's bills to play the Doctor's part,
Bold in the practice of mistaken rules,
Prescribe, apply, and call their masters fools.

herd of the people," not only was he confided to the care of the wise and aged Nestor, but even Achilles was melted to pity: during his estrangement from the seige he—

“ From the topmost height
Of his proud fleet o'erlook'd the fields of fight;
His feasted eyes beheld around the plain
The Grecian rout, the slaying and the slain;
His friend Machaon singled from the rest,
A transient pity touch'd his vengeful breast.”

And Patroclus was forthwith despatched in tender solicitude to hear some tidings of this “Greek's preserver.”

Podalirius, too, meets no less honour and reward when returning from the siege: he is tempest-tossed on the coast of Caria, too near those shores where his representatives, with three thousand years of accumulated experience, have so recently received a far different fate.

It is recorded of him, that, being summoned by King Damœtus, for the recovery of his daughter from an accident she had sustained, he received, when the cure was effected, that princess in marriage, together with the Chersonesus.*

Such is the testimony of ancient writers to the estimation in which this honorable vocation was then held; but how changed all this is at the present day the press of this kingdom too truly and abundantly witnesses. More especially does a

* ‘History of Medicine,’ by J. C. Lettsom, M.D., p. 12.

righteous indignation issue from those divisions of the kingdom that have shared the odium, though with far less of the blame than our own boasted metropolis.

Dr. Simpson, in a recently published inaugural address to the graduates of the University of Edinburgh, too faithfully depicts how much of opposition, how little of encouragement, was before them in their future course, save that which a "mens conscia recti" would always yield.* So also the 'Dublin Quarterly Journal of Medicine,'† contains the following just remarks when reviewing the first number of a set of illustrations of the Anatomical Museum of Stockholm, just published under the immediate auspices of the king, the expenses of publication being defrayed at the public cost: "It is a no less humiliating than singular truth, that England is the only country on the face of the earth in which the study of medicine meets with neither encouragement nor reward. We are not at present going to speak of what the sanguinary war, in which we are now engaged, has rendered patent to all, that the surgeon who ministers to the sick and wounded soldier to the detriment of his own health often, and generally to the risk of his own life, receiving but the pay of the commonest skilful mechanic at home, is debarred from even all honorary reward, his just

* See 'Edinburgh Medical Journal, September, 1855.

† November, 1853.

expectation of promotion coldly negatived, and his retiring allowance, when no longer able to serve from shattered health acquired in his country's cause,—nay, we might, without exaggeration, say, in fighting his country's battles,—cut down with the most parsimonious and illiberal economy.

“ We only refer now to the total ignoring of medical literature by the government of our country. Does the legislature for a moment condescend on the motion of some one of its members to consider that the state of medicine in the British Islands might be advanced by some alteration in the governing laws, the relics of ancient times, which regulate the various corporate bodies to whom its management was entrusted in days of old? The home minister, as occurred in the last session of Parliament, calls for returns, reports, and advice from each; but such must be made and given at their own expense, too often out of the most limited funds. How differently fares the church! How differently fares the law!* On the members of the latter profession especially no amount of money that can be spent is considered too lavish. What British Parliament in our days ever thought even of recommending a grant of money to aid in bringing before the profession, by publication, a portion of the vast stores

* It may well be added, the army and navy also. What liberal grants are made to test and improve their mighty engines for the destruction of life!! whilst the art of preserving health or prolonging life is worthy of no such assistance.

of knowledge that lie accumulated in the great pathological collections which enrich the medical museums of the capitals of the three divisions of our kingdom? Yet such grants are of annual course in every nation of Europe.

“Barbaric Russia enabled Auvert to publish his magnificent work on Pathological Anatomy; but we suppose civilised England would not deign to take a lesson from her enemy. Will she then learn from her ally? France places a munificent sum yearly at the disposal of the Academy of Medicine, for the promotion and advancement of medical literature.

“The little state of Denmark enabled Danielssen and Boeck to publish their splendidly illustrated volume on a cruel form of leprosy, which is endemic amongst the inhabitants of Northern Europe. In America, nearly every state promotes its medical society, and aids in the publication of its transactions.

“But what need we to multiply examples? Every member of our profession knows only too well, that he has nothing to hope for from government assistance. Let him devote the energies of his life, let him wear out his constitution, let him toil day after day to relieve the sick, let him night after night labour for the literature of his profession, adopting for his symbol, as did the physician of old—Tulpius of Amsterdam, a lighted lamp with the

device, 'Aliis inserviando consumor,' he can hope for no public honour or reward! Let him ruin his fortune or wreck his health for the public weal, he will drop into his grave, so far as regards the ruling powers of his country, unwept, unhonoured, and unsung."

If such be the universally acknowledged contrast of the medical profession in this country, not only with that of ancient times, but with that of foreign states at the present day, whence has it arisen, but from the more extensive corruptions and divisions herein depicted, and their consequent degradations? The last great invasion of our ranks—that from which we now more especially suffer—had been clearly seen from its commencement! but the only efficient remedy was *illegally* withholden by those who alone had the power to create and apply it; and thus the College of Physicians became the fountain of corruption rather than of that "purity," to secure which it was originally established. Towards the end of the seventeenth and throughout the whole of the eighteenth century, this increasing evil was repeatedly testified against, yet without avail. "In 1688 the college was admonished by Lord Chancellor Jeffries. A little prior to the year 1700, a petition was preferred to the Lord Chancellor Somers, and to the judges, by several fellows of the College, complaining—That a prevailing party of the College had combined in a fraudulent and surreptitious

manner, and made illegal statutes and by-laws, and annexed rigorous penalties,” &c.

“In 1702, as already stated, they were accused by Sir Richard Blackmore, Dr. Tyson, and others, of narrowing their bottom, and thereby excluding many worthy practitioners of physic in the city, from their society.” And in 1768 they were cautioned by Lord Mansfield “against narrowing their grounds of admission so much that if even a Boerhaave should be resident here he could not be admitted into their fellowship.” And his Lordship said upon the same occasion, “I would recommend it to the College, to take the best advice in reviewing their statutes; and to attend to the design and intention of the crown and parliament in their institution. I see a source of great dispute and litigation in them as they now stand; there has not, as it should seem, been due consideration had of the charter, or legal advice taken in forming them;” a hint which he repeated in 1771.* At the same time that the restriction, both in number and functions, of the “pure physician” was loudly protested against, no less evident was the simultaneous and consequent encroachment of apothecaries.

Stow thus writes in the year 1720 :† “It is thought by some that London and the suburbs are overstocked with apothecaries, reputed the number

* ‘Ferris’s View of the Establishment of Physic,’ p. 129.

† ‘Stow’s Survey of London, book v, p. 233.

of them to be near one thousand: whereas in Paris there were but fifty-one; in Stockholm and Copenhagen but four or five apiece; and in Hamburg but one apothecary's shop. For it is said, that one apothecary is sufficient to make up the prescriptions of at least three physicians, and those too of good business. In the fourth year of King James I (1607), the king incorporated the apothecaries with the grocers, to be one body corporate and politic. They were again divided from the grocers, and made a body corporate of their own by a charter of the same king (1616), in which charter are all the apothecaries' names inserted, beginning with William Besse, amounting to one hundred and four—which we may conclude to be all of that calling in London and the suburbs at that time."*

Hence it is, that the office of physician has fallen in public estimation, in proportion as it has renounced its high and original destination, and become the victim of these several usurpers at the periods referred to. Hence it is, that insults and ignominy are the portion of men who at the siege of Sebastopol deigned to accept that office, which in ancient times earned rewards and eulogies, the records of which have reached us—in what bitter contrast!—at the present day.

Another evil effect of breaking down a distinction

* The Census of 1851 gives 3407 surgeons and apothecaries, 2670 druggists, resident within the Registrar-General's Bills of Mortality.

that should ever have existed here, as in all other parts of the civilised world, is the entire absence of restraint in the *sale of poisons*, as well as in the practice of pharmacy. Not only are our bills of mortality increased by the mistakes of careless and ignorant druggists, but, from the great facility given for the criminal use of opium and other poisons amongst infants as well as adults, *murder and suicide* too frequently result. What fearful disclosures have been made of late years in this respect, too often in connection with those who were filling the double office of physician and pharmacopolite, prescriber and purveyor of the deadly drug! The horrible cases of infanticide in connection with burial clubs, have but recently, through the higher premium of insurance offices, called forth a more scientific and ingenious exercise of the same means of destruction amongst adults. Again, the resort of wretched females to these "doctors' shops," for the wilful destruction of their immature offspring, is another notorious fact, resulting from this compound office, this prescribing and trading of the same individual. Might not all such practices, in a great measure, be prevented were the "litera scripta" of the authorised physician the only warrant for issuing such fatal weapons? Might not a register be hereby kept of the purpose of the physician, and the faithfulness of the apothecary, as well as a means of indemnity to both, and in some degree of safety to the public?

The "Health of Towns Commission"* exhibits the state of our manufacturing and mining districts, as regards the more gradual though not less fatal practice of drugging infants. "The child is peevish by day and by night; the nurse hired by its mother to tend her infant, while she labours at the factory, is peevish too, and wants peace; or at night the parents are weary and want rest. Recourse is therefore had, by both nurse and mother, to 'infant's quietness,' one teaspoonful at the age of three months; 'Godfrey's quietness,' dose twelve to fourteen drops; soothing syrups, &c. Sales of these opiate mixtures for infants by fifteen vendors residing in Ashton-under-Lyne amount to the enormous quantity of nearly *seven gallons* weekly."

Dr. Southwood Smith says that, among the facts brought to light by the "Children's Employment Commission," one of the most remarkable is the extent to which opium is proved to be used by the poorer classes, and more especially the extent to which it is given by mothers to their children.

Amongst others, "Dr. Mitchell, one of the sub-commissioners, reports, that the medical witnesses examined by him state that the infants and children are seldom brought to them before they are benumbed and stupified with opiates; the usual preparation given being Godfrey's cordial; a mixture of treacle and opium, known by the name of 'comfort,' and an

* See First Report.

article in constant demand. A little girl will come to the chemist and ask for a dose of it to give to the baby next day, telling him that her mother is going out to wash. A respectable chemist stated that he made twenty gallons of 'comfort' in the year, and that there were chemists who lived near the market-place, and more in the way of the country people, who made a good deal more."

“ Speaking of the districts of Nottingham, Derby, and Leicester, another sub-commissioner, Mr. Grainger, states, that the practice of administering opium to infants, which is very general in these districts 'is usually begun when the child is three or four weeks old.' But Mr. Brown, the coroner for Nottingham, states, that he knows Godfrey's cordial is given on the day of birth, and that even it is prepared in readiness for that event. The extent to which the system is carried may be judged from the fact, expressly ascertained by this gentleman, that one druggist made up in one year 13 cwt. of treacle into Godfrey's cordial. The result of this terrible practice is, that great numbers of infants perish, either suddenly from an over-dose, or, as more commonly happens, slowly, painfully, and insidiously. Those who escape with life become pale and sickly children, often half-idiotic, and always with a ruined constitution. Compared with this, adds the sub-

commissioner, the Chinese practice of infanticide may be called merciful."

The Rev. Mr. Clay states that, in the town of Preston alone, in 1843, "upwards of sixteen hundred families were in the habit of using Godfrey's cordial, or some other equally injurious compound, and that in one of the burial clubs in that town sixty-four per cent. of the members die under five years of age. The obvious conclusion was, that the fatality among the children was connected with the use of the drug."*

A large mass of evidence may be added to the above, regarding the sale of other poisons; but enough has been adduced to prove how general and extensive is the use of this one poison amongst infants in the manufacturing and mining districts of England. In connection with these facts we may inquire if the reports of the Registrar-General give any corresponding mortality amongst the infants of these districts. Those of the years 1851 and 1852 strongly corroborate the suspicions entertained as to the effect of the above practices, especially in the northern and north-western counties. In ten out of the twenty-six districts into which Lancashire is divided, as well as in a large proportion of similarly situated parts, more than fifty per cent. of the total deaths occurring in 1852 were in infants under five years of age; such was the case in all the following

* 'Johnstone's Chemistry of Common Life.'

districts, situated in the four great manufacturing and mining divisions, together returning a total of 71,140 deaths in the year, of which number no less than 37,172 were infants under five !

1852. —	Total deaths.	Deaths under five.
LANCASHIRE—		
Liverpool	8648	4379
West Derby	4019	2070
Bolton.....	3793	1923
Chorlton.....	3434	1911
Salford	2487	1368
Manchester.....	7957	4194
Ashton	3849	1966
Oldham	2490	1278
Burnley	1913	1019
Blackburn	2960	1498
WEST RIDING--		
Bradford.....	5018	2629
Hunslet	2580	1406
Leeds	3370	1751
Dewsbury	2005	1006
Sheffield	3261	1708
DURHAM—		
Auckland	737	378
Durham	1272	662
Easington	423	259
Sunderland.....	1919	990
STAFFORDSHIRE—		
Wolstanton	1144	589
Wolverhampton	2752	1476
Walsall	1081	546
West Bromwich	1693	924
Dudley	2335	1242
	71,140	37,172

These, indeed, are facts crying aloud, not only

for the investigation of the profession, but of the legislature.

A writer in a recent number of the 'Medical Times and Gazette'* thus concludes some observations respecting the mortality of London: "Surely it is quite time that most searching inquiries should be set on foot as to the fact, that *nearly half* of the mortality of London occurs to persons *under twenty years of age*. Is it a law of nature which humanity must submit to? or are we perpetuating conditions of society, under which it is impossible for the half of our rising population to exist? Can the Registrar-General give us no clue towards the solving this problem?"

Now, if the above questions are called forth respecting the mortality of London, how much more should we demand, why this *far greater* sacrifice of life in manufacturing and mining districts, possessing as we do some clue to the solving *this* problem, in the large proportion of illegitimate births—the great ignorance of the women—and the general habit of drugging infants, known to prevail in these districts.

A comparison of two of the largest divisions of England, where these facts are notorious and co-existing—namely, the North-Western and the Yorkshire, with two others more happily situated in these respects, the London and the South-Western,

* Feb. 2, 1856.

exhibits a striking contrast in the infant mortality. Thus it will be seen that in the years 1851, 1852, and 1853, the great mortality of the one division, over that of the other, is in the first comparison *chiefly*, and in the second *entirely*, made up of these defenceless infants—that is, if the majority of “deaths under five” be abstracted from the “total deaths,” the mortality of one division but slightly differs from that of the other.

In the first comparison, the population of the London has been raised to that of the North-Western division; but in the second comparison, although the population of the South-Western division exceeds that of the Yorkshire division by 14,244, yet the excess of infant mortality in the latter over that of the former is upwards of 6000 annually.

Comparison of the North-Western and London Divisions.

Division.	Population 1851.	Illegitimate births.	Total deaths.	Deaths under five.	Excess of deaths under five.	Ratio of married women, per cent., who signed the marriage register with marks.
1851.						
N. Western	2,490,827	7,033	64,471	29,900	5,900	Lancashire 63 Cheshire... 55
London.....	2,362,236	3,203	55,488	22,761		
*	128,591	174	3,020	1,239		
	2,490,827	3,377	58,508	24,000		London ... 23
1852.						
N. Western	2,490,827	6,865	71,117	34,334	10,602	Lancashire 62 Cheshire... 56
London.....	2,362,236	3,354	54,638	22,507		
*	128,591	182	2,974	1,225		
		3,536	57,612	23,732		London ... 23
1853.						
N. Western	2,490,827	6,712	70,230	33,104	7,046	Lancashire 61 Cheshire... 55
London.....	2,362,236	3,156	60,069	24,713		
*	128,591	171	3,269	1,345		
		3,327	63,338	26,058		London ... 23

Yorkshire and South-Western Divisions.

1851.						
Yorkshire...	1,789,047	4,640	42,110	18,584	6,243	W. Riding 59 43
S. Western	1,803,291	3,522	36,523	12,341		
1852.						
Yorkshire...	1,789,047	4,736	44,055	19,699	6,875	W. Riding 59 42
S. Western	1,803,291	3,595	37,146	12,824		
1853.						
Yorkshire...	1,789,047	4,546	43,388	18,548	6,601	W. Riding 57 40
S. Western	1,803,291	3,325	37,055	11,947		

* Number added to raise the population of London to that of the North-Western Division. Births and Deaths in an equal ratio.

Such tables as the above might be well extended, showing not only the *precise localities* in which this destruction of infant life is greatest and their *exact proportion*,* but the annual variation in either or both. Enough is contained in these general statements to demand an inquiry, wherefore, in the years 1851, 2, and 3, upwards of 43,000 infants under five years of age were consigned to the grave in the North-Western and Yorkshire divisions of England, who, in the London and South-Western, might have attained to the average duration of life? and how far this disproportionate mortality may be connected with the facts proved to exist in these divisions, as well as in manufacturing and mining districts generally?

Dr. Granville, after a lengthened investigation of this subject, says, "Frightful as this early destruction of human life must seem in the abstract, I grieve to add that, as we come nearer to the present times, not only does the general amount of life thus extinguished as it were on the threshold increase, but the accretion appears under circumstances capable of inspiring grave suspicions of its not being

* A comparison of Lancashire with some of the healthiest counties in England, shows the mortality of children under five to be *twice as high* in the former as it is in the latter.—See 'Reg.-Gen. Report' for 1852, Appendix, p. 21. See also quarterly return ending September, 1857, where Mr. Leigh, one of the Registrars at Manchester, states, that out of 224 deaths occurring in the Deansgate sub-district, the unprecedented number of 156 were under five years of age.

altogether natural. Thus, I find that the early destruction of life is greater in certain manufacturing districts than in purely agricultural districts; that it is more marked in the latter districts than in certain other large cities, or even the metropolis; finally, that it prevails in the most frequented seaport towns over that of the surrounding towns or cities unconnected with either seafaring life, mining, or manufactories; in fact, that wherever classes of careless, uneducated, idle, dissipated, beggarly, and godless people of both sexes live, there the early destruction of life is the greatest.*

A more recent inquiry brings forth the following evidence in the same direction. "The mortality from the nervous diseases of early life is not only higher in towns than in rural districts, but also *higher* in manufacturing than in other towns, and *highest in places where female labour is in most request.*

"Thus it is higher in Manchester, Leeds, Bradford, Halifax, and Wigan, than in Birmingham, Bristol, Hull or Newcastle. It is higher in places where females work in factories than in their homes. Although, doubtless, other circumstances influence the result, it is worthy of mention that the mortality from this cause in Manchester and in Salford appears to have some relation to the proportion of females in each engaged in factory labour,"† &c. &c.

* 'On Sudden Death,' p. 123.

† See Dr. Greenhow's 'Statistics of Public Health.'

Such are only a portion of the results of this free trade in poisons introduced by the Act of 1815, “for better regulating the practice of apothecaries throughout England and Wales,” and the facility given therein to the *murderer, either in his bold and prompt, or his more subtle and gradual*, administration of this means of destruction. Will these, however, extensive as they are, account for *the immense increase in the importation of opium* for home consumption which has taken place in the last forty years, or must not our eyes be turned in another direction to fill up the measure of this evil?

Dr. Farr states, in the Appendix to the Second Annual Report of the Registrar-General, when referring to deaths caused by intemperance, “that the consumption of intoxicating liquors has increased faster than the population in the last twenty years; and *the sale of spirits at a much more rapid rate than that of ale or wine*, which can only be injurious when taken to excess. The average annual number of bushels of malt on which duty was paid in England was 25,834,345 in the five years 1820-4; 35,048,368 in 1834-8; in 1820-4 the quantity of wine returned annually for home consumption was 4,751,104 imperial gallons; in 1833-7 it was 6,461,886 gallons; in 1820-4 consumption duties were annually paid in England on 7,572,702 imperial gallons of proof spirits, which in 1834-8 had risen to 12,012,484 gallons; and *the opium entered for home consumption*

rose in the same periods from 19,276 lbs. annually, to 33,482 lbs. The decennial rates of increase were, for malt, 24; wine, 27; spirits, 39; opium, **53** per cent. For malt, the annual rate of increase was only 1·2 per cent. from 1810-4 to 1826-30; but the consumption rose rapidly under the Act to permit the sale of beer, and the annual rate of increase from 1827 to 1836 was 3·3 per cent. *The consumption of wines rose from 4,681,357 gallons (1820-3) to 6,617,363 annually in 1824-8, when the duty was reduced from 9s. 1¼d. to 4s. 9¾d. a gallon.*”

Since the year 1838 the increase in the quantity of opium entered for home consumption has been yet more rapid, so that the average annual importation for the three years ending 5th January, 1855, was 63,633 lbs.; and thus it is evident, that in like manner as “the consumption of malt rose rapidly under the Act to permit the sale of beer,” and the “consumption of wines when the duty was reduced;” so also, but in a far greater ratio, has *the consumption of opium increased since the Act of 1815, which removed all restrictions on the sale of poisons.*

The following table, gleaned from various authentic sources, will show how far *the suicide*—as well as *the murderer*—avails himself of the liberty granted him in this free and happy country! As far also as it extends it proves that the mode of death by poison is proportioned generally to the facility given for this traffic in the respective countries to which it

refers; being least in the German States, and greatest in England and Wales.

Ratio of suicides by poison to those effected by all other means in various countries.

State, &c.	Date.	Suicides by poison.	Total suicides.	Ratio effected by poison.
BAVARIA	1844—1851	23*	2,329	about $\frac{1}{100}$ th part
BADEN	1836—1845	21	1,098	„ $\frac{1}{52}$ nd „
FRANCE	1836—1852	1,126	52,126	„ $\frac{1}{46}$ th „
PARIS	1834—1843	157	4,595	„ $\frac{1}{28}$ th „
IRELAND	1831—1851	133	1,596	„ $\frac{1}{12}$ th „
LONDON	1846—1848	162	1,091	} „ $\frac{1}{6}$ th „
ENGLAND & WALES	1840	161	900	

This is the prompt and decided exercise of a power placed by the legislature in the hands of the *suicide*—but he also has a slow and insidious “soothing” system—though not a less certain or less extensive mode of destruction. The evil of opium-eating, or even opium-smoking, which various authorities have testified is a fast-increasing one in this country, is thus alluded to in a pamphlet recently published by Major-General Alexander, entitled the ‘Rise and Progress of British Opium Smuggling in

* The modes of death in Bavaria were by “drowning, hanging, shooting, cutting, and stabbing,” excepting forty-six, which are not tabulated; of these, twenty-three are assigned to poison in this table. See ‘Foreign Statistics, Blue Book,’ 1855.

China.' He says, after dwelling on our iniquity in this respect, "Nor let any one imagine that England is allowed to encourage crime with impunity.* Retribution is overtaking us, and the plague is spreading, especially among our working classes, and with the votaries of fashionable life. Besides the use of opium in other ways, I am informed by an eye-witness that miscreants, who probably learned the trade in China or India, have established smoking dens in London, at which victims are intoxicated cheaper than with gin."

It cannot be denied that a very large amount of mortality arising from all the above sources, besides the "five or six hundred persons who are ascertained to die by poison every year in England" alone,† may at least, in some measure, be prevented by restrictions on the sale of poisons, such as exist in every other country.

Surely if one suicide by precipitation from the Monument of London caused that eminence and others to be covered with iron grating, it cannot be fair to grant so much indulgence to *the suicide (as well as the murderer,)* who chooses this *less bold and therefore more tempting mode of death,*‡ unless it may

* How truly verified by our present frightful calamities in India! The revenue derived by the Honorable East India Company from their traffic in opium with China was in the year 1856 estimated at upwards of £5,000,000. See 'N. British Rev.,' Feb., 1857, p. 527.

† 'Appendix to Third Annual Report of Reg.-Gen.,' p. 14.

‡ See 'Lisle du Suicide,' p. 100.

be argued, on the one hand, that so quiet and unobtrusive a method is not so offensive to the public, *and therefore* may be better tolerated, or that the large emolument arising from this extensive trade cannot be interfered with, and, on this account, its continuance may be justified here as well as in China. Any honest man would of course repudiate such motives; yet, can no better reason be adduced. It may be thought such facts as the above are foreign to our subject, but it must be confessed that all the evils that we have depicted and many others are directly or indirectly connected with the unrestrained trading in drugs, legalised by the Act of 1815; *and inasmuch as the office of the physician is connected with this trading*, and his sanction given to such a mode of practice, just in an equal proportion must he share the odium and bear the degradation attaching to it.

I have but glanced at a few of the many evil effects of the *mode of practice* pursued EXCLUSIVELY in England and Wales; the *mode of remuneration* is neither less varied nor less degrading in its results.

Although few would now contend for either, as adopted in all its purity by each of the three great innovators I have described, in their pristine state,—such as the superstitious practices of a corrupt church, the cure “*par le fer ou le feu*,” or that by poly-pharmacy, so peculiar to this kingdom,—yet there are abundant traces of the effects of each of

these corruptions in the several divisions of the profession.

Numerous and ridiculous are the evasions and subterfuges that have gradually crept in, so as to modify and render each acceptable to the varied taste or means of the public, and at the same time remunerative to the practitioner.

Who can with justice defend, as a mode of remuneration for the ORDINARY *medical attendant* or family physician, the daily outstretched hand at the bedside of the sick or dying, for the one uniform* physician's fee? This characteristic fee in its purity and orthodoxy, is demanded by the "pure" physician of yesterday's creation as well as by the veteran of fifty years' experience,† alike from the widow or the orphan, the millionaire or the mechanic, whether labouring under a formidable fatal disease or a trifling ailment.

Can this be tolerated as an ordinary mode of remuneration? It cannot; and what then are the numerous devices and evasions to escape the evils of such a course resorted to both by the patient and his physician? On the part of the patient who presumes to seek his aid as ordinary attendant, amongst a multitude of other contrivances, the late calling in—the protracted intervals between the

* See Commission of 1834: Sir A. Carlisle, 5976.

† "The etiquette of the profession compels him to place himself on a par with Sir James or Sir Benjamin as to fees." See "Hospital Physicians and Surgeons," 'Lancet,' July 18, 1857.

visits—and the early dismissal—are made in some measure to compensate for the magnitude of “the fee.”

Again, the frequent resort *in minor ailments* to the shops of every thoroughfare, whether kept by licensed or unlicensed practitioners, is another mode of avoiding the dreaded fee. On the part of the physician, “friendly visits” interposed, or “gratis” attendance proffered, are the least offensive manner of escape from this unhappy dilemma.* Are not all these subterfuges at least as dangerous, if not certainly injurious, to the health of the patient, as to the moral tone of the physician, when the latter stands in the relation of ordinary medical attendant? The same difficulties apply with equal force to the “pure” surgeon when placed in the same relative position; and what is the consequence? Why, that at least nine tenths of the public refuse the care of physician or surgeon as their ordinary attendant, and are therefore subjected, more or less, to the evils of the third great innovator on medicine.

The junior physician or surgeon who subscribes to this system, in spite of all the humiliating devices adopted, is thus excluded from active engagement in the practical duties of his profession as ordinary medical attendant. He generally commences his

* See ‘Medical Times and Gazette,’ October 18, 1856: “Dr. Green’s” experience on this subject. Also, October 25, 1857: that of the late Dr. Chambers and Sir James Eyre.

career by exhibiting more or less of talent, though comparatively little of practical knowledge, in monographs containing minute analyses of disease, or specious and fine-drawn theories, too often more wonderful and beautiful than true.* Should this preparation for practice, this theorising, this ploughing and sowing, and, not infrequently, this modern mode of advertising, prosper; the reaping time is but an advanced life of incessant toil and anxiety,† whereby the *practical results* of these theories or analyses, the ripe fruits of a life well spent, are comparatively but seldom given to the profession. Such a *mode of remuneration*, leading to such results, is no more “pure” in its origin than in its effects.

Willcocks‡ says, that at an early period, when monks and priests were physicians, “they could not recover their fees or any remuneration, as they were unable to bring any action, or possess any property, for they were, in the language of the law, *civiliter mortui*; and the canon, prohibiting their practice, precluded their superior from instituting any suit in their behalf, or on behalf of the house to which they may have belonged; therefore, *having no right to recover a remuneration, they often sought a present in hand.*”

“Pure” physicians—fellows of the College of

* See ‘Br. and For. Medico-Chir. Review,’ January, 1857, p. 1.

† The one uniform fee is as unjust towards the Physician at this period as it was towards the public at his commencement.

‡ ‘Laws of the Medical Profession,’ p. 112.

Physicians of England—are so far in precisely the same position as were the monks and priests in the twelfth century, their fee is an “*honorarium*,” they are, in the eyes of the law, “*civiliter mortui*,” their means of cure *are limited*, as are the class of cases submitted to their treatment, and thus the *mode of remuneration*, as well as the *mode of practice*, first adopted in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, is perpetuated by the College of Physicians* of England at the present day. “Pure” surgeons, likewise fettered by similar proscribed limits,† are subject also to the same evil effects, and consequently precluded from filling the office of *ordinary family physician to all ranks and classes*.

The *general practitioner* stands in the same equivocal position as regards *his mode of remuneration* as *his mode of practice*. He has of necessity diverged from the simple and pure practice of the

* The name “physician,” as well as his mode of practice and remuneration, is inherited from the same source:—“Atque ita temporis successu curandi ratio tam miserè divulsa est, ut medici quidem, *se physicorum nomine venditantes*, medicamentorum et victus ad reconditos affectus præscriptionem sibi duntaxat arrogaverint; reliquam autem medicinam, iis quos Chirurgos dominant, vixque famulorum locum habent, relegarint; turpiter à se, quod præcipuum et antiquissimum est medicinæ membrum, quodque naturæ speculationi (si modo aliud) præcipuè innititur depellentes,” &c.—*Vesalius (Andreas) “Opera omnia,”* Dedication to Charles V.

† The examination at either Royal College ignores the subjects specially enjoined by the other, and the more a physician or surgeon ignores these in practice, the more nearly does he attain to this standard of purity, and becomes eligible for Hospital appointments.

apothecary in the one as in the other, and resorted to a variety of expedients, so as to make the practice of medicine and the trading in drugs either or both available for *his* purpose. Hence it is, this the only division of the medical profession, qualified to practise medicine in "all and every its members and parts," is viewed by our continental brethren in no enviable light.

Professor Heinrich Rose, in a paper on the state of pharmacy in England in 1855, describes this portion of the profession *as one third, or nearly one half, keeping chemists' and druggists' shops, and preparing medicines prescribed by other medical men.** So, likewise, a recent number of the 'Archives Gén. de Médecine' gives the following description of another frequent expedient, which, although perhaps the least objectionable mode of evading the difficulties of his neutral position, is not undeserving the satire bestowed on it. After reviewing the divided state of the profession in England, the writer thus continues :—" Il n'y a dans ce désordre rien de ces conditions que nous regardons comme nécessaires : ni garanties sérieuses exigées de ceux qui veulent suivre le carrière médicale, ni égalité entre les hommes qui l'exercent ; confusion déplorable qui met l'ignorant sur le même pied que

* See 'Pharmaceutical Journal,' vol. vii, p. 149. Also 'Evidence of Dr. Taylor before the Committee of the House of Lords on Sale of Poisons Bill,' q. 879.

l'homme instruit et le charlatan éhonté à côté de médecin sérieux. La confusion est d'autant plus inévitable que, dans chacune de ces classes, sans droits et sans attributions définies, sans garanties fixes et égales, il se rencontre à la fois des gens habiles et des incapacités des gens honnêtes et des indignes. Aussi a-t-on compris qu'il fallait faire un tout homogène de ces éléments divers, et constituer une unité avec toutes ces fractions isolées. Ce besoin d'unité du corps médical se traduit quelquefois par des projets assez excentriques.

“ Ainsi un praticien pharmacien, jouissant d'ailleurs d'une réputation honorable et méritée, a trouvé un ingénieux moyen de réunir la médecine et la pharmacie, et le propose avec une candeur admirable. Je ne vend plus de médicaments, dit-il ; je fais payer mes visites un certain prix fixe, et, moyennant ce prix, je fournis à mes malades les drogues dont ils peuvent avoir besoin. J'ai, ajouté-il (et ceci fait honneur à sa probité), la délicatesse de leur en fournir à peu près à chaque visite, et, de cette façon, me voici sur le même pied que mes confrères. Cet ingénieux moyen semblerait inspiré par les enseignes de nos restaurateurs à prix fixe : Visites à tel prix, deux drogues au choix ; calomel et tisane à discrétion.”*

Besides these, and a host of other minor divisions, we have the “ Eminent Physician ” and the “ Expe-

* Cinquième série, tom. 3, p. 250.

rienced Surgeon” publicly co-operating with the druggist in our great thoroughfares; or more privately with the *apothecary*, by prescribing “*gratis*” for the sale of a multiplicity of medicines, whereby, alone, an ample *mode of remuneration* is established *for both parties*.

“ Oh, wad some power the giftie gie us
To see oursels as others see us !”

The evil effects of these corruptions and divisions of medicine may be traced also in Ireland and Scotland, but proportioned only to their number and extent.

Those of the Physician and Surgeon we have seen to have shared the same origin, history and issue in each division of the Kingdom—originating in the same PAPAL decrees—struggling through a like period with their several usurpers—and at length terminating in the establishment of ROYAL Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons, “pure” it may be from the corruption with which they had for so many ages been associated, but “pure” also from each other, in accordance with the restrictions laid on their predecessors by Romish Synods and Councils in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.

With the third corruption, however, that of the Apothecary—as we have traced a very distinctive character in its origin, and in its history, so also may we do in its effects.*

Inasmuch as the efforts of both Ireland and

* See *antè*, pp. 103 *et seq.*

Scotland have tended to the effacing this corruption, viz. that of the Apothecary with the Surgeon, entailed on them by law in the times of ignorance and bigotry, so has the Surgeon as well as the Physician attained to the office of ordinary medical attendant, whilst pharmacy in Ireland has been chiefly restricted to the "Corporation of Apothecaries' Hall," and in Scotland, to chemists and druggists.

Such has been the tendency to the severance of this their legalised alliance, though no doubt much retarded and frustrated by the opposite course pursued in England and Wales. The distinctive character in the mode of practice, thus arising, has been previously referred to, and it will now only be necessary to compare some of the principal effects in Ireland and Scotland as contrasted with those of England and Wales.

By referring to the table p. 130, we see at a glance that the number of physicians and apothecaries in their relation to the population, as well as in their relation to each other, bear a corresponding ratio to the mode of practice and remuneration adopted, and a striking contrast with that of England and Wales. In Ireland, for instance, where alone a guarantee is given for the faithful fulfilment of the Apothecary's duties by an education, examination and certified qualification proportioned to the important functions he is ex-

clusively called on to perform, the number both in relation to the public and the profession, bears a very fair comparison with that of other well-governed States, where the wants of either are duly considered and provided for. We do not find here 14,307 supernumeraries !! as in England and Wales,* but a number proportioned to the need of the public and of the physician. Ireland, however, is not without witness to the danger, that by recent encroachments† (as well as, we fear, by recent enactments), Apothecaries may be advanced here in the crooked paths of England, rather than in preserving their exclusive rights and distinct limits as assigned to them by Ch. 18 Geo. II, and 31 Geo. III.‡

Scotland also has her distinctive character, as regards the effects of the last corruption; here are physicians and surgeons fulfilling the office of ordinary medical attendants to all classes, but some of the latter, combining, as in Ireland, with their medical duties those also of the Apothecary. Whilst in the place of pure apothecaries* distinctly transmitted through the Speciarii, Epiciers, and Pepperers, to the Grocers, Grocer-Apothecaries, and Apothecaries, as

* See p. 132, and table p. 130.

† See Dr. Neligan's 'Evidence before the House of Lords on Sale of Poisons Bill':—"They have lately exceeded their proper province, and become physicians and surgeons themselves, so as to mix up the pure pharmacien with the practitioner of medicine" (p. 121).

‡ See Appendix, 2.

* Now represented by Chemists and Druggists.

in England—or associated by law with surgeons primarily, and then separated into a distinct Company, as in Ireland—they have apothecaries allied by law with surgeons, as one body corporate uninterruptedly since the year 1657;* but, inasmuch as modern surgeons have individually more and more transferred the Apothecaries' duties to chemists and druggists during the same period, they have shown the like tendency as in Ireland, to render the practice of medicine and that of pharmacy distinct from each other as in all other civilised States, although no special and sufficient education and qualification for these duties has been provided for, by the incorporation of an Apothecaries' Society.

What, then, is the effect perceived in the proportionate numbers of physicians and apothecaries? Exactly that we should anticipate—they hold a middle place between Ireland and England; instead of the steady and consistent proportion of both as in Ireland, or the overwhelming number of chemists and druggists and of general practitioners, as in England, their ratio of apothecaries (chemists and druggists) to the population and the profession, bears as much more favorable a comparison in the one instance, as it does an unfavorable appearance in the other.†

Thus, then, we have *in England* apothecaries

* See Chart. Also Appendix, 1, 2, and 3.

† See p. 107, and table, p. 130.

licensed by law to practise medicine as well as pharmacy since 1815 (55 Geo. III, c. 194), chemists and druggists having succeeded entirely to the practice of the pure apothecary as defined in 1616 (13 Jac. I), but without any required qualification.

In Ireland we have apothecaries licensed by two several enactments, 1745 (Ch. 18 Geo. II) and 1791 (31 Geo. III), to the exclusive practice of pharmacy, but they too, after the example of their English brethren, in some measure, trench on the functions of the physician; whilst *in Scotland* the duties of apothecaries consigned by law, only to the College of Surgeons, have been for the most part rejected by them, and thrown into the hands of chemists and druggists without any prescribed qualification, or incorporation.

The Hospitals and Medical Schools of these portions of the kingdom exhibit prejudices proportioned to the practices enjoined by the various licensing bodies, all more or less engaged in building up their own individual interests, and their own independent importance, rather than all conjoinedly the public safety—the profession's honour.

In an equal ratio also to the extent of corruption and division *within* the profession, is the successful invasion of medicine *from without* apparent, and hence arises the comparative freedom of the sister divisions of our kingdom from Homœopathic and Hydropathic Establishments, and other gross decep-

tions and quackeries. So again the fact, that out of £41,000* received annually by the Chancellor of the Exchequer for "Medicine Stamps," no part is paid by Ireland, and only about £200 or £300 by Scotland, towards this large amount, speaks loudly as to this mode of trading in drugs—or rather in the lives of her Majesty's subjects—in the three portions of the United Kingdom.

Hence also it is, that the murderer and the suicide have less scope for their dark deeds in Ireland and Scotland, than in England. As to the practice of drugging infants, and the frightfully fatal effects known to prevail in the latter, we have no definite statistical reports to place in comparison from the former divisions of the kingdom, neither, happily, are there any such records respecting their practices in connection with burial clubs and Insurance Offices, nor of the wretched females who resort to the "Doctors' Shops" of this our great metropolis.† The evidence, however, as regards the suicide in Ireland is of a more positive character, as may be seen in the preceding Table,‡ the proportion of suicides effected by poison being only one half as many as in England; the former being one twelfth, the latter one sixth, of the total number.

In the foregoing sketch I have earnestly en-

* See Finance Accounts.

† *Antè*, p. 151.

‡ *Antè*, p. 163.

deavoured to “nothing extenuate nor set down aught in malice;” I have sought faithfully to portray the office of the *ancient physician* in all its *purity, unity, and fulness*—as contrasted with that of the *modern physician* in England and Wales, with *some of its corruptions, divisions, and contractions*. If such be a true statement, I need not ask, has the College of Physicians fulfilled its functions for the correction of mediæval abuses? has it made of “one body” all who exercise the faculty of medicine in England and Wales? has it suppressed quackery and division, as well by example as by precept?

I think every unprejudiced mind must ere this have assented to my first assertion, that *as a community we are a degenerate hybrid race*, each bearing about with him traces of these three great corruptions, introduced respectively in the seventh, the twelfth, and the seventeenth centuries. We are NOT the followers of Hippocrates, Celsus, Galen, and Paulus, but the illegitimate offspring of an alliance that should never have existed with the priest, the barber, and the apothecary. Let each individual survey his history—as regards his mode of practice and remuneration—and where shall he find his prototype, his compulsory and prescribed limits, but in the three corruptions and consequent divisions I have depicted, whose monuments are severally erected at Pall Mall, Lincoln’s Inn Fields, and Blackfriars? If at the present day the last corrup-

tion is less evident to some—or less acknowledged by others from interested motives—it is not the less real ; and in proportion as the statistical returns of foreign states are more and more compared with our own, it becomes every day apparent, that, whilst the first two corruptions, with their divisions, have been as world-wide as is the Romish church which caused them, the last—that of the apothecary—is but too peculiar to our own native land.

It is not an enviable task thus to depict the errors of our craft ; but, as our daily duty is—in bodies human—first to detect disease, wherever present or however hideous, then rightly to define the causes and effects of “ all the ills that flesh is heir to,” ere we may find a fitting remedy, so is it our present duty—in bodies corporate—to do the same.

I have not sought by too minute analysis, or pierced with microscopic eye, to magnify the morbid state of our profession, but in broad bold lines, so to depict disease, as shall arouse all honest minds, and able pens, to enter this neglected field.

It is not to harm, but save a patient, we fly to remedies, nauseous or even painful,* but radical and curative in their intention ; and thus would I defend my present position. It is not with individuals, or with sections I would contend, but, with a system so fatal to *the safety of the public, and honour of the*

* “Tunc coacta ad sectionem, vel ultimo ad ustionem devenit.”
Scrib. Larg.—See *antè*, p. 18.

profession, I would obey the College charter, and wage a war of extermination by a “ONE FACULTY,”—a “*unum corpus in re et nomine.*”

That the means provided by the College have ever been inadequate to the end proposed is evident, and the evil effects are shown of attempting the task with such an inefficient staff, and such an imperfect armour. If men had issued in *sufficient numbers* from the College of Physicians even in the seventeenth century, supplied with *all the means of cure* which reason and experience had approved, (which the names of Dr. Caldwell, Lord Lumley, Dr. Forster, the immortal Harvey, and many others had encouraged them to cultivate,) they might have hoped for success; but the eyes of the few who monopolised the name of physician were blinded by their own self-aggrandisement, or they would have acknowledged the too evident truth—that a supply so unequal to the demand, must of necessity have induced the last great invasion of their ranks, or some analogous substitute for their neglected functions.

CORRUPTIONS AND DIVISIONS OF MEDICINE.

THEIR REMEDY.

“Galenus, Hippocratem se sequi in omnibus, quæ ad medicinam pertineant, adfirmans, hinc nulli sectæ addictus videri volens, etsi dogmatici medici speciem in omnibus libris præ se ferebat, enisus id maxime est, ut singulas medicinæ disciplinas exactius digereret, absurda, a sectarum studio profecta, rejiceret, vera quæ ipsi viderentur et probata in systematis formam redigeret, dictisque his a prioribus medicis sua cogitata, sua inventa adderet. Quod non solum in singulis medicinæ disciplinis effecit, sed etiam ex singulis systemate medicinæ composito, omnium, quæ ætas ante eum tulerat, temporaque post eum latura, perfectissimo, plenissimo, cohærentissimo.”—*Galen's Works*, Kühn edition: *Life by J. C. G. Ackermann.*

IF the foregoing statements are correct, if the *causes* and *effects* of the corruptions and divisions traceable in medicine since the seventh century have been truly depicted, no impartial observer will have failed ere this clearly to discern the *remedy*. But, in order more surely to arrive at a right conclusion on this important point, it will be well to glean what precedents we are able as to the course pursued in

this country, as well as in foreign states, under circumstances analogous to those in which we are now situated.

In reviewing our own history, we have already ascertained that when the revival of learning had taught our ancestors that the physician's office was corrupted by its connection with a superstitious church, the first and great remedy to be applied *was a separation from this its first corruption* (1518). Again, when that portion of the physician's office which consisted in the use of chirurgics for the treatment of external wounds, injuries, and diseases, was allowed to be corrupted and degraded by its alliance with the barber, *that also was finally separated from this its second great corruption* (1745).^{*} So at the present time, if the physician's office is now corrupted and impeded by its union with the apothecary—if the effects are such as I have attempted to portray—the only remedy that can be effectual is such as in former precedents has been adopted, *an entire separation from that which has corrupted* and hindered the faithful and efficient fulfilment of the physician's office.

Moreover, in other civilised parts of the world, as well in America as the European states, *the divisions* which alone appertained to them equally with ourselves—those of the priest and the barber—have

^{*} See Chart for date of separation from these corruptions in Ireland and Scotland. Also Appendix, 2 and 3.

been more or less completely effaced, by the reunion, in one and the same individual, of medicine “in all and every its members and parts.”

Sir G. Lefevre thus writes of Russia in 1837 :*—
“It is now generally allowed that there is no essential distinction between medicine and surgery, although practitioners of medicine may be divided into different ranks and classes. Perhaps there is no country where this indivisibility, as regards the practice of the profession, is more strictly maintained than in Russia: a physician embraces all the branches of the healing art, and acts as physician, surgeon, and accoucheur; if he does not do so, there is nothing to prevent him using his own discretion in such matters. *The physician in Russia* is, in fact, identical with the general practitioner in England, save and except that in no instance does he dispense his own medicines.

“Apothecaries are mere vendors of drugs and licensed preparers of physicians’ prescriptions; in no case are they allowed to compound medicines, or even sell the most innocent drug, without a written order from a medical practitioner.

“This combination of medical duties is not now a matter of choice, it is one of necessity, inasmuch as the interests of the mass of the community are to be considered of more importance than the ideas which a few individuals may form to themselves

* ‘British and Foreign Med. Rev.,’ vol. iv, p. 263.

of medical orthodoxy; and in the present day all the English physicians residing in Russia are, as already stated, *de facto*, general practitioners."

Apothecaries' shops are licensed by government, and limited in number: their proprietors are fully qualified for the important and exclusive duties assigned to them, and a high tariff is fixed on all medicines.

In Prussia, and the German states generally, there are many ranks and divisions in the medical profession; there are surgeons of first and second class, country doctors, and others. There are also two classes of graduated physicians—a *first class*, who profess and practise *both medicine and surgery*; a *second class*, who practise *medicine only*: all are compelled to pass through *a surgical as well as medical* education and examination, before practising in either division—the only difference is the omission of *operative surgery* by the latter.

The graduated physicians are the only members of the profession eligible for all offices, but to qualify for the highest medical appointments from that of "district-doctor" to that of "High-Medical-Privy-Counsellor," in addition to the five ordinary examinations, to which all are subjected, (*viz.*, 1, the Anatomical; 2, the Chirurgical; 3, the Clinico-Medical; 4, the Clinico-Surgical; and 5, the final or *vicâ-voce* examination,) there are two others

required of him—an Obstetrical and a Forensic or Jurisprudential.*

In the United States of America every candidate for graduation is “compelled to exhibit his qualifications for practising *both medicine and surgery*; for although some may devote themselves more especially to the latter branch, their medical education does not differ from that of the practitioner who confines himself to medicine. They are all educated, in other words, for the general exercise of the duties of the profession.”†

In Denmark, Professor Otto says, “From what has been stated of the qualifications requisite for admission to the examination of the medical faculty at the universities and at the College of Surgeons, and of the extent of knowledge, required at both *in all the different branches of medicine and surgery*, it is evident that the state has done everything in its power to secure the aid of able and enlightened men in an art, upon which depend the health and life of its subjects.” In no country are the harmony and unity of the medical profession so well preserved.‡

In Norway, there is *no distinction in name even* of the two divisions, physician and surgeon—the functions of both being always understood to be

* Professor Hecker, of Berlin, ‘Br. and For. Med. Rev.,’ vol. i, pp. 289, 300, &c.

† ‘Med. in the United States,’ by R. Dunlison, M.D., *ib.*, vol. ii, p. 293.

‡ ‘Br. and For. Med. Rev.,’ vol. ii, p. 285.

combined, the same name expresses either or both ; therefore it is, in the translation of a report of Professor Holst, the word “Læge” is sometimes rendered “Physician” and sometimes “Surgeon.”*

In France, also, the unity of medicine is essentially restored. There are three faculties of medicine—those of Paris, Montpellier, and Strasbourg—besides preparatory schools of medicine in various provincial towns. These are the only portals to the profession, and *all* who pass through them must give full proof of their knowledge, in the use of *all the acknowledged means of cure, as well as in the treatment of all diseases and injuries*, though they may afterwards select or exclude any or either from their practice. Paris was the chief seat of that warfare which continued for so many centuries between physicians and surgeons, as the representatives of the priests and barbers in successive periods. Here it was that disputes commenced between the Faculty of Paris and the College of Surgery founded by Lanfranc, on the one hand—and between this College and the barbers, on the other.

The principal cause of this great jealousy, and the support given by the faculty to the latter, was the extending practice of the surgeons of St. Como, and the patronage bestowed on them by the Academy.

Philippe-le-Bel passed a law, A.D. 1311, obliging

* Op. cit., vol. iv, p. 54. So also for other cognate languages: See “Læce” ‘Bosworth’s Anglo-Saxon Dictionary.’

all French surgeons to be examined by this College. The Faculty of Medicine, fearing the effect of this patronage, established the rule of not granting a license to Bachelors unless they took an oath never to practise surgery.* Notwithstanding the bitter animosity thus fostered for so many ages in France, and subsequently the compulsory union of surgeons and barbers, in subordination to the physicians, yet the truth of this degradation was at length acknowledged, by the separation of "surgery" from "barbery," in the year 1732, and the foundation of the Royal Academy of Surgery.

Since that day the rank of this deposed branch has been fully realised, and the unity of medicine proclaimed, by the restoration of Surgery to the Faculty of Medicine—or rather, that of the latter to the former.† The walls that now encircle both, assert the merit of those men who struggled for its existence through the ages of separation and degradation to which it had been subjected. Five medallions grace that building, each surrounded with a garland of oak, containing portraits of the great champions of surgery during this period—namely, Pitard, Paré, Maréchal, La Peyronie, and Petit.

Ireland and Scotland also, in spite of Collegiate

* Sprengel, vol. ii, p. 458.

† The building now devoted to the Faculty was formerly the "Ecole de Chirurgie."

distinctions protest against this mediæval or Papal definition of purity.

The late Mr. Carmichael says, "He who imagines himself, as it is termed, a 'pure' surgeon, or a 'pure' physician, and contemns as unnecessary, or perhaps degrading, the information of the sister branch, IS UNWORTHY OF THE PUBLIC CONFIDENCE, even in that department which he has adopted as the peculiar field of his practice."*

Dr. Stokes more recently alluded to this same miserable division in the following terms: "About this time, owing to the unhappy and calamitous division of the profession into Medicine and Surgery, arose those corporate distinctions that have done so much to retard the progress of science in these countries."†

Dr. Laurie‡ also states that "the peculiarities of the formal qualifications of the medical profession in Scotland, as compared with England, consist in—

"1. The large proportion who are graduates of a university. On a rough calculation, I should say that nearly two thirds of the medical practitioners in Scotland are Doctors of Medicine.

"2. Notwithstanding this large proportion of

* "See Introductory Lecture to a Course of Surgery," by Richard Carmichael. 8vo. Lond., 1827.

† "Introductory Lecture on Medicine," by Dr. Stokes, 'Med. Times and Gaz.,' Jan. 21, 1854.

‡ "Letters on the Charters of the Scotch Universities," &c., by J. A. Laurie, M.D., p. 23.

M.D.'s with the exception of a very few in Edinburgh, there is not a physician properly so understood in the whole of Scotland. The wealthy city of Glasgow, with its 400,000 inhabitants, has not *one*; we are *all* general practitioners.*

“3. The same statement holds true of surgery; with the exception of one or two in Edinburgh, there is not a pure surgeon in Scotland; all the surgical licentiates are general practitioners.

“4. The titles and qualifications of Fellows of the medical incorporations are also peculiar. Fully one half of the resident Fellows of the Royal College of Physicians of Edinburgh hold surgical diplomas; while two thirds of the Fellows of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh and of the Glasgow Faculty are Doctors of Medicine.”

Further individual instances need not be quoted; but with truth it may be affirmed, that all civilised nations, without exception, not only testify against the corruption and division effected in this country in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries—that of the apothecary—but that each state has made more or less successful efforts to *repair the division*, as well as remove the corruptions, which had *previously* degraded medicine for so many ages.

Hence it is the Royal Colleges of Physicians and

* *Save and except* as in Russia. See *antè*, p. 183. Also Sir James Clark's letter on medical reform addressed to Sir James Graham. Lond., 1840. Also p. 173.

Surgeons of England must confess, that not only is the division of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries preserved in all its pseudo-purity by themselves alone, but that the innovation of the apothecaries has placed the physician's office in this kingdom on a pinnacle of corruption and division to which no other age or state has yet attained.*

A more lengthened detail of the rules and regulations whereby both physician and apothecary are fully qualified, and the distinctions in either are supported and enforced in foreign states,† may form a subject for profitable inquiry, and would tend much to convince the public, as well as the profession, of the necessity and practicability of that which alone can remove the corruption, and heal the divisions, attaching to the physician's office throughout England and Wales; therefore it is I would confidently and fearlessly assert, that *no remedy can be effectual*, unless it combines in the physician's office—

A RE-UNION OF THE DIVIDED PARTS OF MEDICINE, AND

* To a very recent period the oath alluded to (p. 187), as administered by the Faculty of Medicine in Paris in the beginning of the fourteenth century, was virtually continued in the College of Physicians, inasmuch as no member of any College of Surgeons was eligible for admission to the College of Physicians unless he submitted to be disfranchised from the former, thus making the possession of one diploma a disqualification for the other!! See Dr. Tweedie's evidence before Commission of 1834, also bye-law "Antequam quispiam," appendix, 26. The consequence is that 2000 are practising in England and Wales with only a partial qualification.—See 'Stansfield's Analysis.'

† See *antè*, p. 99, and *seq.*

A SEPARATION OF ALL THAT IS ABNORMALLY UNITED TO IT.*

The re-union of divisions and the elimination of corruptions have a more hopeful prospect in Ireland and in Scotland than in England and Wales, inasmuch as we have seen them to be not only of far less extent, but, both in their origin and course, to have borne too favorable a comparison with those of England and Wales.

In each portion of the United Kingdom, simultaneously with the general revival of letters, has been an early establishment of schools of learning. Such were the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge in England—those of Alexander de Bucknor, and Pope John XXII (1320), and of Queen Elizabeth (1593) in Ireland—and the Universities of St. Andrew's (1413), Glasgow (1450), Aberdeen (1494), Edinburgh (1582), and Marischal College, Aberdeen (1593), in Scotland.†

The history of each of these Universities has exhibited the gradual emergence of light and truth, from the darkness and superstition, in which they were all originally more or less shrouded.

As the latter yielded to the former, so have portions (little by little) of the domain of medicine

* Guido's definition of operative surgery may well be applied to the corporate bodies of this metropolis; viz. "solvere continuum, jungere separatum, et extirpare superfluum."

† See Appendix, 1, 2, 3.

been assigned to Corporate bodies, and at length, to the ROYAL Colleges, springing up in the several divisions of the kingdom.

What are these long-contending factions but reiterations of the first great contest between Popes and Princes, represented by Philippe-le-Bel and Boniface VIII? The establishment of the College of Surgeons in Paris by Pitard and Lanfranc, and its patronage by Philippe-le-Bel and Jean-le-Bon in opposition to Boniface and his successors in the PAPAL chair?* In like manner have we had our ROYAL Colleges, both of Physicians and Surgeons, disputing with our Universities, and, unhappily with each other, as to their respective limits, in the several divisions of the United Kingdom. All honour to those men† who grasped at, and saved that portion of medicine, which, rejected by the Romish Councils, was assigned at their bidding to barbers and smiths—that portion, the foundation of all true medicine—which has struggled through its period of degradation, emerged from its corruption, and earned for itself a fame before all others—thus has a ROYAL College of Surgeons been eliminated in Scotland 1778, Ireland 1784, and in England 1800; each from its long-continued and degraded alliance. So has the more favoured part of medicine established for itself a ROYAL College of Physicians in England 1518,

* See Sprengel, tom. ii, p. 458.

† See Appendix, 25 to 25*k*.

Scotland 1681, and in Ireland 1692, freed also from its preceding corruption.

But what is the contrast in these several licensing bodies, as they have each succeeded to the powers previously in authority?

In olden times, when Popes made laws for the control of medicine, with that impious assumption "Heaven is my throne, Earth is my footstool," so we find "indignationem Omnipotentis Dei"* was the rod of their authority, "ubique gentium"† the limit of their rule: whereas in these respective medical corporations, whose Royal Charters dared only to extend their contracted powers a few miles into the suburbs of the cities which had given birth to them, so a £5 fine was the weight of their vengeance, a seven-miles range the boundary of their

* "Nulli ergo hominum liceat hanc paginam nostræ institutionis, foundationis, statuti, ordinationis, concessionis, inhibitionis, constitutionis et voluntatis infringere, vel ei ausu temerario contraire. Si quis autem hæc attentare præsumserit, indignationem Omnipotentis Dei, et Beatorum Petri et Pauli, ejus apostolorum, se noverit incursum." See "Bulla Foundationis Universitatis Sancti Andreae," 1413, and others subsequently in 'Reports of Commissioners of the Scotch Universities,' 1837, vol. xxxvi, p. 256.

† See form of diploma, University of Glasgow:—"Et his eum literis Doctorem appellamus et apud omnes haberi et appellari volumus. Eique potestatem damus plenissimam, de re medicâ legendi, docendi, consultandi, scribendi et disputandi . . . omnesque denique tam theoriæ medicæ quam praxeos actus, ubique gentium, exercendi; et omnes simul honores, prærogativas omnes, ei concedimus, et privilegia quæ vero Medicinæ Doctori usquam gentium conceduntur aut concedi solent."—"Letters on the Charters of the Scotch Universities,' by J. A. Laurie, M.D., p. 18.

rule.* Long may our time-honoured Universities remain, contending only with those of modern foundation, to disseminate more liberally the seeds of light and learning which they had for too long a period withheld, or but sparingly dispensed. Whilst, however, these are rendered accessible to all, let the various contending Medical Corporations, each freed from its especial corruption, unite in one great body† (as originally purposed), receiving its individual members from all established legitimate sources—gradually extending and assimilating the studies and examinations, whereby the medical education shall be perfected in all the Universities and Colleges which now exist, or may hereafter be erected, on *one uniform basis*, until a full, perfect, and pure equipment for the purposes for which medicine was created‡ shall be the one and only qualification of every member of the Royal College of Medicine of Great Britain and Ireland.

For the due attainment of these purposes, the education and frequent periodical examinations should be eminently *practical*, as well as *progressive*; *practical*, in that every man shall receive his educa-

* See Charter, Royal College of Physicians, powers and privileges here and there subsequently extended. Appendix, 14, 15, 16.

† “Quod ipsi omnesque homines ejusdem facultatis . . . sint in re et nomine unum corpus.”—Charter, College of Physicians. Appendix, 16.

‡ “Medicinam quam pro subveniendis humanis languoribus creavit altissimus. See Rot. 32 Henry VI. Appendix, 8.

tion through *facts* rather than *words*, impressed on his memory—that the dissecting room, the laboratory, the botanic gardens, and the museum, the out-patient room, the hospital wards, the operating theatre, and the dead house—shall be the scenes of his labours, the sources of impressions, all of which, revised and corrected, modified and digested in the lecture-room and the closet, shall systematically and gradually accumulate to each man, a treasury of facts and realities never to be forgotten; *progressive*, in that class examinations on every subject, under their respective heads and in their proper seasons, according to a well-arranged curriculum, shall only be preliminary to general sessional examinations, year by year advancing, till finally the admission to the practice of *medicine* shall no longer literally or pretendedly be to the exclusion of *surgery*, but that both shall be the “*sine qua non*” of every qualified Physician.

Thus, in the true sense of the word, each member of the Medical profession—of this one Faculty—shall prove his title as a graduate of medicine, in having step by step progressed from the lowest to the highest round in the ladder set before him, and whereby alone he can enter the plateau of professional life.

Having attained the last step in this qualification for practice—this *science* of medicine—so, also, by an increased staff of medical officers, and by a well-organized distribution of labour in our Hospitals,

each man should occupy one year, or at least six months (prior to his entering on the active duties of his profession), under the eye of an experienced physician, pursuing the course prescribed by Hippocrates,* enjoined by the statutes of Salernum,† and noted among the deficiencies in the time of Harvey,‡ that of watching and recording the cases confided to his care during the absence of their respective physicians, who shall confirm or correct the reports thus made at their successive visits. In this manner may be raised up and sent forth an adequate supply of Licentiates, well educated, not only in the *science*, but in the *practice* of medicine; who shall thus from the commencement of their career contribute to the safety of the public, and the honour of the profession, whilst at the same time most eminently advancing the purposes of the Hospital, and each his own individual progress in the knowledge of practical medicine.

What valuable records may be compiled, and what inestimable habits ensured, if for every sick

* See *antè*, pp. 9 *et seq.*

† See Sprengel, tom. ii, p. 364. *Antè*, p. 27.

‡ “The deficiencies which I think good to note, being a few of many, and those such as are of a more open and manifest nature, I will enumerate The first is the discontinuance of the ancient and serious diligence of Hippocrates, which used to set down a narrative of the special cases of his patients and how they proceeded, and how they were judged by recovery or death.” — ‘Advancement of Learning,’ by Lord Bacon, vol. ii, p. 162, Montague’s edition.

person entering our Hospital wards, or the out-patient room, one duly qualified graduate shall be responsible until the death or discharge of his patient for a concise record of the origin, history and symptoms of the disease; the course and effect of the treatment pursued; whereas we have now only our 'Guy's Hospital Reports,' and the comparatively scanty but meritorious gleanings of our medical press, where, alas, too often the successful cases *only* find a place, and these (as far as they go) valuable records are sometimes only made the vehicles for selfish purposes, rather than for faithfully recording the unsuccessful as well as the successful cases—the defeats as well as the conquests—in these great battle fields.

That which has been effected by the Registrar-General in the inestimable records of Death's work amongst us in the last twenty years, may also be accomplished as to the Physician's work, in these abodes of pain and suffering, by a similar periodical report, which shall contain, not only the victories of the "great enemy" or his occasional repulse in more rare cases, but a full, true, and faithful record of facts, whether for or against each of his deadly emissaries.

If 17 in 1000 is the death-rate to be attained by the removal of preventible diseases, what is the standard to be erected against each of the five great groups—their 17 divisions—and 106 sub-divisions

of curable or incurable diseases*—it is well to know the comparative strength of our enemy in various localities, in relation to his attacks and his failures, as well as, his too numerous victories.

Every graduate thus initiated as much as possible into the “most profound secrets of nature and art—their wants and their resources”—may be sent forth, whether into public or private practice, prepared at least in some measure for the solution of that great problem—“quid Natura faciat aut ferat.”

Purified from corruptions still remaining, and reunited on such a foundation, what shall impede the onward progress of medicine? Surely the time has arrived that our gracious Queen Victoria may assert her ROYAL authority throughout the length and breadth of her kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in spite of PAPAL divisions and corruptions. So also may her ROYAL College of Physicians go forth arrayed in their triple armour,† unfettered by PAPAL restrictions‡—uncontaminated by degrading corruptions.

Happily the means whereby such improvements may be effected are at length provided in the

* See Dr. Farr’s valuable report on the “Nomenclature and Statistical Classification of Diseases for Statistical Returns.” ‘16th Ann. Report of Reg.-Gen.’

† “Triplex medendi ratio.”—*Vesalius*. Appendix, 25g.

‡ “Nec illam chirurgiæ artem sub-diaconus, diaconus vel sacerdos exerceant, quæ ad ustionem vel incisionem inducit.”—*Decret. Gen. Con. Lateran IV*, De jud. sang., &c. (Anno Christi 1215; Innocent P. III; Fredericus II Imp.)

appointment of a Medical Council* for the United Kingdom, where the public are represented by the Government nominees, and each and all the licensing bodies by their respective representatives. This is doubtless a step in the right direction; it is another great epoch in the history of the medical profession in this kingdom, and on the right use of the opportunity depends (as in times past) the future fate of medicine.

The system of registration, however, enjoined in the same Act, rather than tending to the purity and perfection of the physician or the apothecary, is confirmatory of the divisions here protested against, as well as the corruption which now especially degrades the medical profession.†

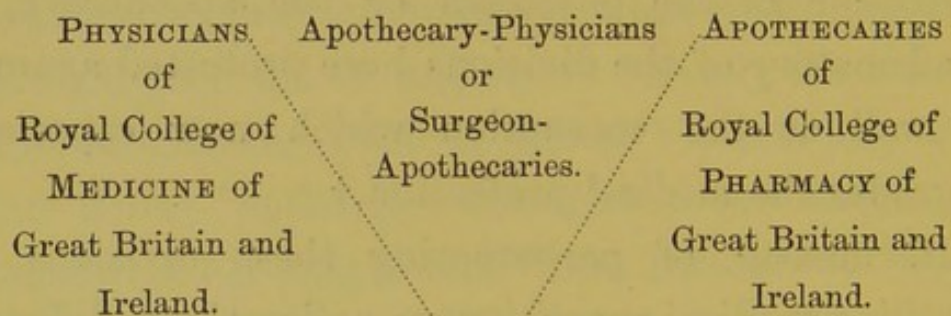
If, instead of perpetuating these divisions by enrolling medical practitioners under three different denominations (representatives of the three usurpers), there had been required, as is the case without exception in all other civilised countries, a register of all practitioners in pharmacy (whether with or without a qualification) we may have hoped in the course of time to eliminate the apothecary, as well as the physician, from the corrupt alliance now existing, and to have gradually built up a College of Pharmacy, as well as a College of Medicine.

By a system of registration such as the following

* 21 and 22 Vict., c. 90. Appendix, 30.

† See section relating to Chemists and Druggists.

the object may have been effected even without any interference with individual existing interests. If after the 1st January (say 1860), all candidates for diplomas were compelled to enroll themselves as Physician or Apothecary ONLY, then with the lives of the present apothecary-physicians or surgeon-apothecaries, this hybrid offspring would have become extinct, and a way been opened to the unity and perfection as originally enjoined on the College of Physicians 1518,* and the Society of Apothecaries —Pharmacopolites† 1616.



* “Quod ipsi omnesque homines ejusdem facultatis sint in re et nomine unum corpus et communitas perpetua sive Collegium perpetuum.”— *Charter 10 Hen. VIII*, and *Confirmatory Statutes*, Appendix, 15, 16, 17.

† “That they and all other persons educated in the faculty of pharmacy . . . shall constitute a corporation. . . . That no person, free of the Grocers or any other mystery, except those of the Apothecaries’ Company, shall keep any apothecary’s shop, or make, compound, administer, sell, send out, advertise, or offer for sale any medicines,” &c.—*Charter, 13 Jac. I.* Appendix, 23.

The impediments to such a course are no doubt many and great, both from within, and from without

the profession ; but they are not insuperable. Like the two former corruptions, that from which the physician's office now especially suffers, it may be gradually if not speedily eliminated. If each impediment be fairly considered, it will be found not only wanting in truth and justice, but for the most part in that more cogent though less worthy motive, the personal and pecuniary interests of the masses. The "opes irritamenta malorum," which some few existing parties now claim, would doubtless raise a mighty barrier against such changes ; so, also, on the part of the public, there may for a while linger that love of a "quid pro quo" engendered as regards drugs, by the innovation of the seventeenth century, when ignorance and cupidity had their antidote in pill or potion for every trifling ailment. These, however, are fast fading away, and opening a path for the course proposed in this paper, and invariably pursued in all foreign civilised states.

How different now the relative position of all classes of the profession throughout England and Wales, to that which they held for two centuries prior to 1815 ! The true secret of the physician's success during the greater part of that period was the limited number of his own body, and *the ignorance and inefficiency of the apothecary* for the duties he had gradually assumed. The true secret of the apothecary's success was the *subscription of the physician* to the extensive and increasing system

of *poly-pharmacy*, which he had of necessity adopted as a means of remuneration, proportioned to his increasing importance. Thus a multitude of fees on the one hand was a compensation for the quantity and variety of medicine on the other.* But as the ground-work, the basis of this system, is gone; so also must the superstructure follow.

The “wholly ignorant and utterly incompetent”† apothecary has at length been superseded by the well-educated attendant in ordinary on all classes of society; so that, in proportion as a number of licentiates in “the science and practice of medicine” equal to the demand of the public has been attained, this once lucrative system has declined, or rather fallen into the hands of men similarly qualified and situated to the then apothecary—the *druggist and his colleagues*—combined even now with too large a number of each division of the profession.

The necessary consequence of this partial failure of the old system is evident in the variety of degrading and ridiculous expedients, a few of which only have been brought before us.‡ The increased number of physicians, together with the efficiency of the general practitioner, has left the junior physician, or surgeon, who assumes a position, and claims a fee—equal to that of a Brodie or a

* See Dr. Guthrie's evidence before Commission of 1834, Sir H. Halford's, and others. Also *antè*, p. 94.

† See Appendix, 29.

‡ See *antè*, p. 166 *et seq.*

Watson—with nought but an increased scale of expenses and his private resources to support them.* How great then is the temptation, and, it may be said, sometimes the necessity, to resort to some of those devices, the most favorable of which are not unworthy the sneers of our continental brethren; for, alas! too often the more degrading the expedient the more profitable the result. Could a return be made of the receipts of all those who take the higher grade of the profession, no doubt would remain that the vast majority of such are aspirants for honour, rather than emolument; whilst, on the other hand, were the receipts of those lowest in the scale of professional reputation also taken, the evidence would be as clear, that here is the most fertile field for emolument.

The well-educated general practitioner sees that the day has come for some revised mode of practice and remuneration. He can no longer submit to weigh his merits by the amount of drugs his patient swallows; yet the difficulty of separating from pharmacy is great indeed, when so large a number of licensed as well as unlicensed practitioners agree to estimate their value ALONE by this standard.

If honour and emolument combined are to be the fair prize presented to the profession; if health and safety are the objects of the public, all will confess

* See "Hospital Physicians and Surgeons," 'Lancet,' July 18, 1857.

that these cannot be attained by the present system, or, rather, want of system. In large towns the physician may with advantage give especial heed to individual diseases, means of cure, or classes of society, as circumstances may induce him; but such separation from the general duties of his office should be only a voluntary exception, and in no way give him a superior status in his profession; nay, rather the reverse, as in days of old, or as at the present day in foreign states.* The *ordinary family physician* must come forth in all his fair proportions, neither *reft of half his office* on the one hand, nor oppressed with a twofold burthen on the other. If the field of medicine be so vast and extensive, that men *assumed to have* superior opportunities and attainments, can but grasp a very limited portion, or be "*useful in some cures only*," then most assuredly the "*inferior grade*," who are the ordinary attendants on nine tenths of the public, cannot undertake *the whole* of the physician's office with that of the apothecary superadded, with any honour to themselves, or safety to the public.

All divisions of the profession are, at the present day, alike on one or other horn of the dilemma. The comparatively few who assume the name and status of "pure" physician or "pure" surgeon, but half perform the duties of their profession; whilst the 13,470 who, for the most part, are performing the

* See *antè*, p. 18; also Prussia, p. 184.

office of physician to all ranks and classes, in every city and village, going forth by day and by night, at every call of suffering humanity, are impeded in thus serving the public, and honouring their profession, by the superaddition of another man's work, which, at the same time, disqualifies them for hospital or other honorable appointments, and stigmatises them as of a "lower grade." There *may be* "physicians extraordinary," ἀρχιατροί, for the few; but there *must be* "physicians in ordinary," ιατροί, for the many.* From Her Majesty down to the meanest of her subjects, *all* are worthy the physician's care, and he who fills that office is worthy the physician's name. If a uniformity of education and qualification, if a single portal to the profession be insisted on, no less must *a uniformity in name, in mode of practice, and remuneration, follow*; or strife and jealousy will ever reign.

The two corruptions from which medicine has been separated in past times—1518 and 1745—are the best precedents for the course to be pursued in that which now exists. It was not from those who were the depositaries of power—the legally constituted authorities—the corporate bodies—that our chief improvements came; it was from individuals awakened to the necessities of the times, and stimu-

* "Truly, indeed," says Ehrenberg, "the microscopic organisms are very inferior in individual energy to lions and elephants; but in their united influences they are far more important than all these animals." See 'Owen on Invertebrata,' second edition, p. 39.

lated by a worthy ambition to meet them. The “Act for better regulating the practice of apothecaries,” 1815,* was of this character; it was an all-important step towards the supply of well-educated practitioners in medicine, equal to the requirements of the public; but, at the same time, it legalised an alliance that should never have existed, and which tended, with the previous Act of 1540† to associate the functions of the physician, in modern times, with the then uneducated, and for the most part “wholly ignorant and utterly incompetent,” usurpers of that office.‡

I mean not to disparage the Priest—the Apothecary—or even the Barber!—in their several relations to society. I would not underrate their individual merit in their several and distinct callings; but I cannot overestimate their evil consequences in relation to medicine. All alike degrade the physician’s office by encroachments and alliances, such as I

* See Appendix, 29.

† See Appendix, 18, 19.

‡ Although a general analogy exists in the Acts of 1540 and that of 1815, severally legalising the *corruption* of the barber, and of the apothecary, yet is there one very striking difference. The former Act unites the barber and the surgeon in one company, but expressly forbids the same individual to practise both “barbery” and “surgery” (see 32 Hen. VIII; Appendix, 18); whereby a distinction was made, which in after time—1745—no doubt aided the emancipation of the surgeon from the barber, and their division into separate companies. Had such a clause been inserted in the Act of 1815, which unites the apothecary and the physician, the path to a separation of two offices equally distinct, might have been much more probable, and easy of access.

have depicted; and all honorable minds are equally interested in retracing the steps whereby they have been corrupting and corrupted.

An aggressive warfare meets no sanction by the law of nations; neither can it be better prevented or resisted, than by strength and purity *within* the state assailed. If such principles had existed throughout in the College of Physicians, neither of the two last corruptions and divisions would have been permitted in modern times. If the limits of medicine had been truly fixed, and its several ranks well filled; if the powers and privileges possessed by the College had been exercised for the cultivation of medicine in “all and every its members and parts” for all classes of society—we should never have had the barber-surgeon of 1540, or the apothecary-physician of 1815, established by law in this land. But the interest of the few—not the dignity of the entire profession—was sought. The “non sibi sed toti” was reversed by the College; the “salus populi suprema lex” was forgotten; and thus the objects of their charter annulled.*

We have at the present day every means for high intellectual cultivation, as witness the incomparable fruits of our second emancipation;† but morally we are a wide waste, a wilderness, where every tempta-

* See *antè*, p. 112, note, “pro salubri gubernatione,” &c.

† The Hunterian Museum and its Professors (at the time these pages are written)—Owen, Paget, Quekett.

tion is afforded to envy, sarcasm, and deceit, and no inducement held out to unity, straight-forward candour, and honesty, for the individual who, at the same time, would seek both honour and fair emolument in his profession.

Without an entire separation of pharmacy from the practice of medicine—a full right to the exercise of all our powers in the use of every acknowledged means of cure—and a scale of charges to meet all classes*—the fate of the physician's office is irremediable. It cannot be that the exercise of what is called one of the learned professions is compatible with the trading establishments in all parts of the metropolis; neither under existing circumstances can the man of ordinary means aspire to the care of a "pure" physician *and* "pure" surgeon as his general medical attendants. The truth is self-evident: as long as the public are taught, *in any measure*, that the gauge of a man's worth in the practice of the medical profession is the amount of medicine taken by his patients,—so long must the temptation be forcibly presented to his mind, either to sacrifice his honour to his interest, or his interest to his honour. The ignorance of past times can no longer be pleaded, and the deception, however unwillingly, must henceforth be wilfully practised. It

* "Sit castus, sobrius, pius, et misericors, non cupidus, non extortor pecuniarum, sed secundum laborem suum, et facultates infirmi, et qualitatem finis, et dignitatem ipsius, salaria recipiat moderatè." *Guido de Cauliaco*, cap. sing. See 'Statutes of Salernum,' *antè*, p. 28.

is true, some of our well-educated general practitioners in medicine, the true followers of the ancient *ιατροι*, refuse entirely this mode of remuneration; whilst by a larger number it is partially adopted, and by still more is made the only source of income. As long as this pertains to the medical profession as a body, they are indissolubly united link by link in a chain, which drags them down from the highest to the lowest, until all, more or less, savour of a grade which they would not acknowledge, but which is still in existence—the representatives of the uneducated barber-surgeon and the apothecary-physician in their primæval luxuriance.*

If the profession can be awakened to their true interests, no less may the public also. If with one voice they proclaimed the fact that the poly-pharmacy of the last century was no more needful to the recovery from trifling ailments than the homœopathic globules of the present, then might the long-contending factions, “*contraria contrariis*,” “*similia similibus*,” give place to a more true therapeutic dogma, *Infinitesima infinitessimis curantur*. One thing is certain in the review we have taken of these “footprints in the sands of time,” that we are each and

* The numerous shops for the sale of combs and brushes, perfumes and pomatum, for bleeding, cupping, and tooth-drawing, in combination with the physician's office, too nearly approach Dr. Garth's description of this

“amphibious fry,

Bold to prescribe, and busy to apply.”

See ‘Dispensary,’ canto 2.

all, without exception, in our professional status, more or less the analogues of corruptions and divisions, effected in times past for unworthy purposes, traced only to unworthy examples, and continued for unworthy motives;* and the sooner we shake off the opprobrium the better. We are the followers of ancient medicine in *name only*; our precedents are drawn from its mediæval corruptions. We may confess a veneration for antiquity, but let it not be an admiration which searches, in the obscurity and thick darkness of the cloister, for proscribed limits to the physician's functions. We would rather revert to a higher and a purer source—to the bright morning dawn of Hippocrates—the clear noon-day sun of Celsus—the lengthening shadows of Galen—or the lingering twilight rays of Paulus: to the dicta and practice of these sages, or even the feeble reflection of the Arabic schools, we would concede a greater deference, than to the edicts and canons of

* Not only the divisions of "pure" physician and surgeon are by their *compulsory* limitations due to these innovators, but further subdivisions may claim the same pure and ancient origin. A recent writer (see Froude's 'History of England, vol. ii, p. 91), thus describes the "specialities" of the priest-physician at the commencement of the sixteenth century:—"Every monastery, every parish church, had in those days its special relics, its special images, its special something, to attract the interest of the people." "The people brought offerings to the shrines where it was supposed that the relics were of greatest potency. The clergy, to secure the offerings, invented the relics, and invented the stories of the wonders which had been worked by them." See also 'Pettigrew's Superstitions,' *antè*, pp. 32 and 33.

the Romish church in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. We would obey the precepts, and follow the example, of the "Great Physician" and His apostles, rather than their boasted successors in the dark ages :* we would emulate the character of the "good Samaritan," rather than the priest and Levite:† and finally, we would take the evidence of our Government Commission in 1834,‡ rather than of those who would be followers of their "wholly ignorant and utterly incompetent" predecessors.§ Why then continue these unhappy divisions, these unworthy

* *Antè*, pp. 38 and 39.

† *Antè*, p. 463.

‡ *Mode of practice in circumscribed limits.*

Mode of remuneration by sale of medicine.

Dr. Elliotson, q. 1800, &c.

Sir H. Halford, q. 264-6.

Dr. Billing, 1884, 1894-1903.

Dr. Macmichael, 871-6.

Dr. Sims, 2126, 2131, 2222-3.

Dr. Sims, 2160-4.

Dr. Neill Arnott, 2448, 2470-5.

Dr. Neill Arnott, 2463.

Sir D. Barry, 2583-7.

Sir D. Barry, 2652-5.

Dr. Copland, 3282.

Sir H. Holland, 3033.

Dr. Farre, 3422-3, 3430-3.

Dr. Farre, 3468-9.

Dr. Birkbeck, 3531-6.

Dr. Birkbeck, 3545.

Dr. J. Johnson, 3644-53, 3669.

Dr. J. Johnson-3657-8.

Sir C. Clark, 4266.

Sir C. Locock, 4314-16.

Sir A. Cooper, 5626-9.

Sir A. Cooper, 5631-3.

Sir B. Brodie, 5757-9.

Sir B. Brodie, 5765.

Mr. Travers, 5818-22.

Mr. Travers, 5796-9.

Sir A. Carlisle, 5980-3.

Sir A. Carlisle, 5976-7.

Mr. Lawrence, 6135-44.

Mr. Lawrence, 6210-1.

Mr. Green, 6551-2, 6.

Mr. J. Scott, 6434.

Mr. Carpue, 6725-7.

Mr. Carpue, 6738.

Dr. Somerville, 6866.

§ 55 Geo. III, c. 194, sec. 7. Appendix, 29.

examples, these principles of the dark ages, this “*crescens decrescentibus aliis*,” this heightening the dignity of a few, by the dark ground of a “lower grade”? Let us scale these barriers that shut out the light and truth of the past; let us revert to that glorious Augustan age; let us behold our model in the works of Celsus, as in a mirror, where the reason and experience of the past were concentrated, and from which—*illuminated by the clear light of Christian morality*—both might have been reflected and expanded in increasing splendour to the present day, but for the dark dense medium through which they had to pass. Let us gather the scattered rays emerging from these deep recesses, recombine them, and illumine them with that light, the withdrawal of which had withered, and well-nigh annihilated the health-giving, life-preserving functions of the physician’s office.

The safety of the public, and the honour of the profession, as enjoined by the College charter,* require it; they are synonymous, coexistent, and coextensive; they are twin-born, and must flourish or decline in conjunction.

Well would it have been if all the sanitary measures of the present day were emanating from their rightful source; well if the College members were at work in every village and every court of every city;

* “*Quibus tum sui honoris, tum publicæ utilitatis nomine*,” &c. See Appendix, 16.

well if the microscope and test-tube of its censors had revealed and checked the adulterations of food and medicine which it was their duty to do ; well if its emissaries were as numerous as are the requirements of the public, endowed with all the cultivated powers a physician should possess, but embarrassed by no abnormal burthen ; then might the public and the profession have reaped the precious fruit, which has been hitherto denied to both through these corruptions and divisions.

Christian morality has never shed its lustre on our profession, in its entirety. The dark clouds of mediæval times have never been dispersed. The deep shadow of this impenetrable barrier has never been removed. The true test of membership in one body has never been admitted ; that “ if one member suffer, all the members suffer with it ; or one member be honoured, all the members rejoice with it.” No, if this unity of purpose, and harmony of action, had been the motive principles in our college, how different might have been the result, how opposite the state of our profession now, and how truly the purpose of the charter fulfilled, “ *quod ipsi omnesque homines ejusdem facultatis de, et, in civitate prædicta, sint in re et nomine unum corpus et communitas perpetua, sive collegium perpetuum.*”*

It may be—doubtless will be—said, these are Utopian schemes which never can be realised. Why

* Appendix, 16.

not in this kingdom as in others? Are we not, in the extent and number of our corruptions and divisions, an exception to the whole civilised world? Is not the characteristic of the present times, a breaking up, a decomposition of existing arrangements in all classes and communities, an interruption of long-established routine, by the readjustment of "right men in their right places"? Whatever the issue, as regards that community to which we all belong, our duty in the interim is evident. We cannot, if we would, stay this disruption; but we may endeavour so to seize its self-repellant elements, so to remodel, recombine these diverse occupations, as shall most conduce to the honour and safety, not of sections or classes only, but of the entire profession, and the entire public, but "most especially of those who cannot discern the uncunning from the cunning."*

Such was the charge confided to the College of Physicians in 1518; but delegated to others in 1540 and 1815.† It is for recovery from these corruptions and divisions that all should contend, so that each may be engrafted on his right foundation, whether as physician or apothecary.

Why is the generic name physician—the "*ιατρος*" and "medicus" of the Greeks and Romans respectively—exchanged for one analogous only to the "medicine man" of the North American Indian, or

* 3 Henry VIII, chap. 11. Appendix, 14.

† Appendix, 1.

that of other uncivilised nations, whilst the term physician is considered as something merely oracular? * These distinctions in name as well as in office of physician and surgeon, are much lost sight of in foreign states; they have their “vulnerum medicus” as of old—their “médecin opératoire”—their “wund-

* The title of Physician, however, cannot claim so high and sacred an origin as the custom of the United Kingdom would imply; it arose in the period of transition, when priest-physicians “se physicorum nomine venditantes” (Vesalius, *antè*, p. 169), limited themselves nominally to the use of diet and medicine, and that for the treatment of internal diseases only, assigning the other portion of medicine to their servants and barbers, whom they invidiously termed Chirurgeons. Hence arises the following definition of the term:—“Physician (ὁ φυσικός), a word derived from φύσις, nature, which means originally what we should now call a *natural philosopher*, or one of those persons who have for their object the investigation of nature and its laws, in opposition to οἱ ἠθικοί, or those who examine more particularly into the moral nature of men (Philosophy). In English, however, the word Physician is used only to designate the professors of the healing art, called in Greek ἰατροί, and in Latin medici; whilst in most (if not all) other European languages the derivations of the Greek word are still employed in their original meaning, and the idea of healing is expressed by some native word, or by one derived from the Latin” (‘Penny Cyclopædia’). Surely the time has arrived for a revision of our nomenclature generally, as, if the term *Apothecary* conveys only the thought of a *shop* in connection with those who are fulfilling the office of the ancient “medicus” to nine tenths of the population, whilst that of *Chirurgion* directs merely to the *handicraft* portion of medicine, and that of *Pharmacopolite* to the *seller of poisons* as well as remedies, so also this our highest designation must be marked as “in opposition to those who examine into the moral nature of men.” This forms, indeed, but too true and sorry a picture of the faults and errors, the disputes and divisions, of the present as well as the past, rather than the catholic and comprehensive terms which Medicine and Pharmacy should impart to their respective followers—the “Médecin” and “Pharmacien” of our Continental brethren.

ärzt"—their special as well as their general physician; but in no country are there such narrow limits and high barriers to the "pure" physician, both in his mode of practice and remuneration, as in this metropolis of the world, viz. *the limited class of cases—the limited use of means—and the one prescribed uniform fee.*

If the reasons adduced, call for the "reunion of the divided parts of medicine," no less numerous and urgent are those for "the separation of all that is abnormally united to it." Unless both these ends are accomplished, no uniformity in mode of practice or remuneration can ever be attained—no harmony—no unity—no elevation.

One of the earliest sanctions to be found for the distinction of office insisted on, is in that book which, though not included in the canon of Scripture, is second only to it, for the purity of its moral precepts, the depth and accuracy of its penetration. The wisdom of the son of Sirach has said—"Honour a Physician with the honour due unto him, for the uses which you may have of him, for the Lord hath created him. For of the most High cometh healing, and he shall receive honour of the king. The skill of the Physician shall lift up his head: and in the sight of great men he shall be in admiration. The Lord hath created medicines out of the earth; and he that is wise will not abhor them. Was not the water made sweet with wood, that the virtue thereof

might be known? And he hath given men skill that he might be honoured in his marvellous works. With such doth he heal men, and take away their pains. *Of such doth the apothecary make a confection:* and of his work there is no end, and from him is peace over all the earth."

After dwelling on the duties of this high and honoured office, he concludes with the following sound maxim:—"The wisdom of a learned man cometh by opportunity of leisure; and he that hath little business shall become wise."

The whole of this chapter may well be studied as an accurate and truthful definition of the learned man and the artificer respectively; to each is assigned honour in his office, but separate and well-defined duties to either. Of the latter it is said, "every one is wise in his work, and without them cannot a city be inhabited: and they shall not dwell where they will not go up and down;"
 "they will maintain the state of the world, and all their desire is in the work of their craft."*

The strict penal statutes of Salernum, and those of the Arabic schools, were in relation to medicine and pharmacy an echo of these wise general principles which should pervade all states.† They were a barrier firm and strong in proportion to the evils they were purposed to prevent; and are the acknowledged foundation on which all modern laws

* Ecclesiasticus xxxviii, 1.

† See *antè*, pp. 28 and 76.

are built.* They have, without exception, been perpetuated *in all civilised countries and throughout all ages* since that period, including even our own, prior to the "Act for better regulating the practice of apothecaries," 1815, which broke down the distinction, and is *the first and only* legal enactment extant in opposition to the wisdom of the son of Sirach!

If such is the universal and unanimous evidence for this distinction in office, can any sufficient reasons be adduced for the exception made alone in this kingdom?

By it the sanction has been given to our profession to set aside the real value of the physician's office, and supersede it by the sale of drugs. Not only are the evil effects so many and great *within* the profession, but more and more of corruption and quackery are thereby daily extending from other sources.

The fact that 1771 physicians are the only legalised prescribers, whereby 14,307 druggists in England and Wales should be supported, is ample proof of the amount of illicit practice that must of necessity exist amongst this class of persons, who, in the year 1831, numbered only about 5336.† Again, that "Professor" Holloway should be enabled to expend annually the enormous sum of £30,000‡ in publishing

* Appendix, 16.

† See 'Lancet,' Sept. 13, 1856, p. 319 (number proportionally reduced).

‡ *Antè*, p. 126.

his qualifications for filling the double office of *prescribing and dispensing pills and ointment alone*, is another monstrous fact, and clearly proves the emolument realised by the class of "Specialists" he so well represents. The amount received for stamps issued for "Patent Medicines" in the United Kingdom exhibits also this extensive and increasing mode of practice. It points out not only the relative position of the three divisions of the kingdom in this respect, but the great increase throughout England* during the last five years—ending March 31, 1857—when compared with the five years ending 1844, as shown in a return made to the House of Commons at that time. The receipts were as follows :

* In the year 1840	£29,858	8	8½	In the year 1853	£37,233	10	6
„ 1841 ...	29,492	18	10½	„ 1854 ...	42,072	10	10
„ 1842 ...	30,289	18	2	„ 1855 ...	35,420	10	0
„ 1843 ...	30,502	16	9	„ 1856 ...	40,017	6	10½
„ 1844 ...	28,936	5	0½	„ 1867 ...	46,415	10	3
	<hr/>				<hr/>		
	149,080	7	6½		201,159	8	5½
Average annual receipts, } 1840—1844	<hr/>			Average annual receipts, } 1853—1857	<hr/>		
	£29,816	1	6		£40,231	17	8
	<hr/>				<hr/>		

Surely, as long as this *mode of practice and remuneration* is not only authorised by the laws of this land, but sanctioned and followed by too many of the licensed practitioners of medicine, there can be no efficient protection given to any class or section,

* The portion paid annually by Scotland has never exceeded £350, and that by Ireland is nothing towards this large amount. See 'Finance Accounts.'

either of the public or the profession, and the words of the late Dr. James Johnson may be well considered:—"I declare my conscientious opinion, founded on long observation and reflection, that if there was not a single physician, surgeon, apothecary, man-midwife, chemist, druggist, or drug, on the face of the earth, there would be less sickness and less mortality than now obtains. When we reflect that physic is a conjectural art—that the best physicians make mistakes—that medicine is administered by hosts of quacks—that it is swallowed by multitudes of people without any professional advice at all—and that the world would be infinitely more careful of themselves if they were conscious that they had no remedy from drugs—these and many other facts will show that the proposition I have made is more startling than untrue. But, as it is, drugs will be swallowed by all classes—rich and poor—with the hope of regaining health and prolonging life, and also with the expectation of being able to counteract the culpable indulgence of the appetites and passions!" "Hinc subitæ mortes et intestata senectus."*

If the supposition can thus be entertained, that the good effected by the honest and wise fulfilment of the physician's office, is more than counterbalanced by its illicit and corrupt administration throughout "the face of the whole earth," how much more per-

* 'Tour in Ireland,' p. 14.

tinently does it apply to England and Wales, with its especial corruption and divisions?

Moreover, if physicians', surgeons', and apothecaries' shops, side by side with those of druggists, grocers, herbalists, quacks, and impostors of all kinds, are made the conduit-pipes for poisons, whereby murder and suicide are so rife in the land, whereby habits are encouraged such as a Coleridge—a De Quincey could not resist, where shall the evil effects end? Shall not the masses in these troublous times find too great a temptation, when temporary rest and peace, “comfort,” and “quietness,” may be purchased for a few pence?

What can we expect from those who, uninfluenced by any moral restraint, have no impediment placed to the use of that drug, whose seductive influence, whose overwhelming effects are thus trumpeted forth to the sick and suffering in body and in mind?

“I took it, and in an hour, oh! heavens, what a revulsion! what an upheaving from its lowest depths of the inner spirit! what an apocalypse of the world within me! That my pains had vanished was now a trifle in my eyes. This negative effect was swallowed up in the immensity of those positive effects which had opened before me in the abyss of divine enjoyment thus suddenly revealed. Here was a panacea, a *Φαρμακον νη̄πενθε̄ς* for all human woes. Here was the secret of happiness, about which philosophers had disputed for so many ages, at once

discovered! Happiness might now be bought for a penny, and carried in the waistcoat pocket; portable ecstasies might be had corked up in a pint bottle; and peace of mind could be sent down in gallons by the mail coach.”*

As an antidote to the above dangerous rhapsody, ere we proceed, it may be well to append the obverse of this picture, which M. Huc gleaned from an extensive experience with the opium smokers in China. He says that, “with the exception of some rare smokers who, thanks to a quite exceptional organization, are able to restrain themselves within the bounds of moderation, all others advance rapidly towards death, after having passed through the successive stages of idleness, debauchery, poverty, the ruin of their physical strength, and the complete prostration of their intellectual and moral faculties. Nothing can stop a smoker who has made much progress in this habit; incapable of attending to any kind of business, insensible to every event, the most hideous poverty, and the sight of a family plunged into despair and misery, cannot rouse him to the smallest exertion, so complete is the disgusting apathy in which he is sunk.”†

If this is another not only possible, but very probable, effect of the non-restraint system pursued in this land, is not the physician’s office degraded by

* De Quincey’s ‘Confessions of an English Opium-eater,’ p. 90.

† Huc’s ‘Chinese Empire,’ vol. i, p. 30.

its frequent union with such establishments, and is it not deserving more than the reproach of Dr. Johnson, when our drug-shops may be multiplied until they compete only with gin-shops in the number and wretchedness of their victims? Much has been said and written on the demoralising effect of the opium trade with China, and the criminal part taken by this country in connection with it; but, if the statements of Dr. Farr, the late Professor Johnstone, and many others,* be considered respecting the increased consumption of opium in this kingdom, may we not tremble for our countrymen, not only in the character of recipients, but also as the administrators, at home and abroad, of these frightful influences? We can, indeed, sympathise with the abject need of Shakespeare's apothecary, whose poverty—but not his will—assented to the sale of “such mortal drugs;” but far more may we rejoice, if England's, like Mantua's laws, were “death to any he that utters them,” save and except in obedience to the authorised physician's prescription.

Again, the *high charges* of our better druggists, and the *extensive adulteration* of comparatively cheaper shops, are evils that cannot be remedied in the present overstocked and hybrid state of the profession of medicine and pharmacy. Every one knows—had not the Government Commission of 1834 proved the fact—that the visitation of the apothecaries'

* See *antè*, p. 162.

shops by the censors of the College of Physicians as enjoined by Act of Parliament, is a mere name; whilst the able researches of Richard Phillips, and, more recently, those of Dr. Hassall, have fully demonstrated that this ought not, and need not be the case.

What confidence can any man feel that the prescription he writes will attain the end he has in view, as long as the office of apothecary is performed by thousands of men without any education or qualification for the purpose? Or what resource has this numerous race but in one or other of the expedients adopted? Surely, if upon occasion of the campaign so recently waging in the East it was well to revise and correct the various munitions of war so shamefully defective, and so signally inefficient for their purpose, no less is it needful in the everyday war we wage *in defence of health and life*; otherwise the shot and shell we use will too often fall short of their mark, and disease and death triumph.

THE MODES OF PRACTICE AND REMUNERATION, with all their dire effects, have been too long and too much neglected. When Greek and Latin contained the whole of medical as well as general literature, how essential, how indispensable was the intimate and critical knowledge of each. The ancient authors in medicine would never else have emerged from the monkish cell, or from the disguise of their Syriac and Arabic translations. Latin was then the only

medium whereby knowledge of all kinds could circulate throughout the world, and therefore the only means whereby that world could be re-enlightened with the lore of ancient days. Far from wishing to contravene the opinion that a thorough knowledge of Latin and Greek must ever be the *basis* of a sound and liberal education; valuing both, not only for their intrinsic worth *in the neglected truths they have conveyed to us*, but as the root of so many modern languages, and the foundation of scientific nomenclature; yet we may justly contend, since modern literature and modern languages demand so much of the student's attention, that some mischief has arisen from the large *and almost exclusive* expenditure of time formerly devoted to them, and still pursued in some of our old and valued grammar schools. This was the eminence from which the fellows* of the College of Physicians erroneously surveyed the profession in times past, forgetting that a university education was but the scaffolding whereby the physician was to be built up. The value of such an opportunity must, like other great advantages, be weighed only by the use made of it, and the results produced, whether to the profession or the public. How constantly it has proved but the abortive germ

* A bye-law existed until a very recent period, by which admission to the fellowship was restricted to the graduates of Oxford or Cambridge.

of promised or expected fruits in its relation to the perfect physician, the entire profession, or to the public, we have too truly discerned. Where are the “fellows” who by it alone have “accomplished all things” needful for a physician to know? * Where are the results of those who held undivided sway as fellows of the College for three centuries? Have they exhibited to us medicine in all its purity and fulness, as contained in the ancient authors; or are not the results too visible in the corruptions, divisions, and contractions, I have attempted to portray? Have our Royal Colleges taught their members that—“It is the business of the physician to know, in the first place, things similar and things dissimilar; those connected with things most important, most easily known, *and in any wise known*; which are to be *seen, touched, and heard*; which are to be perceived *in the sight, and the touch, and the hearing*; and the nose, and the tongue, and the understanding; which are to be known by “all the means we know other things.” † Do they—“esteem him most whose skill is most extensive,” ‡ or him who limits his attention to special diseases, certain means of cure, and certain classes of society, such as are taught by the Egyptians of old, § the

* See 14 and 15 Hen. VIII, c. 5, sec. 3. Appendix, 16.

† Adams's ‘Hippocrates,’ vol. ii, p. 474.

‡ Grieve's ‘Celsus,’ book 7, preface.

§ Rollin's ‘Ancient History.’

monasteries of the dark ages,* or the schools of the modern Chinese ?†

Do they consider Galen less a physician at Pergamus than he was at Rome ?

Was Soranus, who declined operative surgery in his old age, more “pure” before or after ?‡ Do they esteem him most who, when age or infirmity has deprived him of the strong, steady, and dexterous hand, the quick and clear sight, has no other resource than “chirurgics;” who, qualified for the path of a “pure” surgeon *only*, and who, if he lives to a hundred years, with failing sight and tottering limb, must pursue the same course; or do they believe that all the means of cure, all the cases of disease or injury, described in Paulus, are worthy the physician’s care in attaining the one object of giving “sanitatem ægris ?”

Was HARVEY of less worth because five years the disciple of FABRICIUS at Padua, and afterwards Professor of Surgery ?§ Would JENNER have been more “pure” had he despised the aid of his master, HUNTER ? or that handiwork which has saved its millions ? Such have been phases in the history of men, who were, most emphatically, the “world’s preservers;” yet the admission of all such to one

* Froude’s ‘History of England,’ *antè*, p. 210.

† Huc’s ‘Chinese Empire.’

‡ Peyrilhe and Dujardin, ‘Hist. de la Chir.’ tom. ii, p. 69.

§ Appendix, 25*h*.

body corporate of physicians is forbidden in this the nineteenth century.

Surely the "dust of the schools" had blinded men highest in authority. Whilst poring over the casket, they had forgotten the jewel within; whilst scraping at the shell, they never reached the kernel; whilst devouring the *language*, they ignored the *truths* it conveyed. So that their Charter and their practice, their Acts of Parliament and their bye-laws, their precepts and their example, only affix to them the stigma, "video meliora] proboque, deteriora sequor." They speak only of ancient medicine, whilst they represent its mediæval corruptions and divisions.

It must be allowed that the time has arrived when each and all should contend for our dignity and our desert *by combining* to effect one object, the elevation of our common profession. Each individual can, by this method alone, advance himself and his vocation in the opinion of his fellow-practitioner and of the public.

How many of the latter now endure their sufferings or their fears in suspense rather than submit to a disproportionate fee on the one hand, or unnecessary medicines on the other; and how great are the evils hence arising to the profession as well as the public! How many are thus driven to the various forms of quackery! How often is the mind, when weakened by anxiety and suspense—it may be by disease—

pleasingly diverted with some interesting toy in the shape of theory; whilst the means of cure, so neglected in the last century, the “Airs, Waters, and Places” of Hippocrates, the “Dietetics” contained in the first four books of Celsus, stealthily produce their marvellous and curative effects; whereby truth is again obscured and imposture strengthened.*

It is impossible that the great mass of our profession can pretend, in one short life, to do the work of two. “The art we exercise is long, opportunities rare, experience deceitful, judgment difficult;” therefore must the part so abnormally united to the physician’s office, which has never flourished in their hands, which was never sanctioned by any other age or state, be consigned to those so well prepared to receive it, with honour to themselves and the profession, and with advantage to all;† whilst the “pure” physician shall traverse the same path, attain the one necessary qualification for the exercise of medicine “in all and every its members and parts,” enter at the one portal, and thus join that “unum corpus in re et nomine” which shall array truth and honesty against quackery and imposture,

* If a professor of hygiene (or dietetics in its comprehensive sense) were appointed to every school in the kingdom, he may soon take the wind out of the sails of the chief quackeries of the present day.

† The Pharmaceutical Society with compulsory instead of voluntary examinations, and with the exclusive privileges accorded to the Society of Apothecaries in 1616. See Appendix 23.

reason and experience against mystery and novelty, purity and unity against corruption and division.*

If thus combined, what would withstand its regenerated powers? Might not the medical profession thus dare to efface prejudices long existing and pertinaciously adhered to, instead of echoing to the destruction of each other, the modes of practice and remuneration adopted from the three successive usurpers of their office? Might not the public be taught with one voice that our duty is to guard their health and life so as by any or by all means to resist or repel the invasions of disease and death? Might we not, as skilful pilots, when the elements of man's frail bark are disarranged, or it may be threaten dissolution, hold fast the helm, and, with vigilant eye, watch for indications to correct the one or to avert the other? Let careful observation, quick perception, calm reflection, prompt and decisive action, persevering unremitting efforts, be combined for one purpose, to detect and to destroy disease, to release from, or at least relieve, all suffering. Let these be the valued instruments in the physician's armoury, rather than the coloured syrups and the perfumed waters, and how glorious the prospect!

* The passage quoted from the only work extant of Scribonius Largus (see note, *antè*, p. 18), was written by him at a time when he was absent from Rome with the Emperor Claudius, and probably during his expedition to these shores. (See Smith's 'Biographical Dictionary,' "Largus Scribonius.") How well may this true definition of the physician's office return hither in the nineteenth century.

But now how different when quackery within only competes with quackery from without; when the legalized growth of corruption and division only offers the widest field for duplicity and deceit, so fatal to the lofty and ennobling purposes for which “medicine was created.”

It has been asked, why do not men of rank and influence enter a profession so inviting for its intellectual pursuits, so elevating, so godlike in its better offices? They would—as they do the sister professions of divinity and law—but for its social position, its moral degradation. It is not that the laws of *nature* are second to the laws of *man* in their study or their application; it is not that the *health and life* of man are of less value than *his peace and property*; yet how great the honour and emolument accruing to him who devotes himself to the one! how opposite the fate of him who enlists in the service of the other! It is not that he who wars beneath the banner of health and life against disease and death is less honorably engaged than he “who slays his thousands;” yet how great the contrast of their relative position at the present day, and that which they held in olden times!*

The fact is, that the profession, second to one only, has, by weakness and division within, opened wide the flood-gates to corruption from without.

* See *antè*, p. 143; also, ‘Rev. Robert Hall’s Works,’ vol. iv, p. 500.

Why have law, physic, and divinity held such relative positions in the world's estimation—as witness their respective honours and rewards—but for the causes assigned? Are not the laws of God, of nature, and of man, physiologically and pathologically considered, the study of the three learned professions? Can there be subjects more worthy the highest intellect, the purest morality? Surely, then, the honour attaching to each should be in an inverse ratio to that so usually assigned them, inasmuch as the laws of God in Revelation and in Nature are superior to the laws of man. The study of nature, with all her varied phenomena, her history and philosophy, even when in its relation to the health and life of man, may confess its place second to one, but to this one only, either in its subject-matter or its purpose. How are these high and holy objects lost sight of by the struggles and contentions herein depicted! In this medical vivarium, each is seeking by selfish and personal aggrandisement to eclipse his brethren, and hence their general obscuration; whereas, by a right distribution of all for their several and distinct offices, each might, in submission to nature's laws, correct the interruption of those laws which civilisation with all its boasting has effected, especially by the concentration of masses, in the present day.

In a recent translation by the Sydenham Society Oesterlen thus speaks :* “ Unprofessional people are

* ‘ Medical Logic,’ translated by G. Whitley, p. 434.

not aware of the limits which are placed alike to our knowledge of our art and its application. It is more to be wondered at that physicians should themselves further this error, by thinking proper to surround themselves with a halo of power which they do not possess, renouncing that to which their art truly entitles them, and may, in future, do so in a yet higher degree, as shall be presently shown. Nobody thinks of blaming or deriding a natural philosopher or meteorologist because he has not the power of averting tempests and storms, or of converting bad into fine weather; nor does he ever propose to deceive himself or others by the assumption of such an attribute of Divinity. Yet in our department of science deceptions, at least self-deceptions, of this kind are not rare, although we have also to deal with processes and events which, equally with those of the natural philosopher or meteorologist, take place and proceed according to their fixed, unchangeable laws; and whatever the physician is capable of changing, modifying, and effecting in his peculiar province, *he can only accomplish through his knowledge of these laws, and through his respect for their operations.*"

Again: "It is the most experienced physicians (best able to form a judgment in the matter) who have always been the first to perceive that when disease, more especially if its character be virulent, is once generated, medical skill can afford little help

of a *positive* nature, even by the use of those measures upon which we have been accustomed to place the greatest reliance. J. Primerosius* has said in his preface, ‘Rectè scripsit Hippocrates, medicinam omnium ‘artium esse præstantissimam’ ——‘verum addit: propter ignorantiam eorum qui eam exercent, et eorum qui temerè de illis judicant, reliquis artibus inferiorem videri.’ And essentially the same thought is expressed in the complaint of Reveillé-Parise:† ‘La médecine est la plus noble des professions, et le plus triste des métiers.’ Fortunately, however, medicine is not so utterly destitute of expedients as our fears would lead us to imagine, only we must *not look for them in our medicine-chests*, but rather in Nature herself, and in her laws.”

If these cautions be needful in Germany and France, how much more in England and Wales! If the moral obliquity of vision engendered by long-existing corruptions and divisions, in this kingdom especially, has so perverted, distorted, and degraded the physician’s office, the more we combine to remove such evils, the more certain are we to efface our hybrid state in the sight of the whole civilised world. It is beyond doubt that giant strides are being made in all the sciences more or less connected with our profession, there are daily increasing

* ‘De vulgi erroribus in Med.,’ lib. iv. Amsterdam, 1640.

† ‘Gazette Méd. de Paris.’

demands for sounder and more extended preliminary education, so essential to support the superstructure ; these are all well, are indispensably necessary ; but unless with them be combined the highest tone of moral excellence, the strictest regard for honour and integrity in deed and purpose, they are of comparatively little worth to the profession or to the public.

Some may demand, where is the use of medicine, or of him who practises the art, if thus you doubt its effects and depreciate its value ? To such we would emphatically reply, it is the abuse, and not the use, that we condemn. What more essential to the health and life of man than food and drink ? Yet what more potent and frequent cause of disease and death than the intemperate use of either ? Who shall dare, in various complaints—simple or eruptive fevers for instance—refuse our aid, where, though little or no medicine may be required, much watching, much care is needed, lest inflammatory or other morbid affections supervene, and irremediably drag their victim to the grave ! Who, in the more fearful organic affections of the vital organs, with dropsy and all their secondary ills impending, shall not fly to him well-skilled to aim at and destroy, in root and branch, such foes—to avert, if not prevent, the fatal issue ? What man shall see or feel symptoms, whereof none but a careful, skilled physician may define the cause—whether organic

disease or functional disturbance, so like, and yet so different—without the dread responsibility of knowing, if he refuse such aid, it may be he, or one dearer to him than life itself, may perish in an hour, become the victim of a long disease, or pass a weary lengthened life the wreck of health and happiness! Who would set sail to cross the Atlantic without a chart or compass? Who dare to weather a storm athwart the Downs without a skilful pilot, because one had done so, and escaped the hundred dangers that environed him?

Our duty is to stem the torrent of disease that sweeps this mighty nation, whether in individuals, families, or communities, by any or by all the means experience has acquired, or reason dictated—dietetics, pharmaceutics, chirurgics—watch for its ingress, its progress, and its egress—prevent the one, accelerate the other, and control the whole, so as to arrest expiring health and life—defeat disease and death.

Were we in our duties (as Owen has well described those tiny guardians of organic life, “nature’s invisible police”*)—humble but wakeful,

* “And now you may be disposed to ask, to what end is this discourse on the anatomy of beings too minute for ordinary vision, and of whose very existence we should be ignorant unless it were revealed to us by a powerful microscope? What part in nature can such apparently insignificant animalcules play, that can in any way interest us in their organization, or repay us for the pains of acquiring a knowledge of it? I shall endeavour briefly to answer these ques-

active and efficient for our purpose, to turn the stream of sickness into health; then might we claim to ourselves the eulogy of great minds, the esteem and the regard of all.

Why is it that with the immense increase of knowledge, there is no advance in unity, in systematic and well-ordered progress, and in all the fruits of "peace, goodwill towards men?" The balance has been lost; *intellectual* has assumed the priority of *moral* culture; the INTERESTS of classes, sections, and individuals *have superseded the safety of the public—the honour of the profession.*

One conjoined effort would doubtless suffice to raise anew the standard of morality, which all must admit is time-worn and tarnished by the feuds and tions. The Polygastric Infusoria, notwithstanding their extreme minuteness, take a great share in important offices of the economy of nature on which our own well-being more or less immediately depends. Consider their incredible numbers, their universal distribution, their insatiable voracity, and that it is the particles of decaying vegetable and animal bodies which they are appointed to devour and assimilate.

"Surely we must in some degree be indebted to those ever-active invisible scavengers for the salubrity of our atmosphere. Nor is this all; they perform a still more important office, in preventing the gradual diminution of the present amount of organized matter upon the earth. For when this matter is dissolved in water, in that state of comminution and decay which immediately precedes its final decomposition into the elementary gases, and its consequent return from the organic to the inorganic world, these wakeful members of nature's invisible police are everywhere ready to arrest the fugitive organized particles, and turn them back into the ascending stream of animal life."—Owen on 'Invertebrata,' first edition, p. 26.

divisions of our profession, so many and so long-existing as we have seen them to be.

Let us aim high, *morally* as well as intellectually, and success is certain, if this morality be founded on a firm enduring basis. They who despised and lowered the highest human standard were alike apostates from it and from the loftier one they claimed.*

We may revert to both these standards, and even a college of *pure* physicians may bow to that which is *Divine as well as human*. Each of her members may surely seek to follow with reverence and deep humility, as far as the finite can, the Infinite—as far as the creature can, his Creator. Such an one, without let or hindrance, may pursue the “Great Physician’s ” path on earth; he, without fear, may follow His example, and obey His precepts; he may enter “*every city and every village*” (not claiming the same powers, though for the same purposes), healing *every* sickness and *every* disease among the people,” knowing that in this his warfare—however feeble, and sometimes futile, his best endeavours may be—there is a final conquest of the last great enemy reserved for Him, whose steps, until He come again, none may forbid to follow.

Education—that root of good or evil—is the question of the day, and we would readily admit the world-acknowledged axiom—“Knowledge is

* See *antè*, pp. 37 and 38.

power ;” but, as that offspring of human intellect, that mighty material engine, now traversing the earth from North to South, and East to West, is a power for good *only* when controlled by the hand that made it, the head that devised it ; so is this mightier mental engine, more frightful and more fatal in its course, unless when in subjection to—the moral code that emanates from Deity itself—the “Hand that fashioned us,” the “Head of every man.” Such a subservience to “the higher powers,” not only Revelation teaches, but the whole realm of nature—animate and inanimate—enjoins, save when vain man, with his prerogative of Reason, rises against his Maker, and mars creation’s masterpiece.



APPENDIX.



(No. 1.)

Extracts from Charters, Statutes, Bye-laws, Chronicles, and other records especially referred to in the foregoing Essay, as exhibiting the powers and privileges assigned to various authorities, for directing, controlling, and transmitting the different departments of Medicine and Pharmacy in—

ENGLAND.

No.	Date.	PHYSIC assigned	SURGERY assigned	PHARMACY transmitted from Speciarum and Epiciers
12th and 13th centuries.		By Romish Synods and Councils, To PRIESTS AND MONKS.	By Romish Synods and Councils To BARBERS AND SMITHS.	To GILDA DE PIPARIORUM, To FRATERNITY OF PEPPERERS. By 19 Edw. III, To GROCERS' COMPANY.
4	1231			
5	1345			
6	1422	By 9 Hen. V, ("Mysterie of Fysyk") To UNIVERSITIES (Oxford and Cambridge).		
7	1447		By 25 Hen. VI, "De Foedis consuetis pro Barbitonsore Regis."	
8	1454	By Rot. 32 Hen. VI, "De ministrando Med. circa personam Regis," To PRIVY COUNCIL.	By Rot. 32 Hen. VI, "De ministrando Med. circa personam Regis," To PRIVY COUNCIL.	
9	1461		By Ch. 1 Edw. IV ("Mysterie of Surgerie"), To BARBERS' COMPANY.	
10	1500		Ch. 5 Hen. VII.	
11	1503	19 Hen. VII, c. 7.	19 Hen. VII, c. 7.	
12	1510		Ch. 2 Hen. VIII.	
13	1511		Ch. 5, Dec. 3 Hen. VIII.	
14	1511	By Ch. 3 Hen. VIII, c. 11, To BISHOPS.	By Ch. 3 Hen. VIII, c. 11, To BISHOPS.	
16	1518	By Ch. 10 Hen. VIII, c. 5, and Confirmatory Statutes, To ROYAL COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS.	By Ch. 10 Hen. VIII, c. 5, and Confirmatory Statutes, To ROYAL COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS.	
15	1522-3	14 & 15 Hen. VIII, c. 5.	14 & 15 Hen. VIII, c. 5.	
17	1540	32 Hen. VIII, c. 40.	32 Hen. VIII, c. 40.	
18	1540		By 32 Hen. VIII, c. 42, To BARBER-SURGEONS' COMPANY.	
19	1542-3		By 34 & 35 Hen. VIII, c. 8, To "as well men as WOMEN."	
20	1575	Protest against Popish practices in College of Physicians.		
21	1582	By Lumleian Lectures (Holinshed's Chronicles). SURGERY re-established in COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS.		
22	1607			By 4 Jac. I, To GROCER-APOTHECARIES' COMPANY
23	1616			By 13 Jac. I, To SOCIETY OF PHARMACOPOLITES, or Apothecaries.
24	1630		Ch. 5 Car. I.	
25	1656	Representatives of UNITY and Champions of SURGERY from 11th to 17th century—Constantine to Harvey.		
26	Abt. 1700	By the Bye-law "Antequam quispiam," &c., SURGERY excluded from COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS.		
27	1745		By 18 Geo. II, c. 15, To CORPORATION OF SURGEONS.	
28	1800		By Ch. 40 Geo. III, To ROYAL COLLEGE OF SURGEONS.	
29	1815	By 55 Geo. III, c. 194, To SOCIETY OF APOTHECARIES.		By 55 Geo. III, c. 194, To SOCIETY OF APOTHECARIES, and To CHEMISTS AND DRUGGISTS without Education or Examination.
	1836	To University of London.		
	1843			By Ch. 6 Vict., confirmed 15 & 16 Vict., c. 56, To PHARMACEUTICAL SOCIETY.
30	1858	By 21 & 22 Vict., c. 90, To MEDICAL COUNCIL.	By 21 & 22 Vict., c. 90, To MEDICAL COUNCIL.	By 21 & 22 Vict., c. 90, To CHEMISTS AND DRUGGISTS without Education or Examination.

(No. 2.)

Charters, Statutes, &c., referred to as exhibiting the powers and privileges assigned to various authorities for directing, controlling, and transmitting the different departments of Medicine and Pharmacy in—

IRELAND.

<i>Date</i>	PHYSIC transmitted <i>From</i> PRIESTS & MONKS.	SURGERY transmitted <i>From</i> BARBERS & SMITHS.	PHARMACY transmitted <i>From</i> SPECIARIII AND EPICIERS.
1311	Bull of Pope Clement V for founding a Univer- sity.		
1320	UNIVERSITY founded by Alexander de Bucknor, confirmed by Pope John XXII.		
1446	<i>By</i> Charter 25 Hen. VI. <i>To</i> BARBERS' COMPANY.	
1576	<i>By</i> Charter 18 Eliz., <i>To</i> BARBER-CHIRURGEONS	
?	United with Barber-Chi- rurgeons.
1593	<i>By</i> 35 Eliz. <i>To</i> UNIVERSITY of Dublin.		
1687	<i>By</i> Charter 3 Jac. II. <i>By</i> Charter 3 Jac II. <i>To</i> BARBER-CHIRURGEONS, APOTHECARYES, AND PERIWIG-MAKERS of the Guild or Fraternity of St. Mary Magdalene.	
1667	<i>By</i> Ch. Car. II. <i>To</i> COLL. OF PHYSICIANS.		
1692	<i>By</i> Ch. 3 William & Mary <i>To</i> KING'S AND QUEEN'S COLL. OF PHYSICIANS in Ireland.		
1745		<i>By</i> Charter 18 Geo. II, <i>To</i> CORPORATION OF APO- THECARYES, or Guild of St. Luke.
1761	1 Geo. III. Confirmatory act. (Quack medicines prohi- bited).		
1784	<i>By</i> Charter 24 Geo. III, <i>To</i> ROYAL COLLEGE OF SURGEONS of Ireland.	
1791		<i>By</i> 31 Geo. III, <i>To</i> CORPORATION OF APO- THECARYES' HALL.
1845	Queen's University (?)		
1858	<i>By</i> 21 and 22 Vict., c. 90, <i>To</i> MEDICAL COUNCIL.	<i>By</i> 21 and 22 Vict., c. 90, <i>To</i> MEDICAL COUNCIL.	<i>By</i> 21 and 22 Vict., c. 90. ?

See 'History of Pharmacy in Ireland,' by W. D. Moore, M.B. Dublin, 1848.

Also Warburton, 'History of Ireland.' London, 1818.

(No. 3.)

Charters, Statutes, &c., referred to as exhibiting the powers and privileges assigned to various authorities for directing, controlling, and transmitting the different departments of Medicine and Pharmacy in—

SCOTLAND.

<i>Date</i>	PHYSIC transmitted <i>From</i> PRIESTS AND MONKS	SURGERY transmitted <i>From</i> BARBERS & SMITHS.	PHARMACY transmitted <i>From</i> SPECIARIII AND EPI- CIERS.
1413	<i>By</i> Bull of Benedict XIII, <i>To</i> UNIVERSITY OF ST. ANDREW'S.		
1450	<i>By</i> Bull of Pope Nicholas, <i>To</i> UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW.		
1494	<i>By</i> Bull of Pope Alexan- der VI, <i>To</i> UNIV. AND KING'S COLLEGE, ABERDEEN.		
1505	<i>By</i> Charter Jac. IV, <i>To</i> BARBER-SURGEONS COMPANY.	(Probably united with Barber-Surgeons.)
1582	<i>By</i> Charter Jac. VI, <i>To</i> COLLEGE AND UNIVER- SITY OF EDINBURGH.		
1593	<i>By</i> Charter Earl Marischal, <i>To</i> COLLEGE AND UNIVER- SITY OF ABERDEEN.		
1599	<i>By</i> Charter Jac. VI, <i>To</i> FACULTY OF PHYSI- CIANS AND SURGEONS, GLASGOW.	<i>By</i> Charter Jac. VI, <i>To</i> FACULTY OF PHYSI- CIANS AND SURGEONS, GLASGOW.	
1657	<i>By</i> Act of Council <i>To</i> a COMPANY OF BARBER-SURGEONS AND APO- THECARIES.	<i>By</i> Act of Council
1681	<i>By</i> Charter 32 Car. II, <i>To</i> ROYAL COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS, EDIN.		
1722	<i>To</i> SURGEON-APOTHECARIES (Barbers excluded.)	
1778	<i>By</i> Charter 18 Geo. III. <i>To</i> ROYAL COLLEGE OF SURGEONS of Edinburgh.	<i>By</i> Charter 18 Geo. III.
1851	<i>To</i> Chemists & Druggists.
1858	<i>By</i> 21 and 22 Vict. c. 90, <i>To</i> MEDICAL COUNCIL.	<i>By</i> 21 and 22 Vict. c. 90, <i>To</i> MEDICAL COUNCIL.	<i>By</i> 21 and 22 Vict. c. 90, ?

See 'Letters on the Charters of the Scotch Universities and Medical Corporations,' by J. A. Lawrie, M.D. Glasgow, 1856. Maitland's 'History of Edinburgh.' Edin., 1753. Arnott's 'History of Edinburgh.' Edin., 1779.

(No. 4.)

“PEPPERERS” AND “SPICERERS.”

“The Pepperers are first mentioned as a fraternity amongst the amerced gilds of Henry II, but probably existed as a gild long before. The Gelda de Pipariorum paid on this occasion sixteen marks, &c. In connection with this fraternity was an office analogous to that of the jurés of Salernum, which may be traced back in this kingdom to times almost coeval with these appointments, and the history of its descent from that period to the Censors of the College of Physicians may be clearly followed. Thus Cowel says, “The garbellor of spices is an officer of great antiquity in the City of London, who is empowered to enter any shop or warehouse, to view and search drugs, &c., and to garble and cleanse them.” “This garbelling was originally confined to pepper and other spices, and was deemed necessary to prevent their being adulterated, for which purpose a chief garbeller was appointed and sworn to execute his office faithfully and impartially.”

The trade in spices, &c., originally carried on by the “pepperers of Sopar’s lane and spicerers of the ward of Cheap” passed in the year 1345 to the hands of the Grocers’ Company, who, having extended their trade to drugs, confectionery, grocery (commonly so called), tobacco, &c. &c., attained the name of “Grossiers”—“engrossers of all sorts of wares”—and hence Grocers.

“In 1450 the grocers obtained the important privilege of sharing the office of garbeller of spices with the city.” .

. “The fraternity appear to have obtained this latter privilege in consequence of a petition presented by

them to the Corporation of London, conjointly with Angelo Ciba, Reginald Grillo, Tobias Lomellino, Branca Doria, and other Genoese, Florentine, Lucca, and Lombardy merchants, complaining of the unjust mode of garbelling "spices and other *sotill wares*." Towards the end of the following century "the rare tract on this subject, entitled 'A Profitable and Necessarie Discourse for the Meeting with the bad Garbelling of Spices used in these Daies,' &c. (4to Lond., 1591), affords many curious hints relative to the above part of the Grocers' profession at that time.

"It is addressed from Grocers' Hall, London, to Sir William Webb (then Mayor) and his brethren the aldermen, and complains that the representation of 'sundrye of the retayling grocers of London, to the cheefe officers, the gardians, and to the first menne of that society (the Grocers) against the fact of bad garbelling of spices, betweene them and the merchantes' had 'in lieu of reformation taught manye indigneties and wrought som indignation, towards the complainants;' and it makes this appeal in consequence, to a controlling power, threatening if it should there fail, to follow the advice of the poet Musæus :

" 'It is good sometime to sound in open street
The wicked works which men do think to hide;'

"Or meaning, as the petitioners explain, 'that by publishing some small pamphlet touching the same, suche good may ensue—either the workmanne to grow betterr or the buier to be more wise in the office of garbelling.'"

Shortly after this period, we find the Grocers' Company then united with the Apothecaries exercising their *penal* powers. "On the 7th of February, 1616, Michael Eason, having been convicted before the Court, he being an

apothecary, and brother of the company of selling 'divers sortes of defective apothecaries' wares which, on triall, were found to be defective, corrupt and unwholsome for man's body;' and it being further proved 'that he had soald and uttered the like wares to Mr. Lownes, the prince, his highnesses Apothecarie and others; and he also being found very unfitt in the making of compositions and confections, and insufficient and unskilfull to deale therein, he was by the court, in consideration of the great damage and danger which might happen to the companie by permitting such enormities, committed to the Poultrie compter.' There are repeated instances of the company's proceeding to these extremities," &c.

To prevent all the aforesaid evils it was in this same year that the separation was effected between the grocers and apothecaries, and full power was given to maintain this trade over-sight to the newly constituted "Pharmacopolites" or Apothecaries' Society of 1616.

Soon after this had been effected another candidate for the ancient and honorable office of garbeller of spices, drugs, &c., appears in the College of Physicians, which with other encroachments excited the opposition of the Grocers and Apothecaries at this period. Thus—

"In 1664, the Physicians, having obtained a charter of incorporation, which seemed likely to abridge the sphere of the Companys medical control, the following notice appears on the books: 'Divers members of this company trading in drugs, made request and suit for the countenance and protection of the court in the freedom of their trade, against the invasion of the College of Physicians, who, having lately obtained from his Majesty a patent, with new and strange power of privilege, and search, seizure, fine, and imprison-

ment, are attempting the passing of a bill in Parliament for the ratification of the same; which if effected, will be an insupportable inconvenience and prejudice.' They prayed the aid of the Court, which was granted, and a committee appointed to consult and instruct counsel to defend them before the Committee in Parliament; it was likewise ordered, that the charges incurred by the druggists, for the defence of their right against the physicians, should be defrayed by the Grocers' Company."

The above and much other very interesting matter relative to this subject may be found in *Herbert's History of the Twelve Great Livery Companies of London*, vol. ii, pp. 297 *et seq.*

See also *antè*, note, p. 79.

(No. 5.)

19 Edw. III.

See Charter and Confirmatory Statutes &c., Herbert's City Companies. Vol. i, Grocers' Company.

(No. 6.)

Draught of Act of Parliament, 9 H. 5.

Petyts MSS. v. 33, p. 140.

No one shall use the myserie of fysyk, unless he hath Anno 1422. studied it in some university, and is at least a bachelor in that science. The sheriff shall inquire whether any one Who might practise physic. practises in his county contrary to this regulation; and if any one so practise, he shall forfeit 40*l.* and be imprisoned.

And any woman who shall practise physic, shall incur the same penalty.

It is ordered in parliament, on this petition, That the Lords of the Privy Council shall make what regulations they shall think proper.

But it does not appear that this had the effect of an act of parliament.

(No. 7.)

De Feodis Consuetis pro Barbitonsore Regis.
(Willcock's Laws, p. clxv.)

5 Rym. Fœd. pt. 1, p. 180.

25 H. 6.
Pat. p. 2.
M. 5. An.
1447.

REX omnibus ad quos, &c. salutem :

Sciatis quod per quandam supplicationem nobis per dilectum servientem nostrum Robertum Bolley, servientem ewariæ nostræ exhibitam, accepimus qualiter ipse oppellas barbitonsorum, ad portam hospitii nostri, ubicunque fuerit, cum tot servientibus quot pro occupatione hujusmodi opellis prædictis necessarii fuerunt et opportuni, habuit et occupavit cum omnibus proficuis et commoditatibus eidem occupationi aliquo modo pertinentibus sive spectantibus, prout ipse tempore carissimi domini et patris nostri regis defuncti habuit.

De gratiâ nostrâ speciali concessimus prefato Roberto et Alexandro Donour valetto ewariæ nostræ opellas barbitonsorum, ad portam seu portas hospitii nostri, tenendas, habendas, et occupandas a quinto die Julii, anno regni nostri vicesimo tertio, pro termino vitæ, eorundem Roberti et Alexandri et alterius eorum diutius viventis, cum tot servientibus, in opellis prædictis servientibus et servituris, quot pro occupatione prædicta necessarii fuerint et opportuni,

cum omnibus proficuis et commoditatibus occupationi prædictæ pertinentibus sive spectantibus una cum feodis Militum de Balneo quando erunt milites facti sive creati ; videlicet,

De quolibet milite viginti quatuor ulnis panni linei qui erunt circa balneum, una cum uno tapet. longitudinis trium virgarum de rubeo worsted, ac etiam viginti solidis pro rasura cujuslibet militis sic creati ;

Quadraginta solidis de quolibet barone, seu ejus pare, pro ejus rasura ;

Centum solidis de quolibet comite, seu ejus pare, pro ejus rasura ;

Et decem libris de quolibet duce, seu ejus pare, pro ejus rasura :

Et ulterius concessimus quod nullus alius barbitonsor habeat seu occupet aliquas opellas barbitonsorum, prope portam seu portas hospitii nostri, nisi prædicti Robertus et Alexander, durante vita eorum, et alterius eorum diutius viventis ; eo quod expressa mentio de aliis donis et concessionibus, eisdem Roberto et Alexandro per nos ante hæc tempora factis in præsentibus facta non existit, aut aliquo statuto, actu, vel ordinatione in contrarium factis, non obstantibus.

In cujus, &c.—Teste Rege apud Westmonasterium vicesimo quinto die Julii. Per ipsum Regem, et de data prædicta, auctoritate Parliamenti.

(No. 8.)

Rot. 32 H. 6. (Willcock's Laws, p. iv.)

De Ministrando Medicinas circa Personam Regis.

Rex dilectis sibi magistris Johanni Arundell, Johanni

A.D. 14
5 Rym.
pt. 2, p.
Vid. 4 I
251.

Faceby, et Willielmo Haccliffe medicis, magistro Roberto Warreyn et Johanni Marchall chirurgis, salutem.

King's physicians and surgeons.

Sciatis quòd, cùm nos adversâ valetudine ex visitatione divina corporaliter laboremus, a qua nos, cùm ei placuerit qui est omnium vera salus, liberari posse speramus; propterea, juxta consilium ecclesiastici consultoris, quia nolumus abhorrere medicinam quam pro subveniendis humanis languoribus creavit altissimus de ejus salutari subsidio ac de fidelitate scientia et circumspectione vestris plenius confidentes.

Assigned by consent of council.

De advisamento et assensu consilii nostri assignavimus vos, conjunctim et devisim, ad libere ministrandum et exequendum in et circa personam nostram.

Powers limited.

Imprimis, videlicet, quod licite valeatis moderare nobis dietam juxta discretiones vestras et casus exigentiam.

Et quòd in regimine medicinalium, libere nobis possitis ministrare electuaria, potiones, aquas, sirupos, confectiones, laxativas medicinas in quacunque forma nobis gratori, et ut videbitur plus expedire, clisteria, suppositoria, caput purgia, gargarismata, balnea; vel universalialia vel particularia epithemata, fomentationes, embrocationes, capitis rasuram, unctiones, emplastra, cerota, ventosas cum scarificatione vel sine, emoroidarum provocationes, modis quibus melius ingeniare poteritis, et juxta consilia peritorum medicorum qui in hâc casu scripserunt vel in posterum scribent.

Et ideo, vobis et cuilibet vestrum mandamus quòd circa premissa diligenter intendatis, et ea faciatis et exequamini in forma prædicta.

Damus autem universis et singulis fidelibus, et ligeis nostris quorum interest in hâc parte firmiter in mandatis, quod vobis, in executione premissorum pareant et intendant, ut est justum.

In cujus, &c.

Teste Rege apud Westmonasterium sexto die Aprilis.

Per breve de privato sigillo, et de data, &c.

(No. 9.)

Charter 1 Ed. 4. (Willcock's Laws, p. clxvii.)

For the Barbers of the City of London.

A. D. 1461

REX omnibus ad quos, &c.

Sciatis quod nos considerantes qualiter dilecti nobis probi et liberi homines Misteræ Barbitonsorum civitatis nostræ London' utentes mystera sive facultate Sirurgicorum tum circa vulnere plagas læsiones et alias infirmitates ligeorum nostrorum ibidem curand' et sanand' quam in extractione sanguinis et dentium hujusmodi ligeorum nostrorum grandes et multiplices intendentias et labores per longa tempora sustinuerunt et supportaverunt indiesque sustinere et supportare non desistunt qualiter etiam per ignorantiam negligentiam et insipientiam nonnullorum hujusmodi barbitonsorum tam liberorum hominum civitatis nostræ prædictæ quam aliorum sirurgicorum forinsecorum et non liberorum hominum ejusdem civitatis in dies ad eandem civitatem confluentium et in mistera sirurgicorum minus sufficienter eruditorum quam plurima ac quasi infinita mala diversis ligeis nostris in vulneribus plagis læsionibus et aliis infirmitatibus suis per hujusmodi barbitonsores et surgicos sanandis et curandis ob eorum defectum ante hæc tempora evenerunt quorum quidem ligeorum nostrorum alii ea de causa viam universæ carnis sunt ingressi alii autem eadem causa tanquam insanabiles et incurabiles sunt ab omnibus

Reciting t
there was
mystery o
barbers
practising
surgery.

Mischiefs
arising fr
ignorance
surgery.

derelicti similiaque mala vel pejora in futurum in hac parte evenire formidatur nisi remedium congruam superhoc per nos citius provideatur. Nos enim attendentes et intime advertentes quod hujusmodi mala ligeis nostris ob defectum debit supervis' scrutinii correctionis et punitionis hujusmodi barbitonsorum et sirurgicorum minus sufficienter in eisdem misteris sive facultatibus ut predictum est erudit' et instruct' evenire contingunt, &c. Concessimus eis

The necessity
of superin-
tendence.

Quod mistera illa et omnes homines ejusdem misteræ de civitate predicta sint in re et nomine unum corpus et una communitas perpetua.

Incorporates
the mystery,
&c.

And that they may annually elect two of their body, most expert in surgery, to be masters or governors ;

Governors.

That they may have a common seal ;

Seal.

That they may acquire and hold lands, and other property, to the annual value of five marks ;

Lands.

That they may sue and be sued, &c.

Suit.

Et quod prædicti magistri sive gubernatores et communitas et eorum successores congregationes licitas et honestas de seipsis ac statuta et ordinationes pro salubri gubernatione supervisu et correctione misterum prædictarum secundum necessitat' exigentiam quotiens et quando opus fuerit facere valeant licite et impune sine occasione vel impedimento nostri heredum vel successorum nostrorum &c. dummodo statuta et ordinationes illa contra leges et consuetudines regni nostri Angliæ nullo modo existant.

Company
may make
bye-laws.

Præterea volumus et concedimus pro nobis heredibus et successoribus nostris quantum in nobis est quod magistri sive gubernatores prædictæ communitatis pro tempore existentes et eorum successores imperpetuum habeant supervisum scrutinium correctionem et gubernationem omnium et singulorum liberorum hominum dictæ civitatis sirurgicorum

Governors
shall have
superintend-
ence of all
surgeons

in London
and its
suburbs,

utentium mistera barbitonsorum in eadem civitate ac aliorum sirurgicorum forinsecorum quorum cumque mistera illa sirurgica aliquo modo frequentantium et utentium infra eandem civitatem et suburbia ejusdem ac punitionem eorundem tam liberorum quam forinsecorum pro delictis suis in non perfecte exequendo faciendo et utendo mistera illa :

and may
punish them.

Necnon supervisum et scrutinium omni modorum instrumentorum emplastrorum et aliarum medicinarum et eor' recept' per dictos barbitensores et surgicos hujusmodi ligeis nostris pro eorum plagis et vulneribus lesionibus et hujusmodi infirmitatibus curand' et sanand' dand' imponend' et utend' quotiens et quando opus fuerit pro commodo et utilitate eorundem ligeorum nostrorum. Ita quod punitio hujusmodi barbitonsorum utentium dicta mistera sirurgica ac hujusmodi sirurgicorum forinsecorum sic in premissis delinquentium per fines amerciamenta et imprisonamenta corporum suorum et per alias vias rationabiles et congruas exequatur.

Survey of instruments,
medicines,
&c.

Punishment,
in what manner.

Et quod nullus barbitonsor utens dicta mistera sirurgica infra dictam civitatem aut suburbia ejusdem aut alius sirurgicus forinsecus quicumque et exequend' faciend' et exercend' eandem misteram sirurgic' aliquo modo in futurum in eadem civitate vel suburbiis ejusdem admittatur nisi primitus per dictos magistros sive gubernatores vel eorum successores adhoc habiles et sufficientes in mistera illa eruditus approbetur et pro plenaria comprobatione sua in hac parte majori civitatis prædictæ pro tempore existenti per eosdem magistros sive gubernatores ad hoc presentetur.

None may
practise until
admitted.

That the members of the company shall be exempt from all manner of juries and inquests within the city and suburbs of London.

Exemption
from juries.

Quod ipsi perpetuis futuris temporibus personas habiles et

Admission of
surgeons.

sufficienter eruditos et informatos in dicta misteria sirurgica et per magistros sive gubernatores mistere illius pro tempore existentes in forma prædicta approbatur et majori civitatis prædictæ pro tempore existen' ut prædictum est presentatur in eandem misteram barbitonsorum ad libertates dictæ civitatis habendum et gaudendum secundum consuetudinem dictæ civitatis admittere et recipere valeant et non alias personas quascunque neque alio modo aliquo mandato aut requisitione nostri heredum seu successorum nostrorum per literas inscriptas vel aliter qualiter cunque in contrarium fact' seu faciend' non obstante.

With a clause of indemnity against former grants.

(No. 10.)

Charter, 5 Dec. 15 Hen. 7.

This is a mere confirmation of the preceding charter.

(No. 11.)

19 H. 7. c. 7. (Willcock's Laws, p. v.)

For making of Statutes by bodies incorporate

Anno 1503.

By-laws;

none against
common law,
or the crown;

No masters, wardens, and fellowships of crafts or mysteries, nor any of them, nor any rulers of guilds or fraternities, shall take upon them to make any acts or ordinances, ne to execute any acts or ordinances by them heretofore made in disheritance or diminution of the prerogative of the king nor of other, nor against the common profit of the

people, but the same acts or ordinances be examined and approved by the Chancellor, Treasurer of England, or Chief ^{to be approved.} Justices of either benches, or three of them, or before both of the Justices of Assize, in their circuit or progress in that shire where such acts or ordinances be made, upon pain of forfeiture of 40*l.* for every time that they do contrary. And ^{None to restrain suits.} none of the same bodies corporate shall take upon them to make any acts or ordinances to restrain any person or persons to sue to the King's Highness, or to any of his courts, for due remedy to be had in their causes; ne put ne execute any penalty or punishment upon any of them for any such suit, to be made upon pain of forfeiture of 40*l.* for every time that they do the contrary.

(No. 12.)

Charter, 12 March. 2 Hen. 8. (Willcock's Laws, p. clxix.)

This also is a mere confirmation of charter 1 Ed. 4.

(No. 13.)

Charter, 5 Dec. 3 Hen. 8. (Willcock's Laws, ib.)

This is an inspeximus and confirmation of the charter 1 Ed. 4.

(No. 14.)

3 H. 8. c. 11. (Willcock's Laws, p. vi.)

An Act for the appointing of Physicians and Surgeons.

Anno 1511. To the King our Sovereign Lord, and to all the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons in this present parliament assembled: Forasmuch as the science and cunning of physic and surgery (to the perfect knowledge whereof be requisite both great learning and ripe experience) is daily, within this realm, exercised by a great multitude of ignorant persons, of whom the greater part have no manner of insight in the same, nor in any other kind of learning; some also can no letters on the book so far forth that common artificers, as smiths, weavers, and women, boldly and accustomedly take upon them great cures and things of great difficulty, in the which they partly use sorcery and witchcraft, partly apply such medicines unto the disease as be very noxious and nothing meet therefore, to the high displeasure of God, great infamy of the faculty, and the grievous hurt, damage, and destruction of many of the King's liege people, most especially of them that cannot discern the uncunning from cunning. Be it, therefore, to the surety and comfort of all manner of people, by the authority of this present parliament enacted, That no person within the city of London, nor within seven miles of the same, take upon him to exercise or occupy as a physician or surgeon, except he be first examined, approved, and admitted by the bishop of London, or by the dean of Paul's, for the time being, calling to him or them four doctors of physic, and for surgery other expert persons in that faculty; and for the first examination such as they shall think convenient, and after-

Physic and surgery,
exercised by ignorant persons,
using sorcery;
none to use in precinct of London,
till admitted by bishop, &c., physicians, surgeons.

ward alway four of them that have been so approved, upon the pain of forfeiture, for every month that they do occupy as physicians or surgeons not admitted nor examined after the tenour of this act, of 5*l.*, to be employed the one Penalty, 5*l.* half thereof to the use of our Sovereign Lord the King, and the other half thereof to any person that will sue for it by action of debt, in which no wager of law nor protection shall be allowed.

2. And over this, that no person out of the said city and None to use in country precinct of seven miles of the same, except he have been (as is aforesaid approved in the same), take upon him to exercise and occupy as a physician or surgeon in any diocese within this realm, but if he be first examined and until bishop, &c., approve; approved by the bishop of the same diocese, or he being out of the diocese, by his vicar-general; either of them calling to them such expert persons in the said faculties as their discretion shall think convenient, and giving their letters testimonials under their seal, to him that they shall and give testimonials. so approve, upon like pain to them that occupy contrary to this act (as is above said) to be levied and employed after the form before expressed.

3. Provided alway, that this act, nor any thing therein Rights of universities. contained, be prejudicial to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, or either of them, or to any privileges granted to them.

Memorandum. That surgeons be comprised in this act Surgery. like as physicians, for like mischief of ignorant persons presuming to exercise surgery.

(No. 15.)

14 & 15 H. 8. c. 5. (Willcock's Laws, p. vii.)

The Privileges and Authority of Physicians in London.

Anno 1522.
Recites charter,
10 H.8.

In the most humble wise shew unto your Highness, your true and faithful subjects and liegemen, John Chambre, Thomas Linacre, Ferdinandus de Victoria, your physicians, and Nicholas Halsewell, John Frances, and Robert Yaxley, and all other men of the same faculty within the city of London, and seven miles about, That where your Highness (by your most gracious letters patents, bearing date at Westminster the twenty-third day of September, in the tenth year of your most noble reign) for the commonwealth of this your realm, in due exercising and practising of the faculty of physic, and the good ministration of medicines to be had, hath incorporate and made of us, and of our company aforesaid, one body and perpetual commonalty or fellowship of the faculty of physic, and to have perpetual succession and common seal, and to choose yearly a president of the same fellowship and commonalty, to oversee, rule, and govern the said fellowship and commonalty, and all men of the said faculty, with divers other liberties and privileges by your Highness to us granted for the commonwealth of this your realm, as in your said most gracious letters patents, more at large is specified and contained, the tenour whereof followeth in these words :

For certain
reasons,

(No. 16.) Henricus Dei gratiâ Rex Angliæ et Franciæ, et Dominus Hiberniæ, omnibus ad quos præsentem literæ pervenerint, salutem. Cum regii officii nostri munus arbitremur ditionis nostræ hominum felicitati omni ratione consulere ; id autem

vel imprimis fore, si improborum conatibus tempestive occurramus, apprime necessarium duximus improborum quoque hominum, qui medicinam magis avaritiæ suæ causâ, quàm ullius bonæ conscientiæ fiduciâ, profitebuntur, unde rudi et credulæ plebi plurima incommoda oriantur, audaciam compescere: Itaque partim bene institutarum civitatum in Italia, et aliis multis nationibus, exemplum imitati, partim gravium virorum doctorum Johannis Chambre, Thomæ Linacre, Ferdinandi de Victoria, medicorum nostrorum, Nicholai Halsewell, Johannis Francisci, et Rob. Yaxley, medicorum, ac præcipue reverendissimi in Christo patris, ac domini Dom. Thomæ tituli Sanctæ Cecilie trans Tiberim sacrosanctæ Romanæ ecclesiæ presbyteri cardinalis, Eborascensis archiepiscopi, et regni nostri Angliæ cancellarii charissimi, precibus inclinati, collegium perpetuum doctorum et gravium vivorum, qui medicinam in urbe nostra Londino et suburbiis, intraque septem millia passuum ab ea urbe quaque versus publice exercent, institui volumus atque imperamus: Quibus tum sui honoris, tum publicæ utilitatis nomine, curæ (ut speramus) erit, malitiosorum quorum meminimus inscientiam temeritatemque, tam exemplo gravitateque suis deterrere, quàm per leges nostras nuper editas, ac per constitutiones per idem collegium condendas, punire: Quæ quo facilius rite peragi possint, memoratis doctoribus Joan. Chambre, Thomæ Linacre, Ferdinando de Victoria, medicis nostris, Nicholao Halsewell, Johanni Francisco, et Rob. Yaxley, medicis, incorporating physicians of London. concessimus, quòd ipsi, omnesque homines ejusdem facultatis de et in civitate prædicta, sint in re et nomine unum corpus et communitas perpetua sive collegium perpetuum; et quòd eadem communitas sive collegium singulis annis in President. perpetuum eligere possint et facere, de communitate illa

aliquem providum virum, et in facultate medicinæ expertum, in præidentem ejusdem collegii, sive communitatis, ad supervidend' recognoscend' et gubernand', pro illo anno, collegium sive communitatem præd' et omnes homines ejusdem facultatis, et negotia eorundem. Et quòd idem præidens et collegium, sive communitas, habeant successionem perpetuam, et commune sigillum negotiis dict' communitatis et præidentis in perpetuum serviturum. Et quod ipsi et successores sui in perpetuum sint personæ habiles et capaces ad perquirendum, et possidendum in feodo et perpetuitate terras et tenementa, redditus, et alias possessiones quascunque.

Common seal.

Power to purchase, &c.

Not exceeding annual value of 12*l*.

Name.

Ordinances.

† *Sic*.

Concessimus etiam eis et successoribus suis pro nobis et hæredibus nostris, quòd ipsi et successores sui possint perquirere sibi et successoribus suis, tam in dicta urbe quàm extra, terras et tenementa quæcunque annum valorem duodecim librarum non excedent' statuto de alienatione ad manum mortuam non obstante. Et quòd ipsi per nomina præidentis et collegii seu communitatis facultatis medicinæ Lond' placitari et implacitari possint coram quibuscunque judicibus in curiis et actionibus quibuscunque. Et quòd præd' præidens et collegium, sive communitas, et eorum successores, congregationes licitas et honestas de seipsis ac stat' et ordinationes pro salubri gubernatione, supervisu, et correctione collegii seu communitatis præd', et omnium hominum eandem facultatem in dicta civitate, seu per septem milliaria in circuitu ejusdem civitatis exercen' secundum necessitatis exigentiam, quoties et quando opus fuerit, facere valeant licite et impune, sine impedimento nostri, hæredum, vel successorum nostrorum, justiciòrum, escætorum, † *vilce*-comitum, et alior' ballivor' vel ministror' nostror' hæred' vel successor' nostror' quorumcunque.

Concessimus etiam eisdem præidenti et collegio, seu com-
munitati, et successoribus suis, quòd nemo in dicta civitate,
aut per septem milliaria in circuitu ejusdem, exerceat dictam
facultatem, nisi ad hoc per dict' præidentem et commu-
nitatem, seu successores eorum, qui pro tempore fuerint,
admissus sit per ejusdem præidentis et collegii literas
sigillo suo communi sigillatas, sub pœna centum solidorum
pro quolibet mense, quo non admissus eandem facultatem
exercuit, dimidium inde nobis et hæred' nostris, et dimidium
dicto præidenti et coll' applicandum.

Licentiates
alone may
practice phy-
sic, within
seven miles;

penalty, 5*l.*

Præterea volumus et concedimus pro nobis et succes-
soribus nostris (quantum in nobis est), quòd per præidentem
et collegium præd' communitatis pro tempore existen' et
eorum successores in perpetuum, quatuor singulis annis
eligantur, qui habeant supervisum et scrutinium, correc-
tionem et gubernat' omnium et singulor' dictæ civitatis me-
dicorum utentium facultate medicinæ in eadem civitate, ac
aliorum medicorum forinsecorum quorumcunque facultatem
illam medicinæ aliquo modo frequentantium et utentium
infra eandem civitatem et suburbia ejusdem, sive intra
septem milliaria in circuitu ejusd' civitatis, ac punitionem
eorund' pro delictis suis in non bene exequendo, faciendo,
et utendo illa; necnon supervisum et scrutinium omnimo-
darum medicinarum, et earum reception' per dictos me-
dicos, seu aliquem eorum hujusmodi, ligeis nostris pro
eorum infirmitibus curandis et sanandis, dandis, imponendis,
et utendis, quoties et quando opus fuerit pro commodo et
utilitate eorundem ligeorum nostrorum, ita quòd punitio
hujusmodi medicorum utentium dictâ facultate medicinæ,
sic in præmissis dilinquent' per fines, amerciamenta, et im-
prisonamenta corpor' suor' et per alias vias rationab' et
congruas exequatur.

Four (cen-
sors) how
elected;

have correc-
tion of phy-
sicians,

and of med i-
cines;

may punish
by fine and
imprison-
ment.

Volumus etiam et concedimus pro nobis, hæredibus, et President

and college
exempt,

within pre-
cinct of Lon-
don,

from all
juries, &c.

successoribus nostris (quantum in nobis est), quòd nec præsidens, nec aliquis de collegio præd' medicorum, nec successores sui, nec eorum aliquis exercens facultatem illam, quoquo modo in futur' infra civitatem nostram præd' et suburbia ejusdem, seu alibi, summoneantur aut ponantur, neque eorum aliquis summoneatur aut ponatur in aliquibus assisis, juratis, inquestis, inquisitionibus, attinctis, et aliis recognitionibus infra dictam civitatem, et suburbia ejusdem, imposterum, coram majore ac vicecom' seu coronatoribus dictæ civitatis nostræ pro tempore existen', capiendis, aut per aliquem officarium seu ministrum suum, vel officarios sive ministros suos summonend', licet eædem juratæ, inquisitiones, seu recognitiones, summon' fuerint super brevi vel brevibus nostris, vel hæredum nostrorum, de recto; sed quòd dicti magistri, sive gubernatores, ac communitas facultatis antedictæ et successores sui, et eorum quilibet dictam facultatem exercentes, versus nos heredes et successores nostros, ac versus majorem et vicecomites civitatis nostræ præd' pro tempore existen', et quoscumque officarios et ministros suos, sint inde quieti et penitus exonerati in perpetuum per presentes.

Privileges of
city.

Proviso quòd literæ nostræ seu aliquid in eis content' non cedent in prejudicium civitatis nostræ Lond' seu libertat' ejusd'. Et hoc absque fine seu feodo pro premissis, seu sigillat' presentium nobis facienda, solvenda, vel aliqualiter reddenda aliquo statuto, ordinatione, vel actu in contrarium ante hæc tempora facto, edito, ordinato, seu sic privoso † in aliquo, non obstante. In cujus rei testimonium has literas nostras fieri fecimus patentes. Teste me ipso apud Westmonasterium, 23 die Sept', an' reg' nostri 10.

† Sic.

Per ipsum Regem,

Et de data præd' auctoritate parl'.

TUNSTALL.

And for as much that the making of the said corporation is meritorious and very good for the common wealth of this your realm, it is therefore expedient and necessary to provide, That no person of the said politic body and commonalty aforesaid be suffered to exercise and practise physic, but only those persons that be profound, sad, and discreet, groundedly learned and deeply studied in physic.

2. In consideration whereof, and for the further author-
 izing of the same letters patents, and also enlarging of
 further articles for the said commonwealth to be had and
 made: Pleaseth it your Highness, with the assent of your
 lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons, in this pre-
 sent parliament assembled, to enact, ordain, and stablish,
 That the said corporation of the same commonalty and fel-
 lowship of the faculty of physic aforesaid, and all and every
 grant, article, and other thing contained and specified in
 the said letters patent, be approved, granted, ratified, and
 confirmed in this present parliament, and clearly authorized
 and admitted by the same good, lawful, and available, to
 your said body corporate, and their successors for ever, in
 as ample and large manner as may be taken, thought, and
 construed by the same: And that it please your High-
 ness, with the assent of your said lords spiritual and tem-
 poral, and the commons, in this your present parliament
 assembled, further to enact, ordain, and establish, that the
 six persons beforesaid in your said most gracious letters
 patents named as principals and first-named of the said com-
 monalty and fellowship, choosing to them two more of the
 said commonalty, from henceforth be called and cleaped
 Elects; and that the same elects yearly choose one of
 them to be president of the said commonalty, and as oft as
 any of the rooms and places of the same elects shall for-

Charter con-
 firmed in
 most ample
 manner :

eight elects.

and presi-
 dent,

how elected: tune to be void by death or otherwise, then the survivors
 examined. of the said elects, within thirty or forty days next after
 the death of them, or any of them, shall choose, name, and
 admit one or mo, as need shall require, of the most cunning
 and expert men of and in the said faculty in London, to
 supply the said room and number of eight persons; so that
 he or they that shall be so chosen be first by the said sur-
 vivors strictly examined after a form devised by the said
 elects, and also by the same survivors approved.

3. And where that in dioceses of England out of London
 it is not light to find alway men able sufficiently to examine
 after the statute such as shall be admitted to exercise
 physic in them; that it may be enacted, in this present par-
 licentiates in country, liament, That no person from henceforth be suffered to
 exercise or practise in physic, through England, until such
 time as he be examined at London by the said president,
 by whom. and three of the said elects; and to have from the said
 president or elects letters testimonials of their approving
 and examination, except he be a graduate of Oxford or
 Graduates of universities. Cambridge, which hath accomplished all things for his form
 without any grace.

(No. 17.)

32 H. 8. c. 40. (Willcock's Laws, p. xii.)

For Physicians and their Privilege.

Anno 1540. For certain reasons, fellows and commons of college
 exempt from watch, &c., constabulary, &c., within London.
 Four fellows elected (censors); sworn by president or
 deputy; enter apothecaries' houses, to examine wares; burn
 defective; with assent of wardens of apothecaries. Apothe-

caries resisting forfeit 5*l.* Censors refusing oath, or to examine, forfeit 2*l.*

3. And for as much as the science of physic doth comprehend, include, and contain the knowledge of surgery as a special member and part of the same; therefore be it enacted, that any of the same company or fellowship of physicians, being able, chosen, and admitted by the said president and fellowship of physicians, may from time to time, as well within the city of London as elsewhere within this realm, practise and exercise the said science of physic in all and every *his* † members and parts, any act, statute, or provision made to the contrary notwithstanding.

Surgery part
of physic

may be prac-
tised by licen-
tiates.

† *Sic.*

(No. 18.)

32 Hen. 8. c. 42. (Willcock's Laws, p. clxxi.)

For Barbers and Surgeons.

The King our Sovereign Lord, by the advice of the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, by all their common assents, duly pondering, among other things necessary for the commonwealth of this realm, that it is very expedient and needful to provide for men expert in the science of physic and surgery, for the health of man's body, when infirmities and sickness shall happen, for the due exercise and maintenance whereof good and necessary acts be already made and provided; yet nevertheless, forasmuch as within the city of London, where men of great experience, as well in speculation as in practice of the science and faculty of surgery, be abiding and inhabiting, and have more commonly the daily exercise and experience of the same science

Anno 1540.

Recital.

of surgery than is had or used within other parts of this realm, and by occasion thereof many expert persons be brought up under them as their servants, apprentices, and others, who by the exercise and diligent information of their said masters, as well now as hereafter, shall exercise the said science within divers other parts of this realm, to the great relief, comfort, and succour of much people, and to the sure safeguard of their bodily health, their limbs and lives: and forasmuch as within the said city of London there be now two several and distinct companies of surgeons, occupying and exercising the said science and faculty of surgery, the one company being called the Barbers of London, and the other company called the Surgeons of London; which company of barbers be incorporated to sue and to be sued by the name of masters or governors of the mystery or commonalty of the Barbers of London, by virtue and authority of the letters patent under the great seal of the late king of famous memory, King Edward the Fourth, dated at Westminster the 24th of February in the first year of his reign, which afterwards, as well by our now most dread Sovereign Lord, as by the right noble and virtuous prince King Henry the Seventh, father unto the king's most excellent highness now being, were and be confirmed, as by sundry letters patent thereof made amongst other things in the same contained more at large may appear; and the other company, called the surgeons, be not incorporate nor have any manner of corporation, which two several and distinct companies of surgeons were necessary to be united, and made one body incorporate, to the intent that, by their union and often assembly together, the good and due order, exercise, and knowledge of the said science or faculty of surgery should be, as well in speculation as in practice, both to them-

Two companies.

Barbers

incorporated.

Surgeons not incorporated.

selves and all other their said servants and apprentices, now and hereafter to be brought up under them, and by their learnings and diligent and ripe informations more perfect, speedy, and effectual remedy should be than it hath been or should be if the said two companies of barbers and surgeons should continue severed asunder, and not joined together, as they before this time have been and used themselves, not meddling together: wherefore, in consideration of the premises, be it enacted by the King our Sovereign Lord, and by the lords spiritual and temporal, and by the commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That the said two several and distinct companies of surgeons, that is to say, both the barbers and the surgeons, and every person of them, being a freeman of either of the said companies after the custom of the said city of London, and their successors, from henceforth immediately be united and made entire and whole body corporate and one commonalty perpetual, which at all times hereafter shall be called by the name of masters or governors of the mystery and commonalty of barbers and surgeons of London, for evermore, and by none other name, &c. &c.

Union of the
companies.

Name.

3. And forasmuch as such persons, using the mystery or faculty of surgery, oftentimes meddle and take into their cures and houses such sick and diseased persons as have been infected with the pestilence, great pox, and such other contagious infirmities, do use or exercise barbery, as washing or shaving, or other feats thereunto belonging, which is very perilous for infecting the king's liege people resorting to their shops and houses, there being washed or shaven: wherefore it is now enacted, ordained, and provided by the authority aforesaid, that no manner of person within the

Division of
the business
of barbers
and surgeons

city of London, suburbs of the same, and one mile compass of the said city of London, after the Feast of the Nativity of our Lord God next coming, using barbery or shaving, or that hereafter shall use any barbery or shaving within the said city of London, suburbs, or one mile circuit of the same city of London, he nor they, nor none other for them, to his or their use, shall occupy any surgery, letting of blood, or any other thing belonging to surgery, drawing of teeth only except; and furthermore in like manner, whosoever that useth the mystery or craft of surgery within the circuit aforesaid, as long as he shall fortune to use the said mystery or craft of surgery, shall in nowise occupy nor exercise the feat or craft of barbery or shaving, neither by himself nor by none other for him, to his or their use; and moreover, that all manner of persons using surgery for the time being, as well freemen as foreigners, aliens and strangers within the said city of London, the suburbs thereof, and one mile compass of the said city of London, before the feast of St. Michael the Archangel next coming shall have an open sign on the street side where they shall fortune to dwell, that all the king's liege people there passing by may know at all times whither to resort for remedies in time of necessity.

Surgeons shall have an open sign.

London and one mile round.

None may practise in London until admitted.

4. And further be it enacted, by the authority aforesaid, that no manner of person, after the said feast of St. Michael the Archangel, next coming, presume to keep any shop of barbery or shaving within the city of London, except he be a freeman of the said corporation and company.

Governors

5. And furthermore, at such times heretofore accustomed, there shall be chosen, by the same company, four masters or governors of the same corporation or company, of the which four two of them shall be expert in surgery, and the other two in barbery; which four masters, and every of them, shall

have full power and authority, from time to time, during their said office, to have the oversight, search, punishment, and correction of all such defaults and inconveniences as shall be found among the said company using barbery or surgery, as well of freemen as foreigners, aliens or strangers within the city of London, and the circuits aforesaid, after their said discretions.

to have the correction, punishment, &c.

7. Provided alway, and be it enacted by authority aforesaid, that it shall be lawful to any of the king's subjects, not being barber or surgeon, to retain, have, and keep in his house, as his servant, any person being a barber or surgeon, which shall and may use and exercise those arts and faculties of barbery or surgery, or either of them, in his master's house, or elsewhere by his master's licence or commandment, any thing in this act above written to the contrary notwithstanding.

Surgeons may be kept as domestics.

(No. 19.)

34 & 35 Hen. 8. c. 8. (Willcock's Laws, p. clxxvii.)

A Bill that Persons, being no common Surgeons, may minister Medicines, notwithstanding the Statute.

Where, in the parliament holden at Westminster, in the third year of the king's most gracious reign, amongst other things, for the avoiding of sorceries, witchcrafts, and other inconveniences, it was enacted, that no person within the city of London, nor within seven miles of the same, should take upon him to exercise and occupy as physician or surgeon, except he be first examined, approved, and admitted by the bishop of London, and other, under and upon certain

Anno 1542-3.

pains and penalties in the same act mentioned, sithence the making of which said act, the company and fellowship of surgeons of London, minding only their own lucre, and nothing the profit or ease of the diseased or patient, have sued, troubled, and vexed divers honest persons, as well men as women, whom God hath endued with the knowledge of the nature, kind, and operation of certain herbs, roots, and waters, and the using and ministering of them to such as been pained with customable diseases, as women's breasts being sore, a pin and the web in the eye, uncomes of hands, burnings, scaldings, sore mouths, the stone, strangury, saucelim and morpew, and such other like diseases, and yet the said persons have not taken any thing for their pains or cunning, but have ministered the same to poor people only for neighbourhood and God's sake, and of pity and charity; and it is now well known, that the surgeons admitted will do no cure to any person, but where they shall know to be rewarded with a greater sum or reward than the cure extendeth unto, for in case they would minister their cunning unto sore people unrewarded, there should not so many rot and perish to death for lack of help of surgery as daily do, but the greatest part of surgeons admitted been much more to be blamed than those persons that they trouble.

2. For although the most part of the persons of the said craft of surgeons have small cunning, yet they will take great sums of money, and do little therefore, and by reason thereof they do oftentimes impair and hurt their patients, rather than do them good; in consideration whereof, and for the ease, comfort, succour, help, relief, and health of the king's poor subjects, inhabitants of this realm, now pained or diseased, or that hereafter shall be pained or diseased,

3. Be it ordained, established, and enacted, by the autho-

rity of this present parliament, that at all time, from henceforth, it shall be lawful to every person being the king's subject, having knowledge and experience of the nature of herbs, roots, and waters, or of the operation of the same, by speculation or practice, within any part of the realm of England, or within any other the king's dominions, to practise, use, and minister in and to any outward sore, uncome, wound, apostemations, outward swelling, or disease, any herb or herbs, ointments, baths, pultess, and emplaisters, according to their cunning, experience, and knowledge in any of the diseases, sores, and maladies before said, and all other like to the same, or drinks for the stone, strangury, or agues, without suit, vexation, trouble, penalty, or loss of their goods, the foresaid statute in the foresaid third year of the king's most gracious reign, or any other act, ordinance, or statute, to the contrary heretofore made, in any wise notwithstanding.

(No. 20.)

FOR PROTEST.

See Seymour's (Stow's) Survey of London. Book I, p. 156; Anno 1575. also *antè*, pp. 54, *et seq.*

(No. 21.)

Holinshed's Chronicle, vol. iii, p. 1349.

Anno 1582. Publike Lecture of surgerie founded in London and presentlie red (as also in the life of the founder) by Dr. Forster to his high praise and credit.

“This yeare 1582 was there instituted and first founded a publike lecture or lesson in surgerie, to begin to be read in the College of Physicians in London, in anno 1584, the first daie of Maie, against that time new reediffed in a part of the house that Dr. Linacre gave by testament to them, by John Lumleie Lord Lumleie, and Richard Caldwell Doctor in physicke, to the honour of God, the common profit of hir majestie's subjects, and good fame, with increase of estimation and credit of all the surgians of this realme. The reader whereof to be a doctor of physicke and of good practise and knowledge, and to have an honest stipend, no less than those of the universities erected by King Henrie the Eight, namely of law, divinitie, and physicke, and lands assured to the said College for the maintenance of the publike lesson; whereunto such statutes be annexed as be for the great commoditie of those which shall give and incline themselves to be diligent hearers for the obtaining of knowledge in surgerie, as whether he be learned or unlearned that shall become an auditor or hearer of the lecture, he may find himselfe not to repent the time so imploied. First twice a weeke thorough out the yeare; to wit on wednesdaies and fridaies, at ten of the clocke till eleven, shall the reader read for three quarters of an houre in Latine, and the other quarter in English, wherein that shall be plainlie declared for those that understand not Latine, what was said in Latine, and the first yeare to

read *Horatius Morus* tables an epitome or briefe handling of all the whole art of surgerie, that is of swellings or apostems, wounds, ulcers, bone-setting, and healing of bones broken, termed commonlie fractions, and to read *Oribasius* of knots, and *Galen* of bands, such workes as have beene long hid, and are scarselie now a daies among the learned knowen, and yet are (as the anatomies) even to the first enterers, in surgerie and novices in physicke, but amongst the ancient writers and Grecians well knowne. At the end of the yeare in winter to dissect openlie in the reading place all the bodie of man, especiallie the inward parts, for five daies together, as well before as after dinner; if the bodies may so last without annoie. The second year to read *Tagaultius* institutions of surgerie, and onelie of swellings or apostems, and in the winter to dissect the trunk onelie of the bodie, namelie, from the head to the lowest part where the members are, and to handle the muscles especiallie. The third yeare to read of wounds onelie of *Tagaultius* and in winter to make publike dissection of the head onlie. The fourth year to read of ulcers onlie the same author, and to anatomize or dissect a leg and an arme, for the knowledge of muscles, sinewes, arteries, veines, gristles, ligaments, and tendons. The fift yeare to reade the first booke of *Paulus Aegineta*, and in winter to make anatomie of a skeleton, and therewithall to show and declare the use of certeine instruments, as *Scamnum Hippocratis*, and other instruments for setting in of bones. The sixth yeare to read *Holerius* of the matter of surgerie, as of medicines for surgians to use. And the seventh yeare to begin againe, and continue still.

What exercises are to be followed in the said College by the will of the founder.

The first yeare's exercises.

The second yeare's exercises.

The third yeare's and fourth yeare's exercises.

The fift and sixt yeare's exercises, and so to continue with *Repetitio principii*.

“ A godlie and charitable erection doubtlesse, such as was the more needfull, as hitherto hath beene the want and lacke so necessarie; sith that onelie in ech universities, by the foundation of the ordinarie and publike lessons, there is one of physicke, but none of surgerie, and this onelie of surgerie, and not of physicke, I meane so as physicke is now taken separatelie from surgerie, and that part which onelie useth the hand as it is sorted from the apothecarie. So that now England may rejoyse for those happie benefactors, and singular well-willers to their countrie, that furnisheth hir so in all respects, that now she may as compare for the knowledge of physicke, so by means to come to it, with France, Italie, and Spaine, and in no case behind them, but for a lecture in simples, which God at his pleasure may procure, in mooving some hereafter in like motion and instinct to be as carefull and beneficiall as these were to the helpe and furtherance of their countrie. At the publication of this foundation which was celebrated with a goodlie assemblie of doctors, Collegiats and licentiats, as also some masters of surgerie, with other students, some whereof had been academicall; doctor Caldwell so aged that his number of yeeres with his white head adding double reverence to his person (whereof I may well say no less than is left written of a doctor of the same facultie verie famous while he lived

“ *Conspicienda ætas, sed et ars provector annis,
Famaque Pæonio non renuenda choro* ”)

even he, notwithstanding his age and impotencie, made an oration in Latine to the auditorie, the same by occasion of his manifold debilities unfinished at the direction speciallie of the president who (after a few words shortlie and sweetlie uttered) gave occasion and opportunitie to D. Forster, then

and yet the appointed lecturer to deliver his matter, which he discharged in such methodicall manner, that ech one present indued with judgment, conceived such hope of the doctor, touching the performance of all actions incident unto him by that place, as some of them continued his auditors in all weathers, and still hold out; whose diligence he requiteth with the imparting of further knowledge than the said publike lecture doth afford. When the assemblie was dissolved, and the founder accompanied home, diligent care was taken for the due preferring of this established exercise; insomuch that D. Caldwell and D. Forster, to furnish the auditors with such bookes as he was to read, caused to be printed the Epitome of *Horatius Morus* first in Latine; then in English, which was translated by the said Doctor Caldwell. But before it was halfe perfected, the good old doctor fell sicke, and as a candle goeth out of it selfe, or a ripe apple falling from the tree, so departed he out of this world at doctors commons, where his usuall lodging was, and was verie worshipfullie buried. But of his death hereafter, in the yeare 1584; where the daie of his decease being mentioned matter worth the reading shall be remembred;”

(No. 22.)

“ 4 Jac. 1.

“ An Act for uniting Apothecaries with the Grocers’ Company.”

Anno 1607.

(No. 23.)

Charter, May 30. 13 Jac. 1. (Willcock's Laws, p. ccxxx.)

Anno 1616.

Recital.

RECITING a grant on the 9th of April, in the — year of his reign to the grocers' company, and the mischiefs which had arisen from the sale of improper medicines, &c. and his own wisdom and mightiness, and the propriety of separating the apothecaries' from the grocers' company, the king grants that the apothecaries shall be separate from, and constitute a company distinct from that of, the grocers, and free from their by-laws, regulations, jurisdiction, and privileges. And, to promote the full dignity of the faculty of the pharmacopolites, before sunk into disrepute and despised, he grants to certain persons therein named, and all other persons educated in the faculty of pharmacy, and practising it, being freemen of the grocers' company, or of any other company of London, that they, and all such, practising within London and its suburbs and seven miles around, shall constitute a corporation, by the name of the Master, Wardens, and Society of the Art and Mystery of Pharmacopolites of the City of London

Name.

Business of
apothecaries,
who may not
carry on.

That no person, free of the grocers' or any other mystery in London, except those of the apothecaries' company, shall keep any apothecary's shop, or make, compound, administer, sell, send out, advertise, or offer for sale any medicines, distilled waters, compounded chemical oils, decoctions, syrups, conserves, eclegmas, electuaries, medical condiments, pills, powders, lozenges, oils, unguents, or plasters; or otherwise, in any manner or in any branch of it, practise the faculty of an apothecary within seven miles of London, under the penalty of 5*l.* a month, leviabie by distress, and recover-

able by the junior warden, by action of debt or otherwise, in any court of Westminster.

That no person shall so practise, &c. unless he has served an apprenticeship of seven years with some apothecary practising and free of that mystery, and afterwards appeared and been presented before the master and wardens, and been by them, calling to their assistance the president of the College of Physicians, or some physician or physicians assigned by him, if willing to be present, as to his knowledge and choice of simples, and as to the preparation, dispensing, application, mixture, and composition of medicines examined and approved.

That the master and wardens may have the oversight, scrutiny, examination, government, and correction of all, as well free as others, practising the faculty of an apothecary, or any branch of it as aforesaid, within London, its liberties, or suburbs. Correction of apothecaries.

That they and each of them, or any of the assistants by them assigned, may, at seasonable times, and in convenient manner, as often as to them shall seem fit, enter any house, shop, &c. of any person using or practising as aforesaid, any where within London, or seven miles around, where any such medicines, &c. may probably be found, and examine whether such medicaments, &c., and all other things appertaining to the art of an apothecary, are proper for the health and relief of the people. Examination of medicines.

That the master and wardens, and the assistants, by the master and wardens for that purpose appointed, should have authority to examine and approve all persons who should profess, use, or exercise the art of an apothecary, or any branch of it, within London, or its liberties, or seven miles around the city, as to their knowledge, skill, and science. Examination of apothecaries.

therein, and to prohibit the practice of the art to all persons whom they should find wanting sufficient skill therein.

Bad medi-
cines.

That they might destroy all such medicines, &c. as they shall find false, illegal, adulterated, or otherwise unfit, &c. before the doors of the offenders, and punish them by fines as aforesaid.

That all mayors, justices, constables, &c. should aid the master and wardens, and the assistants, &c. by them appointed.

Former privi-
leges.

That the master, wardens, and society, might have and enjoy all such franchises, privileges, customs, advantages, &c., in respect of aromatics, pharmacy, drugs, and other things pertaining to their art, as they did before, when included in the grocers' company

Proviso for
physicians,
&c.

It is then provided, that nothing in this charter should interfere with the authority of the president and college of physicians in the oversight and correction of pharmacy; but that they and all physicians of the college, and the physicians of the king, queen, and princes, might, at their pleasure in all things, practise the medical art, and enjoy all their former jurisdictions, powers, and privileges; and that the president and college of physicians might call to them the master and wardens of the apothecaries, in all cases in which they might have called any of the grocers' company, for the scrutiny of medicines, &c.; and that these physicians might not, on any occasion, call any of the grocers' company to them for this purpose.

London.

And that nothing in it should prejudice the city of London, its privileges, jurisdiction, &c.

Surgeons.

And that all surgeons, experienced and approved, might exercise their art and faculty, and use and enjoy their proper practice in the composition and application of external

medicines alone; so that they did not vend medicines, or expose them to sale, according to the common practice of apothecaries.

And finally granted that this charter should not be less valid, because the true value, &c. is not mentioned with the usual *non obstante*.

(No. 24.)

Charter, 15 Aug. 5 Car. 1. (Willcock's Laws, p. clxxix.)

Reciting, 32 Hen. 8. c. 42., that the company had divers Anno 1630. lands, privileges, liberties, customs, &c. under that and other acts of parliament, and divers charters, the necessity of suppressing the practice of impostors and ignorant persons, &c. confirms such lands, court leets, privileges, liberties, customs, &c. Reciting charter 2 James 1. as to the superintendence of the faculty and other powers, &c.; and the great increase of the population in the neighbourhood of London, and of surgeons, grants, "That all and singular, as well freemen of the said society as foreigners, whether they be native subjects of this our kingdom of England, or aliens, professing and exercising the mystery or art of barber and surgeon, or either of them, within our cities of London and Westminster, the liberties and suburbs thereof, and in other towns, hamlets, and places whatsoever, within the distance of seven miles of the said city of London, as well within the liberties as without, for their own private lucre and profit (physicians duly approved of by the president and commonalty of the college of physicians, London, and admitted and allowed to practise physic, being only excepted), shall and may, from

A.
All surgeons
within seven
miles of Lon-
don

subject to the
company.

time to time, for ever hereafter, be subject and tied down to the power, supervisal, scrutiny, examination, government, summons, convocation, ordination, swearing, correction, and all impositions, taxes, and collections whatsoever, of the aforesaid masters or governors of the mystery and commonalty of barbers and surgeons of London, and their successors, masters, or governors, of the said corporation, and to all and all manner of pecuniary payments, charges, fines, amercia-ments, imprisonments, pains and penalties whatsoever, by the aforesaid masters or governors of the mystery and commonalty aforesaid, for the time being, from time to time inflicted or imposed: and that all and singular such persons professing or exercising the aforesaid arts of barbers and surgeons, or either of them, within our said cities of London and Westminster, or in whatsoever towns, hamlets, and places, within seven miles of our said city of London (except before excepted), shall be holden and subject to and by the same laws, ordinances, oaths, impositions, taxes, fines, imprisonments, distresses, penalties, prescriptions, and constitutions, to and by which the barbers and surgeons of the said city of London, by any acts of parliament whatsoever, or by any charters or letters patent whatsoever of any of our progenitors or predecessors heretofore to the aforesaid masters or governors of the mystery and commonalty aforesaid, by whatsoever names, made and granted, may or ought to be holden.”

Then several clauses as to the election, &c. of examiners.

c.
None may
practise sur-
gery

“That no person or persons whatsoever, for the future, whether he or they be a freeman or freemen of the said society, or a foreigner or foreigners, and whether he or they be a native subject or subjects of this kingdom of England, or an alien or aliens, shall use or exercise the said art or

science of surgery within our said cities of London and Westminster, or either of them, or within the distance of seven miles of the said city of London, for his or their private lucre or profit (the aforesaid physicians [*antè*, p. clxxix A.] so as aforesaid approved of and admitted being only excepted), unless the said person or persons be first tried and examined, in the presence of two or more of the masters or governors of the mystery and commonalty aforesaid, who for the time shall be, by four or more of the examiners of the same society for the time being, so as aforesaid elected and appointed, and by the public letters testimonial of the same masters or governors, under their common seal, approved of and admitted to exercise the art or science of surgery, according to the laws and statutes of this our kingdom of England.”

within seven miles of London, except physicians, until admitted,

with testimonials.

That every of the said freemen and surgeons so admitted, &c. “ may freely and lawfully use and exercise the same art, and practise surgery, as well within our said cities of London and Westminster, the liberties and suburbs thereof, as in any other cities, towns, boroughs, and places whatsoever, of this our kingdom of England, as well within the liberties and franchises as without, without any hinderance,” &c.

Freemen may practise throughout the king's dominions.

That no freeman or foreigner exercising the art within London and its precinct shall take any person as an apprentice for a less term than seven years, “ and that no such apprentice be decrepid, deformed, or have any corrupt or pestilential disease, &c.” and that every person who shall be bound as an apprentice with any one by profession a surgeon shall read and understand the Latin tongue, and for this purpose be presented before one of the masters, &c.

Apprentices.

A confirmation of former privileges, charters, &c.

Privileges, &c.

Physicians. Provided that it shall in no wise affect the privileges of the College of Physicians.

34 Hen. 8. Provided also that it in no wise affect the statute 34 H. 8. c. 8.

(No. 25a.)

CONSTANTINUS (AFRICANUS), Opera. folio, Basil, 1536.

“Quoniam quidem operatio medicinæ tribus modis constat, diæta, pharmacia, atque chirurgia. De diæta quidem et pharmacia quomodo per eas infirmitates curentur, sufficienter docuimus, consequens est ut qualiter per chirurgiam ægritudinum curatio fiat, prosequamur.”

(No. 25b.)

ROLANDUS (Libellus de Chirurgiâ editus sive compilatus à magistro Rolando). folio, Venet., 1546.

“Est autem triplex instrumentum medicinæ; per quod medicus diligenter medetur, scilicet diæta, potio, et chirurgicum instrumentum. Primò enim æger est diætandus; secundò potionandus; tertiò, si quid est superfluum in ipso, quod per prædictum instrumentum, scilicet potionem, nequit removeri, per chirurgicum instrumentum est extirpatum, &c.

(No. 25c.)

BRUNUS (Chirurgia magna Bruni Longoburgensis). folio, Venet., 1546.

“Rogasti me jam est diu Andrea Vincentine venerabilis amice mi, quod tibi brevi et aperto sermone in medicamine

chirurgiæ librum describerem collectum et excerptum ex dictis gloriosissimi Gal., Avic., Almansoris, Albu., et Halya., necnon et aliorum peritorum veterum," &c. . . . "Est ergo chirurgia, ut communiter dicitur, manualis operatio in corpore animalis ad sanitatem tendens, vel ut apertuis declaretur, Chirurgia est postremum instrumentum medicinæ. Instrumenta quidem medicinæ sunt tria; quibus mediantibus morbornm causis valet medicus summâ diligentia subvenire. Et illa sunt sicut diæta, potio et chirurgia," &c. &c.

(No. 25*d.*)

THEODORICUS (Chirurgia Edita et compilata ab excell. domino fratre Theodorico Episcopo Cerviensi ordinis prædicatorum). folio, Venet., 1546.

"Chirurgia est ultimum instrumentum medicinæ. Tria enim sunt instrumenta medicinæ, quibus mediantibus morborum causis valet medicus subvenire, scilicet diæta, potio, et chirurgia."

(No. 25*e.*)

LANFRANCUS (Practica Magestri Lanfranci de Mediolano quæ dicitur ars completa totius chirurgiæ). folio, Venet., 1546, p. 208.

"Nam necessarium est quod chirurgus sciat theoreticam sicut potest syllogizando probari. Omnis practicus est theoreticus, omnis chirurgus est practicus, ergo omnis chirurgus est theoreticus. Major probatur per textum Avicen., dicentis quod res medicaminis practicæ per unam trium rerum completur. Una regimen nutritionis est; alia medi-

cinarum exhibito; Tertia operatio manualis quod dicunt Gal., Joanni., Constantinus, et Haly. Haly vero abbas non composuit nisi duas. Una regimen et medicina; alia operatio cum manu. Minor probatur per diffinitionem theoreticæ ipsius et practicæ, se sibi ad invicem respondententes," &c. &c.

(No. 25f.)

GUIDO DE CAULIACO. Medicinæ Doctor, Chirurgiæque Professor in præclarâ Montespessulani Academiâ (Chirurgiâ magna, cap. sing.). 4to, Lugd., 1585.

“Dicatur ergo primò quid est chirurgia; Et licet multi multipliciter eam definierint, omnes tamen fundamentum à patre nostro Galeno in introductorio medicinæ sumpserunt, dum dicit, *Chirurgia est pars therapeuticæ, per incisiones et ustiones et restorationes ossium sanans homines*. Cui definitioni addit in commentario primi de regimine acutorum, (et per alias manuum operationes). Et ita est completè descripta, quatenus ipsa consideratur strictè, prout est tertium instrumentum medicinæ; ut autem consideratur largius, prout est scientia curandi ægitudines, in quas cadit intentio manualis operationis (sine exclusione aliorum duorum instrumentorum medicinæ, pharmaciæ, videlicet, et diætæ) talis descriptio ex dictis omnium assignatur; Chirurgia est scientia, docens modum et qualitatem operandi, principaliter consolidando, incidendo et alias operationes manuum exercendo, sanans homines quatenus est possibile In practicâ oportet ut sciat diætam et pharmaca præscribere, nam sine istis non perficitur chirurgia, quæ est tertium instrumentum medicinæ. Unde Galenus in introductorio dicit sicut pharmacia indiget diæta et chirurgia, sic et ipsa chirurgia indiget diæta et pharmacia.”

(No. 25g.) .

VESALIUS (Andreas). (Opera omnia Anat. et Chirurg. cura H. Boerhaave et B. S. Albini). 2 vol. fol., Lugd., Bat., 1725.

“Quamvis enim tres medicorum sectæ olim extiterint, Logica videlicet, Empirica, et Methodica, nihilominus tamen illarum autores, universæ artis scopum, ad conservandam sanitatem morbosque profligandos direxerunt, deinde huc omnia, quæ singuli in suis sectis arti necessaria existimabant, referentes, triplici auxiliorum instrumento utebantur; quarum primum, victus fuit ratio; secundum, omnis medicaminum usus; tertium, manus opera, quæ vel præ cæteris medicinam esse deficientium additionem et superfluum ablationem, eleganter ostendit, ac nunquam non sui usum in affectuum curatione præbet, quoties in re medica obimus, quorum beneficio hanc generi humano saluberrimam esse tempora ususque docuerunt. *TRIPLEX HÆC MEDENDI RATIO, cujuscumque sectæ medicis æque erat familiaris; ipsique proprias manus pro affectuum natura curationi accommodantes, non minorem industriam in illis exercendis impenderunt, quam instituendæ victus rationi, aut medicamentis, dignoscendis, ac componendis, quemadmodum præter cæteros divini Hippocratis libros, ii liquido arguunt, quos de medici munere, de ossium fracturis, articulorum luxationibus ejusque generis malis, omnium absolutissimè conscripsit.*”

(No. 25h.)

FABRICIUS AB AQUAPENDENTE (De Chir. Operat.), Præfatio. folio, Patav., 1647.

“Ex quibus omnibus luculentissimè patebit, chirurgiam

amplissimam, immensam, et inter omnes medicinæ partes potio-rem, imò potissimam, et nobilissimam esse, quam Hippocrates, Galenus, Celsus, et alii vetustissimi, nobilissimique auctores excoluerunt, et manib. propriis perpetuò exercuerunt. Hanc divinam quoque fateri par est, cum Jesus Christus Dominus noster eam adhibuerit, dum opposito luto cæcum liberavit, loculo contacto juvenem ab orco revocavit, sublato grabato paralyticum restituit.

“Cæterum inter omnes medicinæ partes Chirurgiam utilis-
simam esse, Hipp. testatus est, cum dixerit, quæ medica-
mentum non sanat, ferrum sanat, quæ ferrum non sanat,
ignis sanat, quæ ignis non sanat insanabilia sunt, quod est
perinde ac si dixisset, quæ medicamentum non sanat,
Chirurgia sanat. Potior igitur hæc pars est, quam ea, quæ
medicamentis pugnat, et meritò quidem, cum in medica-
mentaria parte multum fortuna conferat, ut ait Cel., in
Chirurgia omnis profectus hinc pendeat, sitque ejus effectus
inter omnes medicinæ partes evidentissimus.”

(No. 25i.)

RICHARD CALDWELL (Holinshed's Chronicle, vol. iii, p. 1369.)

“1584. In this yeare, and the twentieth daie of Maie departed out of this life that famous father of physicke and surgerie, the English Hippocrates and Galen, I meane Doctor Caldwell, and was buried on the sixt of June immediatlie following at St. Benet's church by Paules wharf, at the upper end of the chancell; his bodie was verie solemnelie accompanied to the church with a traine of learned and

Ab Fl. horum
omnium
maxime con-

grave doctors, besides others of that faculty, the heralds of armes dooing him such honour at his

funerall as to him of dutie apperteined. Of this mans rare love to his cuntry hath been spoken before where mention is made of the institution of a surgerie lecture perpetuallie to be continued for the common benefit of London, and consequentlie of all England; the like whereof is not established nor used in anie universitie of Christendome (Bononie and Padua excepted) and therefore the more to be esteemed. Indeed the like institution was in towardnesse while Francis the French of that name the first lived; but when he died, as the court that he kept in his time was counted a universitie, but after his deth made an exchange thereof with another name; so likewise discontinued or rather utterlie brake off that purposed institution of a surgerie lecture at Paris; so that in this point London hath a prerogative excelling the universities. This D. Caldwell in his last will and testament gave manie great legacies to a great number of his poorest kinsfolkes, as also unto others nothing allied unto him. He gave in his life time two hundred pounds to be lent gratis for ever to the clothiers in Burton, whereby clothing might be maintained, the poore artificers set on worke, and the poore citizens in Lichfield also benefited: the corporation of the said towne being bound for the receiving and delivering thereof every five yeares to the yoongest and poorest occupiers. He gave great summes of monie to the poore townships in Staffordshire, where he was borne, both towards the relieving of their privat estate, as also to the reparing of their bridges and amending of their high waies for the comoditie of all the cuntry. He left large sums of monie to be employed by his executors at their discretion where

scius. The decease of D. Caldwell, physicien of whom there is former mention page 1349.

The court of Francis the first a universitie pag. 1343.

The distributions of D. Caldwell in his life time, and his bequests after his death.

charitie moved so also to the publishing of such learned bookes of physike and surgerie (with sundrie chargeable formes graven in copper and finished in his life), as he meant if he had lived to see extant.

His commentaries upon Paulus Ægineta and other bookes.

“Divers good workes in his daies he had doone, and hath left order to be doone after his death, which was verie mild and still, not unlike the decease of a babe in the cradle; having been assailed with no extremitie of sicknesse (his

* His ordinarie infirmitie was the colicke, which tormented him exceedinglie.

ordinarie infirmitie* excepted which was intermissive) that either might wring him or wearie him to make him impatient. So that he died as sleeping, having left behind him both credit of learning, cunning, and other good ornaments the verie

beautie of his age, which was exactlie found by true computation to be threescore and fourteene, in which yeare he died

His age and counterfet which seemed to be made 1571, and in the yeare of his age 59.

as may be gathered by his counterfet so naturallie conveyed into colours, with his white beard, the hollownesse of his cheekes, the wrinkles of his browes, the lively sight of his eies, and other accessaries, and all within a module, the circum-

ference whereof exceedeth not six inches, if it amount to so much in exact measure, as a man beholding the said representation, would swere that it were not possible for art to draw more neere in imitation to nature. So that this doctor dying in so ripe an age was committed to holie ground, where he rested in peace, his cote armour bearing witness of his

The arms of Caldwell blasoned.

ancestrie; for such he beareth azure, a crosse forme fiche or, within an urle of stars or; the

second argent a fess indented sable charged with four lense heads rirant raised or; the third as the second and fourth as the first quarterlie; also he beareth to his crest on a tope

or and azure, a cocks head argent, couped, membred geules supporting a* crosse forme fiche or, between two wings sable, and mantles geules doubled argent. In further memorie of whome (so long as the church wherein he lieth buried dooth stand and the monuments therein blessed from sacrilegious hands) there remaineth fixed in the wall over his grave, a copper plate wherein his said cote armour is workemanlie graven, with the armes of the physicians college so under it, as they are knit unto it. On either side of this latter scutchion are set certeine binding bands and other instruments of surgerie in their right formes, with their proper use also to be practised upon ech member; be the same head, leg, arme, hand or foot; all workmanlie wrought, and under the same a memoriall graven for wished perpetuitie.

* The crosse forme fiche was the cote of Cadwallader the last king of Britain in an. Dom. 680.

Caldwallus jacet hîc, patriæ studiosus alumnus,
 Chirurgis Chiron, Hippocrates Medicis;
 Heracles laqueis dum fascia membra revincit
 Galenus priscae laudis et artis amans:
 Chirurgis stabilem lecturam condidit, illi
 Præfecit Medicos, quos ea turba colat.
 Plintheus hinc astat laqueus, Carchesius, inde
 Fascia; quæ studii sunt monumenta sui
 Felix Chirurgus, patronum qui tibi talem
 Nactus es, et felix qui dolet æger erit.

Laquei	{	Plintheus	1
		Carchesius	2
Fascia	{	Totum caput cingens	3
		Rhombus	4
Machinamenta	{	Scamnum Hippocratis	5
		Glossocomium	6

These figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, have relation to certeine markes, namelie the mullet, the cinque foile, the flour-de-lice, the hand, the cressant or, moone and the pause, graven in the copper plate which markes are referred to their like in and about the armes above said.

Quem tibi vinxisti Charum dum vita manebat
Te cum Melpomene post tua fata canat.

“ ‘ Ric. Forsterus.’ ”

(No. 25*k*.)

HARVEY (Willis's Life of, p. xxxviii, note).

“There is much information on the life of Harvey in the inscription on the copper-plate, which was attached to his portrait in the old College of Physicians. I give it entire, anxious to set before the reader every authentic word of his times that was uttered of Harvey ; This inscription, but, unless I mistake, abbreviated, may be found in printed letters under the bust of Harvey in the theatre of the Royal College of Physicians ;

“ ‘ GULIELMUS HARVÆUS

Anglus natus, Galliaë, Italiaë, Germaniæ, hospes,

Ubique Amor et Desiderium,

Quem omnis terra expetisset Civem,

Medicinæ Doctor, Coll. Med. Lond. Socius et Consiliarius

Anatomes, Chirurgiæque Professor,

Regis Jacobi Familiaë, Caroloque Regi, Medicus,

Gestis Clarus, omissisque honoribus,

Quorum alios tulit, oblatos renuit alios,

Omnes meruit.

Laudatis priscorum ingeniis par

Quos honoravit maxime imitando

Docuitque posteros exemplo.

Nullius laccessivit famam,

Veritatis studens magis quam gloriaë,

Hanc tamen adeptus
 Industria, sagacitate, successu nobilis
 Perpetuos sanguinis æstus
 Circulari gyro fugientis, seque sequentis,
 Primus promulgavit mundo.
 Nec passus ultrà mortales sua ignorare primordia
 Aureum edidit de ovo atque pullo librum,
 Albæ gallinæ filium.
 Sic novis inventis Apollineam ampliavit artem,
 Atque nostrum Apollinis sacrarium angustius esse
 Tandem voluit;
 Suasu enim et cura D.D.Dni. Francisci Prujeani Præsidis
 Et Edmundi Smith Electoris
 An. MDCLIII
 Senaculum, et de nomine suo Musæum horto superstruxit,
 Quorum alterum plurimis libris et Instrumentis Chirurgicis
 Alterum omnigena supellectile ornavit et instruxit,
 • Medicinæ Patronus simul et Alumnus.’”
 &c. &c.

(No. 26.)

“ Stat. Coll. Reg. Med.” (Willcock’s, p. xxxii.)

“ Antequam quispiam in permissorum numerum admittatur,
 si fortè chirurgorum aut pharmacopolarum sodalitio olim
 donatus fuerit, sodalitiis istius privilegiis omnibus renunci-
 et, nec non emancipationis suæ literas firma auctoritate com-
 probatas registrario proferat.”

(No. 27.)

18 Geo. 2. c. 15. (Willcock's Laws, p. clxxxv.)

An Act for making the Surgeons of London and the Barbers of London two separate and distinct Corporations.

Anno 1745.

Reciting charter 1 Ed. 4., stat. 32 Hen. 8., and charter 5 Car. 1., and that the barbers belonging to this corporation had for many years been engaged in a business foreign to and independent of the practice of surgery, and that the surgeons belonging to the same corporation had become a numerous and considerable body, and found their union with the barbers inconvenient, and in no degree conducive to the progress or improvement of the art of surgery: enacted, that the said union and incorporation should from the 24th of June 1745, be dissolved, vacated, and declared to be void and of no effect; and that such of the members of the dissolved company who were freemen of the company, and admitted and approved surgeons within the rules of the said company, &c., should be constituted a distinct body corporate, &c., by the name of the master, governors, and commonalty of the art and science of surgeons of London, and by that name sue and be sued, purchase, &c., lands, &c., not exceeding the annual value of 200*l*.

Union of the
companies
dissolved.

New name,
&c.

Former privi-
leges.

8. That the said company of surgeons, and their successors, and all persons who should be freemen of the same company or corporation, should and might, from time to time, and at all times for ever thereafter, have, hold, and enjoy all and every such and the same liberties, privileges, franchises, powers, and authorities, as the members of the said united company or corporation, being freemen of the said com-

pany, and admitted and approved surgeons, within the rules of the said company and corporation, could or might respectively have had, held, and enjoyed, by virtue of the said recited act of union or incorporation, and the said letters patent of his said late majesty king Charles the first respectively, and other the royal grants, charters, and patents therein mentioned and referred to, so far as the same related to the art or science of surgery only, and not otherwise; and that in as full, ample, and beneficial manner, to all intents and purposes, as if the same had in and by this act been expressly repeated and re-enacted; and that Practice. they, and all such who already had been, or thereafter should be, examined and approved, pursuant to the rules of the said company, should be entitled to practise freely, and without restraint, the art and science of surgery throughout all and every his majesty's dominions; any law or custom to the contrary notwithstanding.

11. Provided always, that this act or any thing therein Physicians. contained should not extend or be construed or taken to prejudice, abridge, or infringe any of the privileges, authorities, powers, rights, liberties, or franchises theretofore granted by any act or acts of parliament, or by any letters patent, charters or charter of any of his majesty's royal predecessors, kings or queens of England, to the president and college, or commonalty of the faculty of physic in London.

22. This is a public act to be judicially noticed without Public act. being specially pleaded, &c.

The remainder of the act relates to the barbers' company.

(No. 28.)

Charter, 22nd March. 40 Geo. 3. (Willcock's
Laws, p. clxxxviii.)

Anno 1800.

Recital.

Reciting charter 4 Ed. 1. stat. 32 Hen. 8. charter 5 Car. 1.
and stat. 18 G. 2.

“AND whereas we are informed that the said corporation of master, governors, and commonalty of the art and science of surgeons of London, hath become, and now is, *dissolved*: And whereas it is of great consequence to the commonweal of this kingdom, that the art and science of surgery should be duly promoted: And whereas it appears to us, that the establishment of a college of surgeons will be expedient for the due promotion and encouragement of the study and practice of the said art and science; we, at the humble petition of James Earle, Esq. the late master, and divers other members of the aforesaid late corporation of surgeons, have willed, ordained, constituted, declared, given, and granted, and by these presents, for us, our heirs, and successors, do will, ordain, constitute, and declare, give and grant, unto the aforesaid James Earle, and unto *all the members of the said late company or corporation* of master, governors, and commonalty of the art and science of surgeons of London; having been admitted and approved surgeons, within the rules of the said company; and also unto all such persons, who upon, or since, the dissolution of the said corporation, shall have obtained letters testimonial, under a seal purporting to be the seal of the said late dissolved corporation, authorizing them to practise the art and science of surgery; that they, from henceforth for ever hereafter, shall be and *remain* by virtue of these presents, one body

Grants to
members of
late company;

and persons
since admit-
ted;

that they
shall *remain*
a corporation.

corporate and politic, by the name of the Royal College of Surgeons in London, and by the same name shall and may have perpetual succession, and a common seal, with power to break, alter, and make anew, the said seal, from time to time, at their will and pleasure; and by the same name shall and may implead, and be impleaded, before all manner of justices, in all courts, and in all manner of actions and suits; and shall be at all times for ever hereafter persons able and capable in law to take, purchase, possess, hold, and enjoy, and shall and may take, purchase, possess, hold, and enjoy, a hall or council-house, with its appurtenances, situate within the cities of London or Westminster, or within one mile of either of them, for the use and purposes of the said college; and also any other lands, tenements, rents, or hereditaments wheresoever situate, lying, and being; not exceeding, together with the aforesaid hall or council-house, and its appurtenances, the yearly value of 1000*l.* in the whole; without incurring any of the penalties in any statute of mortmain, or anything, in any statute of mortmain, to the contrary notwithstanding.

That nothing in these presents shall be construed to give the corporation of the city of London any power or jurisdiction over the said college hereby established and incorporated; and that no person, by virtue of these our letters patent, constituted or ordained, or hereafter to be admitted a member of the said college, shall be thereby entitled to any franchise belonging to the freemen of the city of London.

We do hereby, so far as we lawfully can or may, grant and ordain, that the said Royal College of Surgeons hereby incorporated, shall and *may exercise and enjoy* all and singular other the gifts, grants, liberties, privileges, and immunities, possessions, real and personal, whatsoever and wheresoever,

Name.

Seal.

Council-house.

Lands, &c.

Yearly value

City of London has no jurisdiction over college.

Members not to enjoy franchises of London.

Former privileges, &c. confirmed.

herein before mentioned, or by any act or acts of parliament, or by any letters patent, of our royal predecessors, kings and queens of England; given, granted, and confirmed unto, or otherwise lawfully acquired by, and belonging to the said late master, governors, and commonalty of the art and science of surgeons, or any of them, and not hereby altered, taken away, changed, or abridged, made void or annulled.

Duties under
25 G. 2.

The College of Surgeons hereby established shall be liable to, and shall perform, such duties as the late dissolved corporation of surgeons was at any time heretofore liable to and did perform by virtue of 25 G. 2. c. 37.

(No. 29.)

55 Geo. 3. c. 194. (Willcock's Laws, p. ccxxxvi.)

An Act for better regulating the Practice of Apothecaries throughout England and Wales.— July 12. 1815.

Anno 1815.

Charter con-
firmed.

Reciting charter 13 James 1.—That the said charter, and all and every the powers, provisions, penalties, forfeitures, regulations, clauses, matters, and things therein contained, (save and except such part or parts thereof as are hereby altered, varied, or repealed,) shall be, and the same is and are hereby declared to be in full force and virtue, and shall be as good, valid, and effectual, to all intents and purposes whatsoever, as if this act had not been made.

Compound-
ing, refusal or
fraud in.

Sec. 5. And whereas it is the duty of every person using or exercising the art and mystery of an apothecary to prepare with exactness, and to dispense such medicines as may be directed for the sick, by any physician lawfully licensed to practise physic by the president and commonalty of the

faculty of physic in London, or by either of the two universities of Oxford or Cambridge; therefore, for the further protection, security, and benefit of his Majesty's subjects, and for the better regulation of the practice of physic throughout England and Wales, be it enacted, that if any person using or exercising the art and mystery of an apothecary, shall, at any time, knowingly, wilfully, and contumaciously refuse to make, mix, compound, prepare, give, apply, or administer, or any way to sell, set on sale, put forth, or put to sale, to any person or persons whatever, any medicines, compound medicines, or medicinable compositions, or shall deliberately or negligently, falsely, unfaithfully, fraudulently, or unduly make, mix, compound, prepare, give, apply, or administer, or any way sell, set on sale, put forth, or put to sale, to any person or persons whatever, any medicines, compound medicines, or medicinal compositions, as directed by any prescription, order or receipt, signed with the initials, in his own hand-writing, of any physician so lawfully licensed to practise physic, such person or persons so offending shall, upon complaint made within twenty-one days by such physician, and upon conviction of such offence before any of his Majesty's justices of the peace, unless such offender can show some satisfactory reason, excuse, or justification in this behalf, forfeit, for the first offence, the sum of 5*l.*; for the second offence, the sum of 10*l.*; and for the third offence he shall forfeit his certificate, and be rendered incapable, in future, of using or exercising the art and mystery of an apothecary, and be liable to the penalty inflicted by this act upon all who practise as such without a certificate, in the same manner as if such party, so convicted, had never been furnished with a certificate enabling him to practise as an apothecary; and such

offender, so deprived of his certificate, shall be rendered and deemed incapable, in future, of receiving and holding any fresh certificate, unless the said party so applying for a renewal of his certificate shall faithfully promise and undertake, and give good and sufficient security, that he will not, in future, be guilty of the like offence.

Apothecaries'
company to
carry act into
execution.

Sec. 7. And whereas much mischief and inconvenience has arisen from great numbers of persons in many parts of England and Wales exercising the functions of an apothecary, who *are wholly ignorant and utterly incompetent* to the exercise of such functions, whereby the health and lives of the community are greatly endangered, and it is become necessary that provision should be made for remedying such evils; be it therefore further enacted, that the said master, wardens, and society of the art and mystery of apothecaries of the city of London, incorporated by the said recited charter of his Majesty King James the First, and their successors, shall be, and they are hereby appointed and constituted, directed and empowered for ever to superintend the execution of the provisions of this act, and to enforce and carry the several regulations and provisions thereof, in relation to the several persons practising the art or mystery, or profession, of an apothecary throughout England and Wales, and all other the purposes of this act, into full execution.

None to prac-
tise as apo-
thecaries, &c.
without ex-
amination.

14. And to prevent any person or persons from practising as an apothecary without being properly qualified to practise as such, be it further enacted, that from and after the 1st August 1815, it shall not be lawful for any person or persons (except persons already in practice as such) to practise as an apothecary in any part of England or Wales, unless he or they shall have been examined by the said court of examiners, or the major part of them, and have re-

ceived a certificate of his or their being duly qualified to practise as such from the said court of examiners, or the major part of them as aforesaid, who are hereby authorised and required to examine all person and persons applying to them, for the purpose of ascertaining the skill and abilities of such person or persons in the science and practice of medicine, and his or their fitness and qualification to practise as an apothecary; and the said court of examiners, or the major part of them, are hereby empowered either to reject such person or persons, or to grant a certificate of such examination, and of his or their qualification to practise as an apothecary as aforesaid: Provided always, that no person shall be admitted to such examination until he shall have attained the full age of 21 years.

15. That no person shall be admitted to any such examination for a certificate to practise as an apothecary, unless he shall have served an apprenticeship of not less than five years to an apothecary, and unless he shall produce testimonials to the satisfaction of the said court of examiners of a sufficient medical education, and of a good moral conduct.

Applicant's testimonials.

28. That nothing in this act contained shall extend, or be construed to extend, to prejudice, or in any way to affect the trade or business of a chemist and druggist, in the buying, preparing, compounding, dispensing, and vending drugs, medicines, and medicinale compounds, wholesale and retail; but all persons using or exercising the said trade or business, or who shall or may hereafter use or exercise the same, shall and may use, exercise, and carry on the same trade or business, in such manner, and as fully and amply, to all intents and purposes, as the same trade or business

Chemists and druggists.

was used, exercised, or carried on by chemists and druggists before the passing of this act.

Saving rights.

29. That nothing in this act contained shall extend, or be construed to extend, to lessen, prejudice, or defeat, or in anywise to interfere with any of the rights, authorities, privileges, and immunities heretofore vested in, and exercised and enjoyed by, either of the two universities of Oxford or Cambridge, the Royal College of Physicians, the Royal College of Surgeons, or the said society of apothecaries respectively, other than and except such as shall or may have been altered, varied, or amended in and by this act, or of any person or persons practising as an apothecary previously to the 1st August 1815; but the said universities, royal colleges, and the said society, and all such persons or person, shall have, use, exercise, and enjoy all such rights, authorities, privileges, and immunities, save and except as aforesaid, in as full, ample, and beneficial a manner, to all intents and purposes, as they might have done before the passing of this act, and in case the same had never been passed.

(No. 30.)

21 and 22 Vict. c. 90.

“Sec. 55. Nothing in this Act contained shall extend or
 Chemists, &c. be construed to extend to prejudice or in any
 not to be way to affect the lawful occupation, trade, or
 affected. business of Chemists and Druggists, and Dentists, or the
 Rights, Privileges, or Employment of duly licensed Apothe-
 caries in *Ireland*, so far as the same extend to selling, com-
 pounding, or dispensing Medicines.”

OPINIONS OF THE PRESS.

FIRST EDITION.

“The remedies proposed by the author are the union of the different branches of the profession into one body; the separation of Pharmacy from the practice of Medicine, including Surgery and Midwifery; and the education and compulsory examination of Pharmaceutists. All these points are worked out with great care and perspicuity, and we direct attention to the whole work, as one abounding in accurate knowledge, lofty purpose, and soundness of judgment.”—*Medical Times and Gazette*.

“A Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons treats learnedly of the corruptions and divisions of medicine in England and Wales, investigating their causes and effects, and seeking their remedy. He regards the existing division of the medical profession into physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries, as arising from three great periods of corruption in medicine. The first great period of corruption began with the invasion of medicine by priests and monks, during the sixth and seventh centuries. From the seventh to the sixteenth century, medicine was allied with priests and monks—the period of priest-physicians. In 1518, medicine was emancipated from priests and monks, and the pure physician appeared. The second great period of corruption began with the invasion of medicine by barbers, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. From the thirteenth to the eighteenth century, medicine was allied with barbers—the period of the barber-surgeon. In 1745, medicine was emancipated from barbers, and the pure surgeon appeared. The third great period of corruption began with the invasion of medicine by apothecaries in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. From the eighteenth

century to the present time medicine has been allied with apothecaries—the period of the apothecary-physician. Purity and unity of Medicine is sought for, and to obtain this medicine must be emancipated from apothecaries, and united with surgery under one common denomination. This course, according to our author, is the only remedial measure for the present corruptions and divisions in medicine.”—*Ranking's Half-yearly Abstract*.

“A well-written and interesting work to which we shall again recur.”—*Medico-Chirurgical Review*.

“We thank the author for this erudite contribution to our literature.”—*Medical Circular*.

“Le livre n'a rien du pamphlet, mais il est d'une lecture attachante; il fourmille de citations curieuses, de textes des vieilles chartes, d'anecdotes, de réflexions d'humoriste, et en apprend plus que ne feraient tous les traités dogmatiques sur l'état présent de la médecine dans le Royaume-Uni. * * * Nous suivons avec trop d'intérêt l'évolution des idées qui touchent aux principes professionnels, et nous sommes trop convainçus qu'on a toujours à profiter d'un mouvement auquel même on semble demeurer étranger pour nous en tenir à un si court énoncé et pour ne pas tirer d'autre parti de ces précieux matériaux.”—*Archives Gen. de Med.*

“Great learning and research are displayed in this valuable contribution to the controversy now proceeding, and we recommend its perusal by all interested in the question at issue. To Members of Parliament we especially recommend the reading of this volume. It will give them a mass of valuable information on a subject upon which they are now legislating with, we fear, very imperfect knowledge. They will not find it dull or tedious. On the contrary, it is extremely amusing, and will pleasantly employ two or three leisure hours. They will learn more from it than from many more ponderous and prosy volumes, which too often throw darkness rather than light upon the topics they treat.”—*Critic*.



*London, New Burlington Street,
March, 1873*

SELECTION

FROM

MESSRS J. & A. CHURCHILL'S

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